Delaware Federal Writers Project Papers



# Volume 15

V. E. Shaw
Feb. 17, 1939

Education
School Buildings

CURRENT FILE

Part II: School Building in Delaware - 1919-1939

Material summarized from Annual Reports of the State Department of Public Instruction, when not otherwise credited.
(Unless specifically included in any statement, Wilmington building is omitted from the discussion.)

The survey of the General Education Board in 1918 marked the close of a long period of discussion and agitation for reform of the school practices of the State, and the opening of one of rapid change. This was especially true of the building situation.

1935 p.11.

During the twenty years following 1919, the school plant was largely rebuilt. Its value increased from approximately $1,860,000 (less than that of P. S. du Pont High School) in June, 1919, to $17,902,767.49 in June, 1935.

The first step in the new program was taken by a private group, headed by P. S. du Pont, when the Delaware School Auxiliary Association was chartered in July 1919, to administer funds the members had donated to encourage public school building.

Delaware State Code, 1919; p.93
ibid. p. 52

The basic school law of the State was changed April 14, 1919, in order to substitute a state-supervised for an exceptionally decentralized set-up. A State Board of Education was empowered to prescribe rules for the construction and maintenance of school buildings, and the Superintendent of Schools was to develop a school building program for their approval. Although the new Code was

School Laws of Delaware: 1921

114694

repealed, effective July 1, 1921, the provision affecting centralization of the building program remained materially unchanged in Art. I Sect. 8, of 1, sub-section, of the School Law of 1921.

The Annual Report of 1921-22 gives a summary of
1922 the work accomplished in the preceding two years. Under
p.31-32 the short-lived Code of 1919 there were eight consolidations involving twenty-eight schools, but no new buildings were erected. In 1921-22 three consolidations in colored schools were made possible through the building program of the Delaware School Auxiliary Association. Lack of funds for new buildings held back consolidation in many communities. The Department of Public Instruction recommended that there be no new one-room construction.

The Delaware School Auxiliary had built and presented to the State 18 white schools, totalling 73 rooms (3 are 12-18 rooms; others under 5), and serving 2,450 pupils. The cost was $696,881.41, of which local districts paid $108,000.00 The Association also built, without any local contribution, 35 colored schools, totalling 63 rooms for 2,465 pupils at a cost of $498,310.24. Because of the sparse and scattered colored population in the districts served, most of these are one-or-two room structures. There were also under construction 25 other colored schools, with 52 rooms, which, by January 1923 were expected to meet the needs of every colored school district in the state.

p.47-52. A survey of building needs for white schools in towns and villages showed 19 communities where school housing was grossly inadequate; in only three of these was new building planned or started. No specific comment was made on the condition of the one-room schools scattered across the countryside. There were 274 of these in use, and judging from the photographs of those abandoned during the year, many of them were disgraceful. There were 420 school houses in use. (N.B. This figure is repeated until 1926, in spite of new building and abandonment of properties which could not possibly have exactly balanced each other for several years.)

1923 It was impossible to obtain legislative approval for bonding the State either for the building program the State Board of Education had suggested or an alternative requiring greater local participation.

p.22;30. The Delaware School Auxiliary built 46 colored schools costing $532,981.61.

1924 The Annual Report for June 1924 shows the following building:

p.19;37-41 The Delaware School Auxiliary spent $1,927,687.09 for white schools between 1919-1924. From its own unsupplemented funds it built 19 schools with 35 rooms; it gave $702,000 to supplement State grants of $15,000, and local financing of $178,000 for the construction of 7 additional schools. (In Wilmington it was building one $600,000 school, and providing architectural and engineering service for two others.) Two buildings, costing together $460,000 were under construction at the expense of local districts.

The Delaware School Auxiliary during the period spent $1,069,728.70 for 84 colored schools providing 146 rooms. There was no State or local contribution toward the cost of this part of the program.

Approximately 40 percent of the State's school housing needs (as reported in 1919) were supplied by work either authorized or already completed in 1924.

Six bond issues were proposed, two of which passed. A building program proposed by the State Board of Education in 1923 failed to obtain the necessary majority in the House.

267 of the State's 420 (reported) school buildings were one-room structures. 4 schools were closed by consolidation; 11 erected; 4 under construction.

In 1925 there were still 420 school buildings reported;

1925

255 of them one-room schools in service; there were 8

p.29;39; 41-44;200

closings through consolidation; 3 new buildings completed (1 white-2 colored); 4 buildings under construction (2 white - 2 colored).

A bill for a State building program submitted in 1925 failed in the Senate.

In 1926, 444 school buildings were reported, 251 of them

1926

one-room schools in use. There were 11 closings due to consolidation; 5 new buildings were erected, and one is under construction. Outside Wilmington, 7,264 white children were satisfactorily housed in State-owned buildings; 13,635 were still in rented, temporary, or otherwise unsatisfactory quarters.

During the year 1926-27 the State received as gifts

1927

two schools: Krebs at Newport and Williamsville-Bethseda,

costing together $173,905.47.

The 1927 legislature finally passed a School Building Act providing that $1,000,000 annually for the biennium be appropriated from current school receipts for the purpose; two-fifths for Wilmington, three-fifths for the rest of the State.

The law provided that plans for building must be initiated by the State Board of Education, and approved by local boards affected. The local contribution should be two percent of the district's 1919 assessment, with credit allowed for the cost of any construction undertaken since 1900. Such funds might be raised by bond issue or otherwise. If the district had already spent the stipulated two percent for improvement of plant, the state should bear the entire expense. The members of the State Board of Education, and four locally elected members, comprised a building committee for each district participating in the program, and were to supervise construction, subject to the standards set by the State Board of Education.

The Board of Public Education in Wilmington has sole jurisdiction over the city's share of the building fund.

Pierre S. du Pont offered, and the State Board accepted, the services of the architects, engineer, and accountants who had been employed in the work done by the Delaware School Auxiliary. Local building committees were, however, left free to refuse the offer for any individual school; so far as can be learned, none have. The Delaware School Auxiliary offered any assistance to the State its experience in school building made it competent to give. The Delaware School

Foundation was chartered to continue the work of the School Auxiliary when its charter expired.

Under the State program, in its first year, 10 school
1928 buildings were approved, and contracts let for them.
p.47-60 $8,000 per room was allowed from State funds.

A survey of school needs (1928) indicated the following:

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Wilmington | 100 | rooms | for | 4,000 | students |
| New Castle Co. | 83 | " | " | 3,320 | " |
| Kent Co. | 55 | " | " | 3,200 | " |
| Sussex Co. | 99 | " | " | 3,960 | " |

There were about 9 gymnasiums or auditoriums (usually combined). This estimate excluded all schools whose 1919 rating was over 500.

Eight new schools were proposed for 1928-29.

February 17, 1928 marked the completion of the program of providing every colored school district outside Wilmington with a modern building. These buildings were a gift to the State from the Delaware School Auxiliary.

The Delaware School Auxiliary Association, between July 1919 and January 1928, spent $4,345,157.10 for various educational projects in Delaware. The sum includes grants to the City of Wilmington, and to the University of Delaware. The Association was succeeded by the Delaware School Foundation, as administrator of a second trust fund.

Fourteen unused school properties were sold.

For the biennium 1929-1931 the legislature appropriated
1929 $1,250,000 annually to continue the building program. Twenty-
p.48-59 four old schools were sold.

1930
p.52-57;90.

An available building fund of $795,179.55 for construction in 1930-31 was allocated to 8 new schools. Seventeen old buildings were sold.

1931
p.11-12; 82-83.

Since 1922, 41 schools had been built, with approximately 490 classrooms; 10 others, with approximately 105 classrooms, were planned or under construction. The State had appropriated $7,500,000.00, local communities outside Wilmington, $592,746; in Wilmington, 8 schools have been built during the period. Thirteen old schools were sold.

1932
p.51-63

For 1932, 7 new buildings were authorized, with extensive additions to 6 others; 12 old schools were disposed of.

1933
p.40-53;67

Projects completed in 1933 included 10 new schools, and 7 extensive additions. The State appropriation in 1931 was $3,000,000 - two-fifths of it for Wilmington; in 1933 the appropriation was $2,500,000 of which $1,500,000 was earmarked for a high school in Wilmington. The engineering and accounting costs contributed by the Delaware School Foundation for the buildings erected under these appropriations amounted to between 7 and 10 percent of the total cost. After June, 1931, the Foundation paid only 2½ percent and required 7½ percent of Commissions (1931 - p.84; 1932 - p.41).

1934
39-49

In addition to the funds listed above, there was a special appropriation of $375,000 for Conrad High School. Under the original Federal Public Works Administration one new building was constructed, and 7 additions were made to existing structures. Federal building grants totalled $303,300.

Of fourteen referendums on consolidation, only two succeeded. Thirteen abandoned schools were sold.

1935 During 1935 $2,301,381.70 was spent for school building.

p.11;42-50 Since 1919 there has been spent for school construction $17,533,802.00. Of this sum, the State has provided $10,475,000; local districts, $2,907,056; the Federal Government, $367,470; and private contributors, $3,794,276. Estimates made of the value of the State school plant set $17,902,767.49 as its worth. The estimate for 1919 was $1,860,000.

Of State funds contributed to the building program, $5,935,000 went to State Board and special district schools; $4,540,000 to Wilmington.

1936 The Annual Report of the State Department of Public Instruction for 1936 contains a summary of the portion of

p.42-45 the building program carried out under State auspices. The following table gives the total sums available, exclusive of the administrative costs borne by the Delaware School Foundation.

Table of Total Funds - 1927-1935.

| | Wilmington | State | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Appropriated by Legis. | $4,540,000.00 | $5,935,000.00 | $10,475,000.00 |
| Interest on funds approp. | 151,619.84 | 248,582.21 | 400,202.05 |
| Local contributions | _____ | 819,820.71 | 819,820.71 |
| PWA | 494,477.00 | 331,364.53 | 825,841.53 |
| Emergency fire ins. fund | _____ | 5,000.00 | 5,000.00 |
| Insurance- fire loss | _____ | 1,241.40 | 1,241.41 |
| Miscellaneous | _____ | 670.21 | 670.21 |
| Total | $5,186,096.84 | $7,341,697.06 | $12,527,775.90 |

"This has meant the addition of 565 classrooms, 12 auditoriums and assembly rooms, 20 auditorium-gymnasiums, 8 gymnasiums, and 16 cafeterias outside Wilmington, making provision for 21,000 children."

In addition to the State program, two large schools were received as gifts - the Krebs School at Newport, worth $155,000, from Mr. and Mrs. Hendrick J. Krebs; and the A. I. du Pont School at Talleyville, worth $250,000. The Seaford Special District School, destroyed by fire in 1928, was replaced by the Delaware School Foundation for $309,439.72, and the new building equipped from the proceeds of the fire insurance on the old structure.

The 1935 legislature voted only $100,000 for a building program, allocating $40,000 to Wilmington for reconditioning Wilmington High School, $55,000 for equipment of Conrad School, and $5,000 for sanitary equipment at Milford.

The State Board, on November 20, 1936, discussed
1937 the advisability of presenting to the legislature a new
p.51-53 building program, which would require greater local participation than did the earlier one. On Jan. 15, 1937, a program of 19 projects, mostly additions, at an estimated total cost of $1,881,500, approximately one-fourth of which should be borne by the districts, was approved. The legislature apparently took no action, since no mention of the subject appears in the index to House or Senate Journals for the session.

Four abandoned properties were sold.

The 1927 building program met only about 80 percent
1938 of the needs of the schools. Seven districts are negotiating
p. 15-16 with PWA for new buildings or extensive additions, and two with WPA for additions.

For 1937-38 the State provided 215 buildings for school purposes; 96 were one-room schools, and 25 two-room; 29 buildings were used wholly or in part for high school purposes; 81 were colored schools.

One-Teacher Schools - 1900-1938

Since 1919, 237 one-teacher schools have been closed; a definite tendency is shown on the part of parents where one-room schools still exist to transfer their children to consolidated schools at their own expense.

## One-Teacher Schools in Delaware

| | Year | No. of one-teacher schools | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | White | Colored | Total |
| | 1900-01 | 274 | 80 | 354 |
| 1936: | 1920-21 | 228 | 65 | 293 |
| p.15 | 1926-27 | 189 | 53 | 242 |
| supplemental by 1938: p.22 | 1928-29 | 163 | 53 | 216 |
| | 1930-31 | 130 | 45 | 175 |
| | 1932-33 | 96 | 43 | 139 |
| | 1934-35 | 80 | 43 | 123 |
| | 1935-36 | 69 | 40 | 109 |
| | 1936-37 | 61 | 41 | 102 |
| | 1937-38 | 52 | 42 | 94 |

References: State of Delaware: Annual Reports of the Department of Public Instruction - 1919-1938.

State of Delaware: Delaware School Code, 1919.

State of Delaware: School Laws of Delaware, 1921.

Submitted by - Barbara Williams,

Date - January 27, 1936.

#110 - $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Dover

Little Creek

#110 Little Creek, an incorporated town four miles from Dover. Out in the Delaware Bay near this hamlet extensive oyster beds provide one of the most important industries of the Commonwealth.

Little Creek Landing, as this place is sometimes called is one of the oldest communities in Kent County. #230 Its annals begin with May 14, 1764 when May Bell gave to her children the ground on which it stands. #230 John Bell constructed the first wharf. #250 The Landing grew rapidly into an important shipping point for Little Creek Hundred. Thousands of tons of grain and marsh hay used in making rope and excelsior for packing cases were shipped annually on vessels which plied the coast-wise routes.

Captain David Montgomery was the pioneer in Little Creek's oyster industry. The locality has been the scene of long drawn out"oyster wars" arising out of the bitter disputes over the Delaware - New Jersey boundary. In the 80's these wars developed into actual battles. Boats of Delaware's "Oyster Navy" now patrol the bay.

Schools #640 School established by old Gun Swamp M.E. Church in 1832, a day school for the use of both whites and negroes was an oddity in Delaware education. The building was moved into Little Creek in 1875 and in 1884 a new structure was built.

#661 The Friends of Little Creek Hundred founded their society in 1714.

Newspaper Clippings - 1-8-36 News

Cheyney, J.B.
April 21, 1936

Judge Henry C. Conrad

As the author of "The History of Delaware," , Henry C. Conrad will possibly be longest remembered. Its accurate preparation and publication was a distinct public service for it brings the story of Delaware's development down from the Settlement at Lewes 1631 to 1908 filling the gap left by the earlier standard History of the First State in the Union.

Mr. Conrad was of Dutch ancestry on the paternal side. The émigré of the family came to America from Holland one year after the arrival of William Penn at New Castle and settled near Germantown. The son born at Bridesburg, Penna., in 1852, came to Wilmington as a youth and studied under T. Clarkson Taylor and William A. Reynolds and read law with Anthony Higgins. After completing a course at the Harvard Law School, he was admitted to practice in 1874. His interest in the colored race when liberated from slavery made him the choice for Actuary of the African School Society and head of the Colored School system in Delaware for almost two decades. The Society maintained schools for the Negroes in the State. Mr. Conrad was drafted into membership of the Wilmington Board of Education serving two terms as president of that body. He too was president of the City Council. His part in the civic administration of the city included a four year tenure as City Solicitor. He later aspired to the Mayoralty but was candidate on a Democratic year and was likewise unfortunate six years later as the Republican nominee as County Comptroller. Never again was he defeated nor his aspirations thwarted. In 1906-1909 he was postmaster in Wilmington and the latter year brought him the most coveted honor of his career, a seat on the bench of the courts of the State. In 1924 he was induced to accept the post of State Archivist for which he was admirably qualified and equipped. He had been president of the Delaware Historical Society and knew all of Delaware's history. He had removed to Georgetown after his appointment as a Justice and lived at "The Judges" which took its name from the fact that it had been the home of able justices of state courts for a century. The quaint old residence was

a repository of perhaps the most interesting comprehensive collection of antiques: furniture, blass, ceremics, paintings and articles of vertu generally in the State. They represented a value of many thousand dollars. Most of them were distributed in Mr. Conrad's latter years among appreciative friends. The Jurist-Historian was prominent in the M.E.Church and its councils. He was one of the pioneers in daily morning journalism in Wilmington. He was the first publisher and editor of the Morning News, building it upon so stable a foundation that it has survived the dark and dreary days of early newspapers in smaller cities, and attaining a marked growth in its six or seven decades.

He was tall, stalwart and handsome and was beloved of all Delawareans. Much regret was expressed at the passing in 1930 of one who had served the public efficiently for almost fifty years.

Mary Mazzeo
February 15, 1940





Negro School News Items

From Delaware State Journal and Statesman, Dec. 16, 1859.

There will be an examination of the pupils of the pupils of the colored school attached to the Ezion M.E. church, on this Friday evening in the hall of the Central Building, corner of 4th and King Streets. Admission .10, children half price.

* * * * * * * * * *

From Every Evening, Feb. 18, 1879.

Colored Convention

A convention of colored delegates from different portions of the state assembled at Dover this morning for the purpose of memorializing the legislature to grant an appropriation for the aid of colored schools. A number of the delegates who were appointed at a meeting held in Ezion church on the evening of the 4th went down from here to attend the convention.

* * * * * * * * * *

From Every Evening, Feb. 21, 1879.

The colored people are asking for $4,000 of the school fund, and they presented a memorial stating their case today. What action will be taken is uncertain but their claim is put in a very strong way.

* * * * * * * * * *

From Wilmington Commercial, Jan 10, 1873.

A convention of colored people was held at Dover yesterday in which nearly every district of the state was represented. A temporary organization being effected, J.W.Layton addressed the meeting, in which he stated that the object of the convention was

to take some definite action for securing better educational advantages for colored people. He explained the inefficiency and inability of the colored people to educate their children under the present sytem, advised petitioning the general assembly for relief, to petition Congress for the passage of the Civil Rights Bill, and to issue an address to the people of the State on the various phases of the subject. . . . . After much discussion the Convention adjourned.

* * * * * * * * * * *

From Wilmington Daily Commercial Jan. 3, 1879.

Colored Education

More new schools opened by the Delaware Association. There are now under the charge of the Delaware Association in the state 20 schools for colored children. New ones have been recently established at Dover, Odessa, Camden, Milton, Concord, Plymouth, Seaford, Smyrna, Lewes and Kenton. There has been no school at Lewes for the past three years. At Plymouth for the last two years the colored people of the neighborhood have been keeping up their schools without aid, but they found much difficulty in obtaining capable treachers, and they have now accepted the assistance of the association. During December past the schools had on their rolls an average of 115 pupils more than in the same month of 1871. Three more new schools were just opened.

* * * * * * * * * *

From Wilmington Daily Commercial, Jan. 3, 1873.

City Council

The committee on education which had been instructed to prepare a memorial to the legislature, asking for some plan of provision

for the education of colored children, presented the said memorial. It recites the grievances of the colored people, the inadequacy and injustice of the present school system and proposes that the colored people be taxed the same as white people for school purposes, and that schools be provided for colored children under the supervision of the Board of Education.

Mr. Hayes was in favor of educating the colored classes but demanded separate schools for them.

Mr. Quinn of City Council, was unwilling to vote money to pay for the education of those who are unwilling to help themselves. It was suggested that the education of the colored children would entail too much work for the Board of Education and that a board of commissioners be appointed for that purpose. Prior to the adoption of the memorial the word seperate was explicated, to make certain the definite meaning of separate schools.

E. Samworth's file



FILE NO. S-640

LOCALITY -- Dagsboro Hundred and
Vicinity (Sussex County)

SUBMITTED BY: Charles L. Ennis

TOPIC:- Essay on "Reminisences of School-days and Teaching in a One-room Sussex School-house."

The district embraced a sparsely settled territory about four miles in length and three miles in breadth, or about twelve square miles. It lay near the center of the County being about five miles S.E. of Georgetown, the County Seat. It was known as "Rogers School," presumably because many of the early settlers had the family name of "Rogers," a prominent resident by that name having been instrumental in founding the school. The schoolhouse was located near the center of the district and the most remote families were more than two miles from school.

The building was a single story wooden structure, having one room whose dimensions were approximately 20x30 ft. A door in one end of the building, three windows on either side, and one in the rear, secured by heavy wooden shutters. The ceiling was low and unfinished, the large wooden beams being visible. The underpinning was broken in several places and the large cracks in the floor let in floods of air on windy days, and let out the childrens' pencils should they have the misfortune to drop them on the floor.

In furnishing this school room, the residents, no doubt, had in mind a two fold purpose; namely, that of an educational center where the children of the district were to be educated, and also a meeting house where religious services were held on the Sabbath.

The furniture consisted of two rows of long benches, one on either side of a middle aisle; a platform in the rear of the room on which was erected a rostrum where the preacher took his place on the Sabbath, and behind this pulpit the teacher perched in his arm chair to hear the daily recitations of his classes. To some of these benches were attached folding leaves that could be raised or lowered. These served as writing desks for the larger pupils during the writing period, the smaller children writing on slates with slate pencils. A large box stove, the only source of heat, stood near the center of the room, and on cold days the seats near the stove were uncomfortably warm, while those farthest away were almost uninhabitable. A blackboard made of wood hung from the wall. Strips of wood into which were driven wooden pegs were nailed high against the walls. These served as racks on which the children hung their wraps.

In this building about 60 pupils ranging in years from 6 to 21, would assemble irregularly.

The course of study as provided concerned itself chiefly with the "Three R's," plus spelling, and occasionaly history and grammar. The writer can remember when, many years later, the bigger boys in school refused to study grammar on the ground that it was all right for girls, bub a boy had no use for such stuff.

Great stress was laid on arithmetic or "ciphering" as it was called, and it was not an unusual thing to find pupils in this school who could solve all the problems in "Brooks written and mental arithmetic." Many of the pupils became experts in spelling also.

Spelling bees were usually held on Friday afternoons. Occasionally this school would challenge a neighboring school in a spelling match. A certain night would be appointed, the pupils, teachers, and friends of the two schools would meet in the school and the teachers would take turns in pronouncing the words. Some of the pupils from this school would spell for hours without missing a word.

Each child owned his own textbooks which had to be purchased by his parents and it frequently happened that the parents were unable financially, to provide books for their children when needed. Hence a pupil often had to pursue the same book year after year.

Very little real teaching was done, as there were few trained teachers. If a teacher passed an examination in the above studies, and possessed a powerful physique, he was given a certificate which entitled him to teach in the State. As a teacher, he seemed to think that his chief duty was to "keep order" by wielding the rod if necessary, and to hear recitations. His discipline was harsh and severe. He believed in not "sparing the rod and spoiling the child." He always kept a supply of switches on hand and within easy reach. If the mischievous pupil was caught in his pranks, he was sure to receive a flogging. If the offense was very bad he was asked to take off his coat so that he might feel the effect of the switch more keenly. These boys usually wore pads so as to be ready for the flogging that was sure to follow the offense.

On one occasion the teacher, while sitting in his arm chair behind the rostrum, heard a noise that seemed to come from a low

seat in front of the rostrum where a number of small boys were seated. He immediately seized a switch and struck over the top of the rostrum, apparently to frighten the little fellows. The end of the switch struck one of the boys across the eye, cutting a gash in the eye-lid which bled profusely. The boy was sent home to have the wound dressed. The father of the boy soon returned and upbraided the teacher for the brutal act. The teacher apologized.

At recess the teacher would usually be found assisting some over anxious pupil to solve a perplexing problem, and as copy books or writing pads were not in use, he usually spent the noon hour in writing copies on foolsoap paper for the pupils to use during the writing period. These copies would be old maxims such as: "Time and tide wait for no man." "Make hay while the sun shines," etc.

Some of the teachers, who resided at a distance, walked four miles to school in the morning, built the fire and had the school room in readiness by 9 o'clock. Compensation was very meagre, the usual salary being $33.33 a month. This with the other expenses of running the school was met by a State appropriation and district tax. (1) The State appropriated a certain amount to the county and this sum was subdivided among the several districts in the county according to the number of children of school age in the district, provided that district raised the sum of $75.00 by taxation. The aggregate sum from both sources would amount to about $235.00. This sum was used to finance the school for a term of

six months, the chief expenses being teachers' salary, fuel, and necessary upkeep of the building.

Holidays were not observed save one week at Christmas time. However, there was one day in the school year that the pupils looked forward to with a great deal of interest. That day was February 14th, St. Valentine's Day.

Since the founding of this school it had been a custom of the larger boys to "take the teacher out" at noon on this day. Should they succeed in doing so, they would be entitled to a half holiday. Should they fail to do so, school would continue through the afternoon. It frequently happened that the teacher would resist, whereupon a scuffle between the boys and teacher would ensue. The boys usually the victors.

The following incidents happened at different times on the 14th day of February.

Teacher called school back at 1 o'clock, P.M. Small children were seated, when eight or ten large boys ranging in ages from 15 to 21 marched stealthily up to the teacher and demanded a half-holiday. The teacher refused to grant their request. They immediately seized him and carried him out of the room, amid the screams of little children who were frightened at the scene. The teacher returned, seized his bell and called school again. On hearing the bell a second time, the boys marched into the room requesting that the younger children vacate the room. They did so. Then the boys passed out closing the door behind them and made it secure by a heavy log prop. They did the same to the windows after closing the

heavy shutters. Thus making the teacher a prisoner in a dark room, they kept him there for some time. They finally removed the props and set him free. He gladly wended his way home, giving the children a half-holiday.

Another scene: A different teacher had charge. February 14th, 1 o'clock, P.M. the bell had rung, the school was seated save for the large boys who came in later, demanding a half-holiday. The teacher refused. The boys started toward him, and he, well knowing what was to happen, seized the fire poker, an iron bar about three feet long, and dared any one of the boys to lay a hand on him. The boys cowed down, passed out of the room, took their half-holiday, while the teacher and the remaining pupils went on with the school work.

A third scene: The teacher called school at 1 o'clock. The large boys demanded a half-holiday, which the teacher refused. The boys, seizing hold of him, carried him out of the room, and set him free. The teacher hurried back into the room and called school again. The boys took him out a second time. He does the same a third time, carry him out of the room and on down the road about three hundred yards distance, to a "swimming hole," where they asked for a half-holiday. He granted their request. They set him free, and went home without a ducking. The school had a half-holiday.

It is needless to say that a teacher hardly ever applied for a second term in this school. This old custom of "taking the

teacher out" gradually began to wane in the early 80's. The parents became interested in education. A new building furnished with modern equipment was erected in place of the old structure. Better teachers were secured, who remained from year to year. Frequent changes in state school laws, favorable to education, were made, such as free text-books, better supervision and compulsory attendance, etc.

As a result of all of these changes, during the years that followed, twenty-one students in this school became public school teachers of the State. All of these teachers were the product of seven families in the district, distributed as follows: Three families, one teacher each; two families, two each one family, four, and another two. All the children in the last two mentioned, became teachers. The parents had no great education themselves. They were deeply interested in their children and made home study and attendance compulsory; but it was largely perservance and rivalry on the part of the children. Many of these teachers made a success and are now filling responsible Government positions.

A new school code was passed in 1919. One of the provisions of this law made it possible for rural districts to consolidate with town schools. This district refused to take advantage of this act until 1933, when it became a part of Georgetown Special School District, and Rogers School ceased to exist.

References:

1. Revised code, laws of Delaware, vol. 16, chapter 369, page 369, page 328, Dover 1881.

All other information from personal experience and observation by the writer, who began as a pupil, age 6, at Rogers School in 1877. The writer also taught in the same school from 1890 to 1933.

25

Refiled
1- Town
1- State (Sussex)
Education
"Inclusive articles"

LOCALITY -- Dagsboro Hundred and Vicinity

Submitted by Charles L. Innis

Date Feb. 1 1936

Topic: Supplement to --

Essay on "Reminiscences of School-days and teaching in a One-Room Sussex Schoolhouse."

As previously stated, the teacher's discipline was harsh and austere. His mode of punishment was cruel. He would sometimes have a pupil stand in one corner of the room with his right arm extended parallel to the floor for a long time, or have the pupil take a stooping position, placing his finger on a nail-head in the floor. Sometimes the teacher would grasp the pupil's hand and pound him on his finger tips with a ferule.

Early one cold winter morning, to escape punishment, a boy who had been disobedient at home ran away to school, arriving at the school-house before the teacher. He was very cold, and decided to enter the school-house by forcing open a shutter and raising the window. He built a fire to warm himself, at the same time thinking he was doing his teacher a favor.

In due time the teacher arrived, unlocked the door and on entering found the boy and a nice warm fire. On questioning the boy as to why he had done this, the boy replied, "I got here early and I was cold. So I decided to come in and have a nice warm fire for you when you came!"

"You did, did you?" And with that the stern schoolmaster seized a switch from his supply and gave the boy a severe flogging.

Needless to say the boy never ran away from home again to escape punishment.

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Reference:

Personal experience of the writer, C. L. E., c. 1880

Sabotage

File No. S-674.4 S. Ed. file 27

LOCATION - Statewide

Submitted by - Gordon Butler

Date - June 19, 1936

State Project
JC - Dover

"The Elizabeth W. Murphey School, Inc.".

The Elizabeth W. Murphey School, (Inc.) was founded October 23, 1922, in Dover, by Sanford S. Murphey.

This School is in reality a home for children of both sex between the ages of two and ten years of age, who through the loss of one or both parents were left to the charity of friends and relatives as the lower two counties had no home for such children at the time of it opening. Only children living south of the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal are admitted.

The institution is located on Division Street and consists of a plot of fourteen acres on which was built two cottages with a capacity of sixteen children each, also a superintendent's home and a power house. A few years later an auditorium which may be used for cultural or philanthropic purposes and for such entertainments as the school children give; an infirmary with provisions for those having communicable diseases were completed. In 1929 two more cottages were erected giving house capacity for sixty-four children. Additional cottages are to be erected as it is required.

These cottages are modern in their furnishings and equipment, comfortable and homelike. A house mother and assistant care for the children.

The grounds behind the cottages have a well-equipped playground and sufficient room for healthful recreation.

The institution has a resident population of 64, one of which is attending college. "The extent of the education of those residing at the school is very largely determined by the

capacity and the desire of the child. It is hoped that each member will complete their high school education and beyond that each one is given such education or training as is adapted to his talent or ability, provided the child devotes himself to this training with earnestness and helps himself to the extent of his abilities. The School is co-educational and the endowment is sufficient to carry on this work without aid from other sources."

Reference: George Ehinger, Sup't. of School
(letter of Mar. 25, 1936.)

Story by: G. A. Burslem -
Feb. 21, 1936.

ST. ANDREWS SCHOOL FOR BOYS
(near Middletown)

A church boarding school for boys, located between Noxontown Pond and Silver Lake, two miles out of Middletown.

Felix S.duPont founder of the school said "that school should provide secondary education of Christian character".

Headmaster of the school is Rev. Pell.

School grounds offer space for playing all games of sport, and the Noxontown Pond offers its waters for rowing and other water sports. There are tennis courts, fishing parties and other informal outdoor activities.

A low tuition fee is made possible and salaries of the faculty are made fromendowmments. Scholarship is available.

Ref.- Chamber of Commerce.

B. Tracy.

W-640

LOCATION - - Wilmington File ~~W-612~~

Submitted by Gordon Butler, For section on Education work include institutions.

Date April 29,1936.

BEACOM COLLEGE BUILDING.

The Beacom College Building located on the N.W.Corner of 10th and Jefferson Streets was erected in 1928.

This 3 story building of of contemporary style of architecture and is constructed of rough, light yellow tapestry brick and trimmed in white stone and terra cotta, also colored terra cotta border ornamentation, near the top. The floors are of terrazzo and cement, the latter covered with battleship linoleum.

This building is occupied entirely by the school.

The Beacom College is an outgrowth of the Wilmington Business School which was founded in 1900 and incorporated in 1910 under the present name. The college occupied space in the I.O.O.F.Building until 1929 when the present building was completed.

Reference: J.W.Hirons, President of Beacom College
Personal Investigation.

# PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN DELAWARE

## 1800 - 1900

| Name | Date | Teacher |
|---|---|---|
| Academy | 1840 | Thomas |
| Academy for Young Ladies | 1841 | Maxwell |
| Academy of the Visitation | 1868 | Visitation Nuns |
| Adams, Carson | 1847 (See: CLASSICAL SCHOOL) | |
| African School Society | 1809-67 | |
| Allen, James C. | 1826, 1830 | |
| Appoquinimink (?) | ? | ? |
| Baily, Ann | 1830 | |
| Baltimore (?) | 1799, 1824 | ? |
| Bennett School, Miss Kate | ? | |
| Blackbird (?) | ? | ? |
| Boarding School | 1824 | S. Terry |
| Boarding & Day School for Girls | 1870 | Misses Robertson |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Boarding School | 1821-46 | | Bullock |
| Boarding School (Claymont) | - | | Clemson |
| Boarding School for Masters & Misses | 1866 | | Brown |
| Boarding School for Young Ladies | 1812-32 | | Hilles |
| Boarding School for Young Ladies (9a-4) | | | |
| Bonsall, Eleanor | 1814 | | |
| Bonsall, Hannah | 1830 | | |
| Brady, Mrs. | 1824 | | |
| Brandywine (4-1) (?) | | | |
| Brandywine Academy | 1799-1830 | | |
| Brandywine Hundred | 1832 | (See: SELF-SUPPORTING SCHOOL OF, ) | |
| Brandywine Seminary 8th & Market Sts. | 1878 | | McNair |
| Bridgeville Academy | 1865 | | |
| Bridgeville Institute | 1818 | | |
| Bringhurst & Richards School | 1852 | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Broad Creek (4-3) | ? | ? |
| Broadkiln (4-3) | ? | ? |
| Brown, James | 1825 | |
| Bullock, John | 1821-46 (See: BOARDING SCHOOL) | |
| Byrnes, Ellen | 1830 | |
| Cann, The Rev. T. M. | 1851 (See: YOUNG LADIES INSTITUTE) | |
| Cantwell Bridge Academy | 1818 | |
| Cedar Creek (?) | 1829 | |
| Chambers, Corry | 1842 (See: LITERARY INSTITUTE) | |
| Charity School (3-1) | | |
| Chestnut Grove Cottage | 1866 | Brown |
| Chirographic Institute | 1835 | Goodman |
| Christiana (?) | | |
| Clark, Amelia | 1830 | |
| Classical School | 1805 | John Webster |
| Classical School | 1845 | Page |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Classical & Mathematical Institute | 1865-75 (In Dover earlier) | Reynolds |
| Classical School | 1847 | Carson Adams |
| Clemmer | (See: SINGING SCHOOL) | |
| Coit, T. B. | 1830 | |
| Coudray | 1803 | |
| Coulton, Lydia | 1830 | |
| Dagsboro (?) | 1800 and earlier | |
| Dancing School | 1848 | Pohlman |
| Davenport, B. | 1830 | |
| Davis, James | 1814 | |
| Day School for Boys | 1851 | L. H. Springer |
| Declemy, Mme. | 1835 | |
| Deer Park Seminary | 1859 | |
| Delaware City Academy | 1857 | |
| Delaware City Academy | 1858-76 | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Delaware City School | 1829 | | |
| Del. City Select School | 1852 | | Briggs |
| Del. Female Institute | 1848 | | Thomas Cole |
| Del. Institute for Promotion of Mechanics & Arts | 1847 | | |
| Delaware Military Academy | ~~1861~~ 1859 | | Hyatt |
| Delaware Normal School | 1866 | (Same as: DEL. STATE NORMAL UNIV.) | |
| Del. State Normal University | 1866 | | Harkness |
| Dixon, Mary | 1830 | | |
| Donnelly, Nicholas | 1822 | | |
| Dover Academy | 1810 | | |
| Dover Academy | 1818 | | Theo. Gallaudet |
| Dover Academy | 1859 | | |
| Dover Classical Seminary | 1861 | | |
| Dover Seminary | 1846 | | |
| Dover School (?) | 1852 | | Rev. Thos. Murphy |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Drawing School | 1866 (?) | Frackman |
| Duck Creek, | 1810 (?) | |
| E. Dover Hundred (?) | | |
| Educational Institute, | 1851 | Hyatt |
| English & Classical Acad. for Young Men | 1866 | Enright |
| English & Classical Institute | 1835 | Gardener |
| English & Classical Institute | 1861 | S. G. Gayley |
| English & Classical School New Castle | 1848 | Junkin |
| English School, Dover | - | Cruse |
| Enright School | 1866 (See: ENGLISH & CLASSICAL ACAD. FOR Y. M.) | |
| Evening School (8-1) | | |
| Farmington School (?) | 1868 | Jas. M. Williams |
| Felton Seminary | 1868 | |
| Female Harmony Society | 1817 | |
| Female Seminary | 1823 | Grosvenor |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Female Seminary | 1834 | | Smith |
| Female Union Society | 1818 | | |
| Foard, Samuel | 1830 | | |
| Forbes | 1803, 1814 | | |
| Frackman School | | (See: DRAWING SCHOOL) | |
| Franklin Academy | 1842 | | Niles |
| Franklin School | 1822 | | |
| Franklin School (?) | 1820 | | |
| Free School (?) | 1823 | | |
| Friends (9th & Tatnall) | 1832 | | |
| Friends Select School | 1859 | | |
| Friends School (High School) | 1866 | | |
| Friends School | (1748-) | | |
| Gardener, James | 1835 | (See: ENGLISH & CLASSICAL INSTITUTE) | |
| Garretson, (Widow) | 1830 | | |

| | |
|---|---|
| Gause, Jesse | 1814 |
| Georges (?) | (Probably ST. GEO. HUNDRED) |
| Georgetown (?) | 1812, 1826, 1836, 1841 |
| Georgetown Academy | 1826 |
| Georgetown Academy | 1812 |
| Georgetown Private School (?) | 1812 |
| German & English School | 1866 |
| Gillingham, Yeamans | 1830 |
| Glasgow Grammar School | 1803 |
| Goldey College | 1887 |
| Goodman, J. M. | 1835 (See: CHIROGRAPHIC INSTITUTE) |
| Green | 1814 |
| Grimshaw, Charlotte | 1842 |
| Grimshaw, The Misses | 1853 (See: HANNAH MORE ACADEMY) |
| Gumborough (?) | 1813, 1829 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Gwinczewski, F. C. | 1839 | | |
| Hall, Catherine | 1804 | | |
| Hannah More Academy | 1861 | | |
| Hardy, H. | 1833 | | |
| Hayhurst, Thomas | 1830 | | |
| Hebb's School, The Misses | 1880 | | |
| Hewett, Daniel | 1822 | | |
| Hollingsworth, Mrs. Hannah | 1814 | | |
| Home Boarding School | 1866 | | J.A. Brown |
| Home Institute, The | 1878 | | Houston |
| Hyatt, Theodore | | (See: DEL. MILITARY ACAD.) | |
| Indian River (?) | | | |
| Infants' School of St. Paul's Church | 1866 | | |
| Janvier's, Mrs. | 1840 | (See: SEMINARY FOR Y. LADIES) | |
| Kenton (?) | 1800 | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Kilpatrick, Martha | 1830 | |
| Kimber, Caleb | 1835 (See: SEMINARY FOR BOYS) | |
| Ladies & Gentlemen (?) | 1814 | R. Elkton |
| Ladies Boarding School (?) | 1834 | Bell |
| Laurel Academy | 1859 | |
| Laurel Classical & Commercial Acad. | 1867 | |
| Lewes | - | Hindman |
| Lewes (?) | - | Russell |
| Lewes Academy | 1795- | |
| Lewes Academy | 1803 | McLaughlin |
| Lewes School | 1818 | |
| Lewis, Enoch | 1830 | |
| Lewis, Evan (9b-7) | - | |
| Literary Institute | 1842 | |
| Little Creek (?) (4-2,3) | | |

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|---|---|---|
| Magnolia Academy | 1859 | |
| Magnolia Seminary (6-1) | - | |
| Mahannah, William | 1830 | |
| Mailly, Messrs. | 1846 | |
| Market St. Mathematical Institute | - (See: CLASSICAL & MATHEMATICAL INSTITUTE) | |
| Martel School (8-1) | - | |
| Mason, Mrs. Martha | 1814 | |
| Mathematical Institute | 1868(See: CLASSICAL & MATHEMATICAL INSTITUTE) | |
| Maxwell, Mrs. | 1841(See: ACAD. FOR YOUNG LADIES) | |
| McLane's School, Miss | 1853 | |
| McNair, W. S. | 1878(See: BRANDYWINE SEMINARY) | |
| McNevin, J. | 1836(See: SEMINARY FOR BOYS & GIRLS) | |
| Mechanical Arts Institute | 1875 | Jackson & Isaacs |
| Mechanics Academy (Smyrna) | 1817 | |
| Methodist Peninsular Academy | 1872(Same as: WILM. CONFERENCE ACAD.) | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Middletown Academy | 1824 | |
| Middletown Academy | 1859 | |
| Milford (4-2) (?) | | |
| Milford Academy | 1834 | Emmerson |
| Milford Academy | 1859 | |
| Milford Academic & Collegiate Institution | 1872 | |
| Milford Classical Academy | 1885 | |
| Milford Female Institute (3-2) | | |
| Milford Female Collegiate Institution | 1852 | |
| Milford High School (Private?) | 1863-73 | |
| Milford Seminary | 1879-80 | |
| Mill Creek Hundred (?) | 1808 (?) | |
| Milton Academy | 1819 | |
| Milton Academy | 1869 | |
| Mispillion (4-2) (?) | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Montgomery, Elizabeth | 1814 | |
| Moore, Mary | 1830 | |
| Morris, Mary | 1830 | |
| Murderkill Hundred (North) (?) | 1805 | |
| Murderkill Hundred (South) (?) | 1808-10 | |
| Murderkill Hundred (South) (?) | 1826 | |
| Nanticoke (4-3) | | |
| National Scientific & Mil. College | 1853 | Partridge |
| Negro College (Proposed) | 1834 | |
| New Castle Academy | 1801 | |
| New Castle Charity School (?) | 1817 (Same as: FEMALE HARMONY SOCIETY) | |
| New Castle Private School (8-3) | | |
| New Middletown Academy (?) | 1827 | |
| New Mission School | 1859 | |
| Newark Academy | 1803 | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Newark Female Institute, | 1851 | Chamberlain |
| Newark Grammar School | 1811 | |
| Newport Grammar School | 1812 | |
| Night School (Quaker Hill) | 1835 (See: WILM. NIGHT SCHOOL) | Belknap |
| Niles, Benjamin & Mary | 1842 (See: FRANKLIN ACADEMY) | |
| Northwest Fork (?) | 1765 | |
| Old Academy | 1765-1828 | |
| Page, John | 1845 (See: CLASSICAL SCHOOL) | |
| Partridge, Alden | 1853 (See: NAT'L. MILITARY & SCIENTIFIC COLLEGE | |
| Pencader (4-1) (?) | | |
| Petersburg (4-2) (?) | | |
| Phillips, Ann | 1830 | |
| Pratt's Branch School | 1829 | |
| Prior, Azariah | 1849 (See: TRINITY EPIS. CHURCH SCHOOL) | |
| Psalmody | (See: FORBES) | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Randall Hall School (4-1) | | |
| Rankin, William | 1814 | |
| Reynolds, W. A. | 1865-75 (See: CLASSICAL & MATHEMATICAL INSTITUTE) | |
| Richards, Elizabeth C. | 1830 | |
| Rittenhouse Academy | 1817 | |
| Roberts, Enoch | 1828 | |
| Robinson, Abigail | 1830 | |
| Robinson, Hannah | 1830 | |
| Roche, Eliza | 1830 | |
| Rugby Academy | 1872 | Samuel Murphy |
| Sacred Heart School | | Benedictine Order |
| St. Andrew's New Mission School | 1859 | |
| St. Elizabeth's School | | |
| St. Hedwig's School | | Felican Nuns |
| St. James School | 1808 | |

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|---|---|---|
| St. John's Baptist School (3-2) | | |
| St. John's School | 1880 | |
| St. Joseph's-on-Brandywine (1-1) | | |
| St. Joseph's (Colored) (1-1) | | |
| St. Mary's College | 1847 | Father Reilly |
| St. Mary's School | 1858-(66) | |
| St. Patrick's School (1-1) | | |
| St. Peter's Female School | 1859 | |
| St. Peter's School | 1830 (39?) | |
| St. Stanislaus School (1-1) | | |
| Salesianum (1-1) | | |
| School for Boys | 1855 | A. A. Colton |
| School for Boys | 1848 | O. E. Turner |
| School for Boys | 1847 | E. Wilson |
| School of Design | 1852 | Brown |

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|---|---|---|---|
| School for Girls | 1853 | | Aldrich |
| School for Girls | 1849 | | E. Wilson |
| School of Needlework (8-1) | | | |
| School for Penmanship | 1835 | | Potter |
| School for Small Boys | 1834 | | S. Smith |
| School of Vocal & Instrumental Music | 1834 | | Chadwick |
| School of Vocal Music | 1834 | | Service |
| School for Young Ladies (Lewes) | 1805 | | |
| School for Young Ladies | 1865 | | Elizabeth Lea |
| Scientific & Commercial Acad. | | Same as: TAYLOR ACADEMY & TAYLOR & JACKSON | C. T. Taylor |
| Seaford Academy | 1819 | | |
| Seaford Private School (?) | 1885 | | Breerwood |
| Seaford Seminary | 1865 | | |
| Seeds, Mary | 1830 | | |
| Select Classical & Mathematical School (Newark) | 1835 | | Russel |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Select School | 1878 | | Miss Mahaffy |
| Select School for Boys | 1850 | | Stratton (?) |
| Select School for Young Ladies | 1814 | | Wm. Wickes |
| Select Seminary for Boys | 1840 | | |
| Self-Supporting School of Brandywine Hundred | 1832 | | |
| Seminary for Boys | 1840 | | Caleb Kimber |
| Seminary for Boys & Girls | 1836 | | McNevin |
| Seminary for Young Ladies | 1848 | (See: Hannah More Acad.) | Grimshaw |
| Seminary for Young Ladies | 1837 | | M. C. Smith |
| Seminary for Young Ladies | 1840 | | Janvier |
| Sherer | | (See: Young Ladies Boarding School, Newark) | |
| Shifler, Mr. & Mrs. | 1824 (?) | | |
| Singing School | 1870 | | Clemmer |
| Smith, M. C. | 1825 | (See: Female Seminary) | |
| Smith, Samuel | 1829-39 | (See: Wilm. Boarding School) | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Smyrna Academy | 1859 | |
| Smyrna English-Classical Academy | 1866 | |
| Smyrna Seminary | 1870 | |
| Smyrna Union School (3-1) | | |
| Smyrna Union School | 1852 | Clawson |
| Somers, Mrs. | 1830 | |
| Southern Boarding School | 1825 | |
| Steigler, Mme. | 1853 | |
| Stratton, William R. | 1850 (See: SELECT SCHOOL FOR BOYS) | |
| Taylor Academy | 1857-73(?) | |
| Taylor & Jackson Academy | 1870 | |
| Telegraphic & Commercial Institute | 1866 | |
| Thelwell, Deborah (John ?) | 1814 | |
| Thelwell, Mary | 1830 | |
| Thoroughfare Neck (?) (4-1) | | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Trap School | 1821 | |
| Trinity Church Episcopal School | 1849 | Prior |
| Turner, S. F. (9b-2) | | |
| Tyson, Sarah | 1850 | |
| Union Academy | 1815 | |
| " " | 1816 | |
| " " | 1821 | |
| Union School | 1815 | |
| Union School House Academy (?) (3-1) | | |
| Ursuline Academy | 1898 (?) | |
| Washington's Boarding School, Mrs. | 1855 | |
| Wesleyan Female College | 1837 | |
| West Dover (?) | | |
| White Clay Creek (?) | | |
| Wilkinson, Mary | 1830 | |
| Wilkinson, Rachel | 1830 | |

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|---|---|---|
| Willow Bank Female Seminary | 1853 | Tatum |
| Wilmington Academy | 1765-1828 | |
| Wilmington Academy | 1848 | Brashears |
| Wilmington Atheneaum (?) (7-2) | | |
| Wilmington Boarding School | 1829-39 | |
| Wilmington Boarding School for Girls | 1848 | Knight |
| Wilmington Classical Institute | 1840 | |
| Wilm. Commercial College (Goldey) | 1887 | |
| Wilmington Conference Academy | 1873 | |
| Wilmington Literary Institute | 1843 (Same as Wesleyan ?) no name as Literary Institute Corry Chambers | |
| Wilmington Night School | 1835 | Belknap |
| Wilmington Normal School | 1866 (See: Del. State Normal University) | John C. Harkness |
| Wilson, Assenet | 1830 | |
| Wilson, E. | 1847-49 (See: School for Boys & School for Girls | |
| Woodside, Mrs. | 1814 | |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Worrell, Edward | 1828 | |
| Worrell, Emma | | |
| Writing Academy | 1840 | French |
| Writing Academy | 1853 | T. W. Moore |
| Writing Academy | - | Shelps |
| Writing School | 1851 | Cutter |
| Wyoming College | 1869 | |
| Wyoming Institute of Delaware | 1866 | |
| Young Ladies Boarding School Newark | 1835 | Bell |
| Young Ladies Boarding School Newark | 1824 | Sherer |
| Young Ladies School | 1848 | Babcock |
| Young Ladies Seminary | 1848 | Brashears |
| Young Ladies Seminary | 1852 | Brakely |
| Zane, Joel | 1814 | |
| Zoology Lecture School (5-8) | | |

V. E. Shaw
February 6, 1940

EDUCATION
Private Schools
1830-97

EDUC. FILE

PRIVATE SCHOOLS LISTED IN THE STATE DIRECTORY, 1859-60, p.289

| | |
|---|---|
| Deer Park Seminary | Newark |
| Delaware City Academy | |
| Delaware Military Academy | Wilmington |
| Dover Academy | |
| Friends' Select School | " |
| Laurel Academy | |
| Magnolia Academy | |
| " Seminary | |
| Middleton Academy | |
| Milford Academy | |
| Newark Academy | |
| St. Mary's College (9 teachers) | " |
| St. Peter's Female School (150 children: Sisters of Charity) | " |
| St. Peter's Orphan Asylum (30-auxiliary of above) | |
| Smyrna Academy | |
| Hannah More Academy (Grimshaw sisters, Wilmington, founded 1853) | |
| Wesleyan Female College | " |
| Young Ladies' Institute | " |

April 1, 1851, p. 3, Col. 1.

Del. Gazette

NEWARK FEMALE INSTITUTE

The Summer Session of this Seminary will commence on the First Wednesday (7th) of May, and continue five months.

TERMS PER SESSION

| | |
|---|---|
| Board, including fuel, light, &c., | $45,00 |
| Tuition in any of the English Branches, | 10,00 |
| Music, with the use of Instruments, | 16,00 |
| French or Ancient Languages | 10,00 |
| Drawing and Painting, or Embroidery, | 10,00 |
| Washing per dozen | 32 |

Thirty dollars to be paid in advance

Mrs. P. Chamberlain,

April 1, 1851.-4ts

Newark, Del.

Pp.7-16

THE PERIOD (1600-1770)

It would be futile to study a profession as an isolated group of workers. The schoolmaster of the sixteen- and seventeen- hundreds was not a solo actor tricked out in colonial costume, performing against a backdrop of early America, but an integral part of a vigorous frontier life, acted upon by all the stern reality of contemporary circumstance. The warp and woof of the society in which he lived wove him fast to his neighbors and his surroundings, to the pioneer thought and purpose of the time and locality, determining his outline and coloring as certainly as though he were a figure in a tapestry. It seems desirable, therefore, briefly to review the period that formed the matrix for the colonial schoolteacher.

In 1600 eastern America was covered with virgin forest that swept inland from the ocean and up over the Appalachian ranges. Dense, almost unbroken, those dim recesses had for centuries been the home of wild animals and barbarous Indian tribes. Then white sails appeared on the eastern horizon, and before another century had passed the complexion of the Atlantic seaboard was vastly changed.

Singly and in twos and threes little ships came bobbing across the sea, unloaded their cargoes of cattle, horses, swine, poultry, seed, farm tools, firearms, and household goods --and a determined, white-faced people came ashore to stay. The ring of ax and crack of musket echoed up and down the coastline. Forest giants that had stood undisturbed for centuries were hastily hewn into timbers to furnish return cargoes. Hurriedly-dried skins and those procured from trade with the Indians were packed in sturdy hogsheads and

stowed in the hold, while whole rooms in the cabins of the ships were filled with dried fish. Then the vessels sailed away, some to deliver their cargoes safely and raise high hopes of profits in the minds of men who had adventured their wealth in plantations in America, others to fall prey to enemies on the sea or to meet a watery grave.

Alone in the wilderness of the New World, the first settlers struggled for existence, often without adequate food, shelter, or goods for trade with the Indians. Of necessity they adopted many of the ways of the red skins. The wigwams of the English settlers in New England differed from those of the savages mainly by the addition of huge fireplaces at one end and great wooden doors at the other. Dugouts, lined with small logs driven vertically into the ground like a stockade, were the first homes of many settlers who later built fine houses.[1] Sturdy homes for all were impossible at first; the building of them would have been too great a strain upon the combined man power of any early settlement, even where the perils of disease that followed the long sea voyage left sufficient men who were able and strong enough to do the heavy work.

A few frame houses were erected by some of the very first settlers of New England and the Southern English colonies, however. Such homes were built by men who either brought with them a number of servants or who, like Sir Richard Saltonstall, sent servants over in advance for the prupose of preparing the way for their master to follow. To build these "faire" houses, logs were squared off and hewn into beams, rafters, lintels, sills, etc., in the usual English style. The outside was covered with weatherboard sawed at a "saw pit." Later, clapboards or shingles were added.

Jasper Danckaerts, who waited for a few weeks in Boston for a ship during the summer of 1680, described the homes of that city thus:[2]

> All the houses are made of thin, small cedar shingles, nailed against frames, and then filled in with brick and other stuff; and so are their churches. For this reason these towns are so liable to fires, as have already happened several times; and the wonder to me is that the whole city has not been burnt down, so light and dry are the materials.

We can forgive this Netherlander for the air of superiority with which he criticizes the dwellings of Boston when we remember the fine houses of stone and brick that were built in early times in New Amsterdam and along the Hudson River.

The problem of shelter fades into insignificance beside the very grave situation which confronted the first settlers when they sought to replenish their food supply. Sea voyages that lasted anywhere from a few weeks to a few months, during which the passengers had to furnish their own board, usually either consumed or spoiled the greater part of the food supply of the settlers, who only too often landed in the New World sadly in need of provisions. With their scant knowledge of the resources of the new country, they obtained what food they could —fish, game, and Indian corn. Death took its toll from those who failed to make the dietary adjustments that life in the new country demanded, and those who were left alive learned to eat and like the fare of the Indians. There were those who found it hard to drink water instead of ale; but as time passed and they found themselves as "lusty" and full of health as before, they ceased complaining.

Most of the different colonies passed through a "hunger time,"

the memory of which lasted long in the minds of those who survived. In the Jamestown colony and at Plymouth, conditions grew better only after they abandoned the form of communistic life under which they had first lived and trusted to individual enterprise for the raising of corn. Governor Bradford declared that in Plymouth the "experience that was had in this commone course and condition" proved the "vanitie" of those who believed that "y^e taking away of propertie, and bringing in communitie into a comone wealth, would make them happy and florishing" because it did nothing of the sort, but "was found to breed much confusion & discontent, and retard much imployment that would have been to their benefite and comforte."[3]

Times were not so hard for those who came later. The Governor of the Massachusetts Bay Company could write from England to his people in Salem in 1629, saying, "If you want swine, we have agreed with those of New Plymouth that they deliver you six sows."[4] When the first vessel of Winthrop's fleet arrived in the spring of the next year, the physician from Plymouth came to attend the sick after they had been badly treated and put ashore by the captain of the ship, who was anxious to return to England. A few dwellings already existed on the hills around Massachusetts Bay, and their owners, called "old planters" in the ancient records, extended every hospitality to the newcomers. That summer of 1630 witnessed one of the largest organized emigrations of civilized, educated people that the world up to that time had ever known and, although death and disease were no respecters of persons, it is probable that much suffering was alleviated by those who had come before. It is known, for example, that later that summer Indian corn was

obtained from Virginia.[5] By the time William Penn planted his colony in the late sixteen-hundreds, the business was carried forward with the greatest efficiency and the settlers suffered comparatively few hardships.

What led these "first planters" to undertake this hazardous experiment, to leave established homes in the Old World for an unknown future in the New? Every schoolboy knows that the first Virginia settlers expected to strike gold in the New World; that the "Pilgrim Fathers" of Plymouth and the Puritans of Massachusetts sought religious freedom in New England; that the first settlers in New Netherland were under the control of a fur-trading company in old Netherlands; that Maryland was a haven for Catholics, Rhode Island for Baptists, Pennsylvania for Quakers; that the Swedes made a brave start along the Delaware, but were forsaken by their Queen and left to take care of themselves in the wilderness; and that various English noblemen were absentee proprietors of estates in the New World which later became North and South Carolina. College students dig deeper into American history and find the narrow intolerance, the persecutions, and the "blue laws" that caused so many upheavals and migrations from one town to another in early New England. Modern students sympathize with the religious liberals who migrated to Connecticut and they are proud of Roger Williams.

Down through the colonial period of American history, Massachusetts was perhaps the most important center of American life. Let us get acquainted with a typical stern New Englander of the early days. First and foremost, he was an Englishman, proud of his rights as an Englishman, and loyal to the laws of England (loyal to the good laws at least!). But his religion was his life and in the old country his church had not been the established church

of the land. In New England, his church and his state were one. Here, then, was one of the main reasons for his removal to America. All the prestige and preferment that went with membership in the established church was available to the Puritan in New England. Only by appreciating this situation can one understand the early New England Puritan. He made with his God a stern covenant of works and dedicated his life to its fulfillment. In God's name he persecuted Quakers and others who did not believe as he believed. In God's name he slew the Indians. What seems to us intolerance, to him was righteousness and gave him comfort and pleasure. In such surroundings tolerance rated as a sin and those who professed it were ordered to move on.

William Blackstone was the first Boston liberal. He raised the first house on the peninsula where Boston was later built and had been living there for some years when Winthrop arrived in 1630. How or when he came to America are unknown; he may have come with the Gorges expedition in 1623. Blackstone refused to join with the Boston church, saying, "I came from England because I did not like the lord-bishops; but I cannot join with you, because I would not be under the lord-brethren." [6] He sold his land to the city, bought a herd of cows with the money he received for it, packed his precious one hundred and eighty-three books, and made his way to what was later to become Rhode Island a year before Roger Williams followed the same path for a somewhat similar, although more urgent, reason. Here was a typical religious independent. He lived alone with his books and spent his days removing tree stumps and picking stone from his land, except for those brief seasons when planting and har-

vesting gave purpose to the drudgery of the rest of the days. His life differed little from that of other early New England farmers except that most of them married early in life and God gave them many sons to help with the stern task of taming the rocky New England soil.

Thus the business of settlement went on. It was a spasmodic sort of progress, seemingly haphazard. Here a salient thrust suddenly into the wilderness; there the fringe of settlement widened slowly and crept inland. Plantations sprouted like young, green leaves along the stem of a sluggish Southern river, while elsewhere came recession, the swift blight of famine, disease, or Indian massacre.

Life in the Southern English plantations retained some of the characteristics of English manor life; in may ways, in fact, it was similar to life under the feudalism of the Middle Ages. In Virginia, the discovery in tobacco of a staple money crop put the little colonly of wrangling planters with their broken dreams of immediate wealth on a firm economic basis which even foreshadowed agricultural prosperity. The introduction of slavery made possible the opening up of more and more land and life for the small group of landowners became increasingly aristocratic. In Maryland, some twenty "gentlemen" came to the newly chartered province provided with from two to three hundred laborers. The lesson of the need for brawn in the laying out of estates and the building of homes in the New World had been learned.

The rigid restraints by which religion dominated the lives of New Englanders were unfelt by men who lived out their lives on Southern plantations. The lone case of dancing round a Maypole

that caused so much indignation and furor in the earliest days of New England probably would have passed unnoticed in Virginia. Indeed, it might be quite accurate to assume that similar festivities filled many idle hours in the lives of those who lived on isolated Southern plantations. Even in Maryland, where one might reasonably expect the Catholic Church to have remained forever the established church, religious toleration was early written into the law; and before many years passed, the Church of England became the established church.

By 1700 the English colonies in America extended from the Maine coast to Spanish Florida.[7] An air of permanence pervaded them. Their struggle for existence had passed and men began to turn their attention toward those activities through which a surplus can be accumulated. Already the embryonic commercial activities of the colonists had caused the British Parliament to pass that first "Navigation Act," and already colonial merchants were seeking ways and means of avoiding it. To them it was a "bad" law, which, they declared, violated their rights as freeborn Englishmen. New England religion did not frown upon those who broke "bad" laws.

Shipbuilding was an important occupation in the colonies from the earliest times. Skilled shipwrights had come with the first settlers and shipyards sprang up along the coast in many places. In America, near the supply of lumber, ships could be built for a fraction of their cost in Europe. Many New England merchants and fisherman superintended the building of their own vessels and later became their masters. Some merchants fared forth with their own goods in their own ships and left their children to manage the business in their absence. Others hired a master and crew to sail their ships and prayed for their safe return.

The needs of the American colonists were many. Scythes, needles, knives, and similar items that could not then be manufactured in the New World were required. Cloth and other articles of clothing were also needed, in far greater quantity than the home industry of pioneer women could produce. These things had to be obtained by trade. Fortunately, the colonists had many exports. These included the seemingly inexhaustible supply of lumber and other products of the forest — such as naval stores (tar, pitch, and turpentine) or masts and yards for ships— New England's abundant supply of dried cod, mackerel, fish oil, and whale oil; also tobacco from Virginia, rice and indigo from plantations farther south, not to mention the constantly renewable supply of grain, animals, and meat produced by all the colonies.

If the needs of the colonists could have been supplied by a simple process of barter, value for value, history might have been different and there might have been no United States of America today. The long story of the Trade Acts, the mere mention of which so infuriated colonial merchants, cannot be told here. Not that the colonists obeyed those laws, for they didn't. A Hat Act passed by the British Parliament could not force a colonial backwoodsman (or a Dr. Franklin, either, for that matter) to throw away his coonskin cap and don the fine headgear manufactured in England. The outcome of the Trade Acts was the growth of an enormous illegal commerce in the colonies.

New England sea merchants of the seventeen-hundreds were the grandsons of those staunch, religious Puritans who first peopled New England. They did not especially like to behave like pirates. But continued disobedience of laws which they called "bad" and long

experience in trade that knew not the control of any law made many of them into a class of adventurers among whom it was exceedingly difficult to draw a line that would separate honest merchants from pirates. No colonial American ship had any legal right to trade in the West Indies, but there, nonetheless, among pirates and buccaneers, a large volume of the commerce of colonial New England merchants was carried on. For there only could a conveniently reached market be found for the large supply of fish, grain, meat, and animals, and New Englanders soon found a lucrative use for the molasses that was so easily obtained from the West Indies. Thus the vicious molasses-rum-slave-molasses-rum-slave cycle began. Ships left Rhode Island ports loaded with rum, which, in Africa, they exchanged for slaves. Then they made the infamous "middle passage" and traded the slaves in the West Indies for chests of hard Spanish "pieces of eight" and for more molasses to make more rum. Here was freedom, self-appropriated and very much misused.

Englishmen in England knew that this commerce, unsanctified by law, was going on, but for a long time nothing was done about it; it may very well be that they could have done nothing that would have effectively controlled or stopped it. As long as all of Virginia's tobacco was sold only in Britain, at whatever low price British merchants set upon it, and as long as other "enumerated" articles went exclusively to Britain, the British politicians were content to close their eyes while their young and vigorous colonies in America sowed their wild oats. When the time came that Englishmen in England tried to force Englishmen in America to obey their laws, it was too late. What Englishmen in England called "smuggling," Englishmen in America knew to be the estab-

lished normal channels of their trade and they were ready to fight a war in order to safeguard their economic interests. They wanted to be free to trade, even as freeborn Englishmen who lived in England were free to trade.

There was the political aspect, also, of this curbing of the freedom of American colonists by the British Parliament. In the beginning, the liberal charters that had been granted to the first settlers in America had permitted a degree of self-government that was unknown anywhere in the world at that time. And the English colonies in America had grown and blossomed under that autonomy. Then, side by side with the oppressive Trade Acts, came a gradual process of taking away time-honored charters from the colonies and bringing them under the crown.

During the eighteenth century the population of the American colonies increased by leaps and bounds; and, whether the colonists thought so or not, they were daily growing prosperous. Large families were the order of the day and this meant that many homes grew out of one home in the brief span of a generation. The tide of immigration was continuous. And the newcomers were loud in their praise of their new homes. They took over the opinions of their older neighbors with enthusiasm and gloried in their new-found independence. From a little over a quarter of a million souls in 1700, the population of the American colonies increased to well over two million in 1775, an eightfold gain in numbers. Among the latecomers were the thrifty Palatine Germans, who came to Pennsylvania in response to Penn's advertising, and large numbers of Scotch-Irish, who formed a significant portion of the population of several

of the colonies. There were sturdy Scots and not a few Frenchmen also, and the steady stream of English, although reduced in numbers and perhaps in caliber, continued almost down to the Revolution.

The period from 1688 to 1770 in America was a period of gradual flowering of the political principle of federation, union, or what was called in the old days "republicanism,"[8] in America. This respect for union came gradually and as a result of the stern demands of necessity. At heart the frontiersman was an individualist, and he disliked to admit that in union there was strength. But the time came when he fought for union. What union probably meant to him, however, was protection for his rights as an individual— never central power.

In this environment the colonial schoolmaster lived and worked.

[1]The log cabin (with horizontal logs notched at the corners), so much used at a later date all over America, was unknown in early New England. Log cabins of this style were first introduced by the Swedes who settled along the Delaware River.

[2]Original Narratives of Early American History, Vol. XII, p.275. We know that at least one of these houses sheltered a "dame school," because Samuel Sewall wrote in his Diary; "This day Dame Walker is taken so ill that she sends home my Daughters, not being able to teach them." (Diary of Samuel Sewall, 1674-1729, Vol. 1, p.164, in Massachusetts Historical Society, Collections, 1878.)

[3]Bradford, William, History of Plimoth Plantation (Boston, 1899), Bk. ii, p.163.

[4]"The Company's Instructions to Endicott and His Council," in Young's Chronicles of the First Planters of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay (Boston, 1846), p.156.

[5]Roger Clap's Memoirs, ibid., p. 352.

[6]Quoted from Cotton Mather, ibid., p. 170n.

[7]In 1655 New Sweden surrendered to New Netherland and in 1664 New Netherland surrendered to the British. Thus, without bloodshed, the control of both the Hudson and Delaware river valleys fell to the British.

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[8] This term was probably derived from the use of the term "republic" by the Romans. An American who lived in the trying days of the Revolution and the making of the Constitution meant by "republic" a representative government by delegates chosen by the people of free states. The term "democracy" was never used by Americans in those days, nor was its modern meaning intended when they spoke of "the republic."

II - 3

THE DUKE OF YORK

Duke of York's Provision for Education 1676

With the English conquest in 1665 New Amstel became New Castle and a new emphasis was placed on education. The Duke of York's provisions for Education, dated 1676, were intended to be directed to servants and the children of people of lower rank. The people were to be instructed in "matters of religion and the laws of the country" and his laws were intended to make the common people humble, obedient and skillful in some "honest Lawfull Calling, Labour or employment." England could bring no national system of education for she had none. The so-called public schools were select, high priced private schools, accessible to the well-to-do only. There were about eighteen such schools in all England. Most wealthy people employed private tutors by whom, and by the public schools, their boys were prepared for the universities. The majority of English people were illiterate.

The Duke's laws called for a church to be established in every parish in the Delaware territory and that "although divers persons may be of different judgments, yett all shall contribute to the minister established and allowed of, which is noe way judged to be an infringment of the Liberty of Conscience, to the way they may pretend." A minister before being accepted was required to present to the governor testimonials of ordination "either from some Protestant Bishop or minister within some part of his Majestie's Dominion or of any foreign Prince of the Reformed Religion ...."

Had the English possessed a system of education it would not have benefitted the few English settlers already here for they lived too remote and too scattered to be reached by schools. Let us not conclude that the unorganized education in the colonies on the Delaware was altogether inefficient. Education in both Sweden and Holland was under the care of the church and religion was a State function. The ministers were teachers and the teachers were in the service of the church, properly certificated for the service they rendered and the wonder is that without schools, without books, and often without teachers, these Swedes and Dutch should have had as large a measure of intelligence as prevailed.

Ellen Samworth
June 4, 1940

III - 1 - a

ENGLISH INFLUENCE UNDER WILLIAM PENN

1682

William Penn's First Colony

Three quarters of a century after the English had settled at Jamestown, William Penn sailed up the Delaware River in the Welcome with the members of his first official Quaker colony in the Delaware valley. He brought a greater number of Kxgxixkmen, women, and children than had been brought with any one expedition of the Swedes and Dutch and it is quite probable that there were a number of them of higher education than had come before. William Penn himself was an Oxonian, widely travelled, and through his Dutch mother and his many visits to Holland he brought a more definite Dutch influence to education on the Delaware than the Dutch themselves had left, as the Pilgrim fathers brought it to Massachusetts through their Dutch exile. In sailing up the Delaware Penn passed towns and villages containing about three thousand souls, but nowhere a school house. A school house was reported at St. Georges in 1714 by the Swedes as shown in Clay's Annals of Old Swedes Church on page 199. He found several churches, one small wooden church at Crane Hook, serving Christina and Sand Hook, and the Dutch church at New Castle, a church at Wicaco, and one on Tinicum Island. There were pastors and teachers, but schools awaited Penn's genius for education.

William Penn had written his frame of government in England before coming to his grant on the Delaware where New

New Castle gave him possession in presents of "turf and twig, and water and soyle of the river Delaware," but where he gave them far more in freedom of religion, provision for education, and security in title to property. His frame of government provided "That the Governor and Provincial Council shall erect and order all public schools and encourage and reward the authors of useful sciences and laudable inventions in the said province ** and fourthly a committee of manners, education, and arts that all wicked and scandalous living may be prevented and that youth may be successively trained up in virtue and useful knowledge and arts." (21) L.P. Powell, p.28.

Law 60 1682 "Laws shall be printed and taught in the Schools." Pa. Archives, 8th series, vol. I, p. 11. And be it &c That the Laws of this Province from time to time, shall be publisht and printed, that every one may have the knowledge thereof; And they shall be one of the Books taught in the Schooles of this Province, and territories thereof.

At this early date Penn made provision for industrial education for both rich and poor. In Rule 28, he provides "That all children within this province of the age of twelve years shall be taught some useful trade or skill to the end that none may be idle, but the poor may work to live, and the rich if they become poor, may not want." (22) L.P. Powell, p. 28. Penna. Archives, Eighth Series, Vol. I, p. LXI.

Chap.CXII. And to the End that Poor as well as Rich may be instructed in good and Commendable learning, Which is to be preferred before wealth, Be it &c., That all persons in this Province and Territories thereof, having Children, and all Guardians or Trustees of Orphans, shall cause such to be instructed

in Reading and writing; So that they may be able to read the Scriptures; and to write by that time they attain to twelve years of age; And that then they be taught some useful trade or skill, that the poor may work to live, and the rich, if they become poor may not want; Of which every County Court shall take care; And in case such parents, guardians, or overseers shall be found deficient in this respect, every such parent, guardian or overseer, shall pay for every such Child, five pounds, Except there should appear an incapacity in body or understanding to hinder it. Laws of Pennsylvania, 1682-1700, p. 142.

"The first general assembly, which convened at Chester, December 4, 1682 accepted the frame and body of laws which Penn had proposed and had printed in England including the educational provision." This assembly passed further educational laws and the second assembly which convened at Philadelphia on March 10, 1683 passed the strongest laws for compulsory education ever passed. In 1693 this stringent law for compulsory education, for the erection of schools, for industrial education, and for legal force to execute these laws was abrogated by William and Mary but was re-enacted by Governor Fletcher in 1693 and there is no evidence of a second formal repeal. (23) L. P. Powell, p. 28 & 29.

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Penn's capital being established in Philadelphia, made it natural that the best of all development should center there. The first attempt to establish a school, December 1683, is recorded in the minutes of the Provincial Council. Here is recorded the aim, the means, the curriculum, the cost and

the teacher, Enoch Flower, for the first school in the city of Philadelphia rather than in the province of Pennsylvania and the Three Lower Counties. Enoch Flower had been a teacher for twenty years in England, had opened a school in Philadelphia in October, 1683 which as we have stated was established by the Provincial Council in December of the same year. This first attempt to establish a school in the new province of Pennsylvania found a schoolmaster at hand ready for the call. Enoch Flower had come from Corsham, County of Wilts, had instructed youth for twenty years in England, and was now the first accredited teacher of the children of the Society of Friends in Pennsylvania, opening the first school in a dwelling of pine and cedar planks. In November of the same year 1683 the council, which established Enoch Flower's school, had in mind a higher school, a school of arts and sciences. The "Friends Public School," now known as the "William Penn Charter School" was probably begun as a public grammar school in 1689 and was incorporated in 1697. The design of this school was fully set forth in the preamble to its charter which stated that the prosperity and welfare of any people depended in great measure on the good education of youth and their introduction to the principles of true religion and virtue and that the necessary virtues "cannot be effected in any manner so well as by erecting public schools for the purpose aforesaid."

"The charter provided that all children and servants should be instructed, the rich at reasonable rates and the

poor to be maintained and schooled for nothing."

A Scotch Friend, George Keith, was the first teacher. He was employed at a fixed salary of £50 per year, a house for his family, a school house, and the profits of the school for one year. Did his Scotch thrift lead him to charge a fee to every pupil? Tuition soon ceased to be free. His assistant was one Thomas Makin or Meakin who was required by the council in 1693 to procure from the inhabitants of the town "a certificate of his abilitie, Learning and diligence." After this he was given a "Licence" to teach. Thus early in the history of America we find a public school teacher granted a government certificate to teach. Thomas Makin was a Latin scholar. He "wrote a Latin poem descriptive of Pennsylvania in 1729." Perhaps his poem shows how close to the present Delaware water-front these early schools were located for we know that the infant town was a water-front fringe at this early date. Unfortunately he was drowned in the Delaware River, unpoluted then, while attempting to draw a pail of water.

The promptness with which William Penn's conception of education was put into operation by the establishing of schools in Philadelphia as compared with the early action of the Dutch, who had excellent requirements for establishing schools, was no doubt due to their sense of values. The Dutch on the South River were looking for rich returns in money from trading, especially in furs, while William Penn was developing human values. Penn was supposed to have reflected his Dutch mother's influence and the effects of his

many visits to Holland in his scheme of education.

Besides these schools under the auspices of the Provincial Council, which were open to all the inhabitants, there were others instituted by private enterprise in which there was no provision for educating those too poor to pay. Christopher Taylor established a school on Tinicum Island before 1686 and the island was referred to as College Island. Christopher Lewis and Benjamin Clift were Englishmen who established schools. The Dutch and German Friends established a famous school at Germantown in 1701 where Francis Daniel Pastorious became schoolmaster after teaching in Philadelphia for five years. He was famous for his learning in languages, science and philosophy.

Philadelphia schools seem to have been the only ones available to residents of the three lower counties and only the well to do could afford to send their children to them. Although Delaware was politically an appendage of Pennsylvania and geographically an adjunct of Maryland it had characteristics of its own that set it apart as an entity. Its long sea and river boundary endangered it to attacks by water from which it was a protection to Pennsylvania, but that province gave no aid in danger, leaving Delaware to its own defense. Its western boundary was indistinguishable from the grant to Lord Baltimore whose first colonizing purposes it antedated, and its territory lay entirely without his charter rights and boundaries. It was the meat between two nutshells. It lay between both, but was a part of neither.

Since all the settlements on the Delaware were included in the province of Pennsylvania, Delaware was governed by Pennsylvania's educational policy and enactments. In 1704 there was a separation of the three lower counties from the rest of Pennsylvania and we must look to Delaware for its own history of education from that date.

The press which is a great factor in education had no representation in Delaware until 1762, this colony being the twelfth one in which printing was established, Georgia being the last. As Philadelphia was the seat of education so was it the seat of journalism.

While William Penn was keenly alive to the importance of an educated people and to the responsibility of the government to foster education as one of its responsibilities to the citizens, he soon found so many matters threatening his established government both from within and from without that his return to England became necessary. Trouble over boundaries and titles, and the death of his wife delayed his return. Amid all the troubles and changes in establishing a stable government, education suffered so far as government care was concerned. Pennsylvania and Delaware governments alike did nothing. What was done was the work of the religious denominations, a private agency in which work the Quakers and Episcopalians led.

Ellen Samworth
June 4, 1940



III - 1 - b.

THE SWEDISH INFLUENCE UNDER WILLIAM PENN

Although the early Swedish education left no building of brick or stone in which the culture of their home-land was impressed they left a far more lasting influence from their sincere racial, civic and religious influence. Until the opening of the nineteenth century (Lawrence Girelius, their last Swedish pastor, returned to Sweden in 1791) they heard the Word of God and the liturgy of the Lutheran Church in the Swedish tongue, and sermons from scholarly ministers preached in the pure and refined language of their native speech. They had schools in the homes as occasion made possible taught by scholars from Swedish universities. Nicholas
1749 Forsberg was the last Swedish schoolmaster in 1749. They were peaceful, neighborly, honest and civic-minded.

Their dealings with the Indians were just and established an understanding of fair play either in trade or in their rights to the land or in humane treatment that was a foundation upon which William Penn could well build his reputation for such interchange of friendship that caused it to be said of Quakers that never a drop of their blood was shed by an Indian.

While at one time there was as close a union of Church and State on the Delaware as could be found anywhere it was because the Dutch Reformed Church furnished no pastor, the Church of England had not yet sent missionaries, the Presbyterians had not yet been forced to flee for religious freedom,

and the Delaware Valley would have been without religious ministration if Carl Lock and Dominie Frabricius in spite of their faults had not been restored to religious service.

When that really great man Erick Bjork and his companions, Rev. Andrew Rudman and Jonas Auren came to preach the Gospel, both Bjork and Rudman, besides ministering to the Swedes in their vast but scattered parishes on both sides of the river, preached occasionally in English to the pastorless English churches and thus established a brotherhood that helped to make a Christian commonwealth of the Delaware community and restored the freedom of conscience and the estimation of education that the great Gustavus Adolphus visioned in establishing his colony.

William Penn who associated with them in daily life and who called some of them into public service called the Swedes "a plain, strong, industrious people ... I see few young men more sober or industrious." Henry C. Conrad pays the following tribute to their influence "It cannot therefore be questioned that the early settlement of Delaware by these one thousand odd sons and daughters of the rugged old Norse race, so near kin to our own Anglo-Saxon, was a highly fortunate event, and one which in many ways, racially and otherwise, has wrought happy results which will long endure. Many and glowing have been the eulogies paid to these subjects of the great Gustavus, who sought to realize his splendid dream of founding in the New World an asylum for the oppressed of the Old. The Rev. Wm. Reynolds, D. D. in his Introduction to this translation of

Acrelius, says 'The Swedish colony on the Delaware has deeply and widely affected the state and national character.'"

In referring to the Swedish ministers holding a pastoral relation to the whole population, Dr. Horace Burr says: "The influence of those educated and refined Christian gentlemen was undoubtedly a great power for good in the formation of the character of the people." "He styles the 'Old Swedes' Church the most noted and venerable of the architectural remains of colonial days on Delaware soil. Long may it stand a monument to the memory of its projector and builder, the zealous, earnest and patient Erick Bjork and his faithful fellow-laborers, a blessing to the surrounding inhabitants and an object of veneration and care of the citizens of Wilmington, whether they trace their descent from those who helped rear the walls or of other lineage."

Ellen Samworth
June 10, 1940

III - 1 - C

Church Schools

Educational influence of the Established Church of England

To the work of the Episcopalians is given the credit of making education universal throughout the State though they were not engaged in the formal work of teaching. Ministers are teachers in the highest sense, and it was the work of the oldest society in the Church of England that brought early missionary teachers to the largest settlements along the Atlantic seaboard.

Thomas Bray (1656-1730), an Oxford M.A. of 1693, a D.D. of 1696, was appointed commissioner for the province of Maryland by the Bishop of London in 1695. He was authorized to seek out good and suitable men to act as missionaries in the colonies. The men who were willing to go were too poor to buy books and it seems that Dr. Bray made the help of the Bishops toward purchasing parochial libraries one of the conditions of his foreign service. This led to the founding of the Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge. This society found its work so greatly increased when Dr. Bray returned to England that he obtained from the King on June 16, 1701 an act of incorporation for the "Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts." This society sent to Pennsylvania and Delaware alone two hundred volumes of bound books and tracts worth about two hundred pounds sterling. It was not successful in some of its teaching projects, but it was a great educational force for it supplied missionaries throughout the State, and the primary work of a missionary is teaching.

June 16, 1701

The first Protestant Episcopal clergyman sent to Philadelphia was Mr. Evan Evans in 1700. In Dover Hundred and to New Castle

ministers were sent in 1705, but George Keith who presented their plea to the Bishop of London for a missionary in 1704 reported the building of a church being under way before he left the colony.

George Keith came to Pennsylvania, a Scotch Friend, and was appointed the first master of the "Friends Public School." Later he became unorthodox and spread dissension so widely and so successfully that by 1699, ten years after opening the first Friends' school in Philadelphia, he had turned about one-third of the population of Pennsylvania away from the Friends' faith.
1700 He joined the Church of England and in 1700 he was ordained a priest of that communion. He was sent by them as a missionary for the Society of the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts for the purpose of gathering Quakers from Quakerism to the mother church. He traveled through the colonies and in
1704 1704 he returned to England and laid the wants of the congregations before the Bishop assuring him that several towns had engaged him to present their petitions to him. Among these communities were New Castle and Dover "where they were building a church when he came away."

"Shortly before his death in 1714, he expressed the belief that if he had died 'when he went among the Quakers and in that profession, it had been well with him.'" L. P. Powell, p. 35.

In the same year that missionaries were sent to New Castle and Dover the Society reported sending "catechists and schoolmasters for the slaves and other ignorant persons, and sending over select libraries for the improvement of the clergy as well as treatises for the edification of the laity." Lyman P. Powell, History of Education in Delaware, p. 36.

A desire for ministers made demands upon the Society more urgent than they could supply. Churches were built by communities long before they had ministers. The ministers who were sent knew no bounds to their parishes but preached and catechised from New Castle to Lewes. They urged the opening of schools and the sending of qualified schoolmasters. They taught groups of boys with their own sons, so making education universal through the Church of England. The last service of this society recorded in Delaware was "sending in 1770 to the Swedish clergyman "some small religious books to be distributed to those who need them." Lyman P. Powell, p. 38.

As a testimony to dependence upon private tutors or to the subscription method of neighborhood schools for the education of children of the early colonists we quote the experience of Rev. George Ross, missionary of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, who was stationed at New Castle, but who preached from one end of the State to the other and who was ever interested in education himself and interested others. "The importance of
1711 education was ever before his mind" and as early as 1711 the vestry of the church at New Castle petitioned the Society to send them a
1729 school-master. In 1729 Rev. Ross petitioned the authorities in England that "a small salary of six pounds per annum may be allowed a catechist or schoolmaster in this place to encourage his instructing youth in the Church Catechism." Mr. Ross in a speech of the history of his church at New Castle describes the condition
1727 of education in 1727 as follows:

* ~~This was the reciprocal~~
~~Aurelius had returned to Europe.~~

"When a ship arrives in the river it is a common expression of those who stand in need of an instructor for their children, 'Let us go and buy a Schoolmaster.' The truth is, the office and character of such a person is generally very mean and contemptible here, and it cannot be otherwise 'til the public takes the Education of Children into their mature consideration."

"There are some private schools within my reputed district which are put very often into the hands of those who are brought into the country and sold for servants. Some School Masters are hired by the year, by a knot of families who in their turn entertain him monthly, and the poor man lives in their houses like one that begs an alms more than like a person in credit and authority."

Since there was no schoolhouse in New Castle until the opening of the 19th century we know that this school-keeping was in the houses of the subscribers of those who bought "them a schoolmaster," or if one family bought the teacher then he was tutor to and in the family home. There were occasional ignoramuses who masqueraded as teachers and added shame to education through the brutes who weilded the birch while scholars drove the oxen and turned the furrows. Such ignorant persons found their way into homes occasionally as private tutors, but oftener into the schools in the early days as school-masters.

The Presbyterian Influence

The influx of Presbyterians following the restoration of the royal house of Stuart brought many Presbyterians from Ireland and Scotland. Many of these were university men, educated, and valuing education as the essential preparation of ministers of the gospel. While the Episcopalians made education general the Presbyterians added no new principles but made it classical. They raised its

standards. They laid the foundations for colleges and universities from Nassau, now Princeton, southward. Of the early colleges in this region only the University of Pennsylvania was not a denominational college. Before the end of the seventeenth century
1698 (1698) Francis Makemie organized in the City of Philadelphia the first Presbyterian Church in America. Lyman P. Powell, History of Education in Delaware, Government Press, Washington. Before 1738 congregations were organized at New Castle, Wilmington, Brandywine, White Clay, Apoquinimy, Middletown, Dover, Cedar Creek, and Lewes. Nearly two thirds of the ministers who came over were graduates of Glasgow University. Those who came from New England had studied at Yale, and those who came from Wales were liberally educated. As many as one hundred Irish Presbyterians landed at
1736 New Castle in September 1736, and more were daily expected.

Among those who came were many schoolmasters and few Presbyterian settlements were without schools. Much instruction was given at home. The catechism was learned there. The psalms in meter were memorized, and became the "lullaby of the baby and the song of the housewife at spinning-wheel and loom." It was rare to find one, even a servant, who could not read and who did not possess a Bible.

Of course the laymen who came were not college men, but they were skilled craftsmen or farm hands and they brought intelligence and skill if only moderate education.

The influx of educated ministers from abroad or from New England brought a great influence for education into the valley of the Delaware. One of the best of these scholars was Francis Alison, a Glasgow University man, a probationer who entered by way of New Castle in 1734 or 1735. He was a member of the New Castle

Presbytery, one of the four into which the Presbytery of Philadelphia was divided when the Synod, a higher governing body was constituted there. Francis Alison was interested in education and after being inducted into the pastorate of the New London Presbyterian church on May 25, 1737 and after marrying Miss Hannah Armitage of New Castle and establishing his home he took a few young men into his home as students. He corresponded with Professor Hutcheson of Glasgow who had proposed to Alison the establishment of a seminary. No results came of this but in Nov. 16, 1743 the presbyteries of New Castle, Donegal, and Philadelphia met by agreement to consider the education of youth for supplying the pulpit vacancies of the denomination and agreed on a school of which they took charge the following spring 1744. Francis Alison was chosen master at £20 per year and given freedom to choose his usher at £15 per year. The school was to be under the supervision of eleven ministers elected as trustees, tuition was to be free to all in languages, philosophy, and divinity. The trustees were to visit the school, select the text books, examine the scholars, disburse the funds, inspect the master's work and have a general supervision of the school. In 1748 his salary was raised to £40 and his assistants to £20 the additional sum to be made up by "sessing" each scholar 20 shillings.

During the years of this Presbyterian immigration governing bodies, Presbyteries, had been erected in centers and these Presbyteries constituted the Synod of Philadelphia from which governing orders came. In 1738 the Presbytery of Lewes sent a memorial to the Synod of Philadelphia calling attention to the want of opportunities of youth in this country in pursuing a

sufficient education for the ministry because of lack of schools, and the impossibility of their attending colleges abroad or in New England because of lack of funds. They acknowledged that natural parts however promising must be marred if no opportunity is offered for improvement, that want of due pains and care paves the way for ignorance and leads the way for a formidable train of consequences. To prevent this condition they asked that the Synod appoint a committee of their members yearly to examine students and allow a public testimony from the Synod which will in some degree answer the design of taking a degree in the college.

This petition resulted in appointing two standing committees one to act for the district northward of Philadelphia and one southward. Of the committee for southward Francis Alison was a member.

Philadelphia May 15,1771

"A scheme for supporting young men of piety and parts at learning for the work of ministry, that so our numerous vacancies may be supplied with preachers of the gospel, &c.

"1st. That every vacant congregation in our bounds, who ask this Presbytery for supplies do annually at our fall meeting pay into the hands of a treasurer to be chosen, the sum of two pounds.

"2d. That every minister belonging to this Presbytery, pay into the hands of said treasurer, at the same time, the sum of one pound.

"3d. That any gentleman willing to contribute to this pious design, may have an opportunity of subscribing to pay annually.

"4th. That at every spring meeting of this Presbytery, there shall be a treasurer chosen, (a member of Presbytery,) who shall keep a fair stated account of all money received and the disbursements, and shall pay no money without a written order, act of the

Presbytery signed by their moderator and clerk for the time being.

"5th. That every member of this Presbytery may recommend any young man they think proper, who, after such an examination as shall be thought convenient, shall receive or be refused the benefit of this donation, by the major vote of this Presbytery.

"6th. That after any young man is thus received, the Presbytery shall look upon themselves as the guardians of his education, and as such shall give all orders relative thereto, and in case of any difference of opinion the major vote shall always determine.

"7th. That every young man thus educated, shall be looked upon as natively belonging to this Presbytery, and when introduced into the work of the ministry, shall continue at least one year preaching in the vacancies within the bounds of this Presbytery.

"8th. That every young man thus educated, and afterwards not inclining to the work of the ministry, shall give a bond to some minister of this Presbytery, to the amount of all the money expended, by this Presbytery in his education, payable in five years after date."

The Synod do highly approve of this plan, and do most earnestly recommend it to the several Presbyteries to fall upon that or like scheme, for the excellent purpose above mentioned, and order that inquiry be made at the next meeting of Synod, how far the several Presbyteries have been able to proceed in executing said plan, and that they be required to give an account of their diligence in this matter.

An overture was made that a general fast be observed in all

our bounds in consideration of the aspect which matters, both civil and religious, bear. The overture was cheerfully accepted, and the Synod earnestly recommend it to the several ministers and congregations under their care, to spend the third Thursday in June in fasting and prayer; excepting those Presbyteries who may have lately observed a fast for the same purpose.

An application from the Trustees of the Academy at Newark, to obtain the countenance and approbation of the Synod for a general collection through their bounds in behalf of said Academy, was overtured and read. The Synod considered the prayer of said petition, and cheerfully agree to countenance it; and do recommend it to the charity of the various congregations within their bounds.

Synod of New York and Philadelphia, May 18, 1785.

The Synod considering the education of youth, and their being early instructed in just principles of religion, as one of the most useful means of promoting the influence of the gospel in our churches, Resolved, that it be enjoined on every Presbytery, in appointing supplies to their vacant congregations, to take order that every vacant congregation within their limits be carefully catechised at least once in the year, in the same manner as is required by the order of our church, in congregations supplied with regular pastors, and that the ministers appointed to this duty be required at the next meeting of the Presbytery, to render an account of their fidelity in this respect, and that the Presbyteries be required to render an account of their attention to this order at the next meeting of Synod.

Resolved, also, that it be enjoined on all our congregations to pay a special regard to the good education of children, as being intimately connected with the interests of morality and religion;

and that, as schools under bad masters, and a careless management, are seminaries of vice rather than of virtue, the session, corporation, or committee of every congregation, be required to endeavour to establish one or more schools in such place, or places, as shall be more convenient for the people; that they be particularly careful to procure able and virtuous teachers; that they make the erection and care of schools a part of their congregational business, and endeavour to induce the people to support them by contribution, being not only the most effectual, but eventually, the cheapest way of supporting them; that the Presbyteries appoint particular members, or if possible, committees, to go into vacant congregations to promote similar institutions; that the corporation, session, or committee of the congregation, visit the school, or schools, at least once in three months, to inquire into the conduct of the master, and the improvement of the children, and to observe particularly his care to instruct them, at least one day in the week, in the principles of religion; and the Presbyteries, in appointing ministers to supply vacant congregations, require it as an indispensable part of their duty, to visit at the same time the schools, and require at the next meeting of the Presbytery, an account of their fidelity in this respect, and of the state of the schools; and that, in these schools effectural provision be made for the education of the children of the poor; and that, at the visitations of the schools, one or two of the most ingenious and virtuous of the poor children be annually selected in order to give them a more perfect education, and thereby qualify these ingenious charity scholars, to become afterwards useful instructers in our congregational schools.

On November 5, 1738 the Synod approved this committee's recommendation for the erection of a school. Francis Alison who had been instructing a number of young men free of tuition in his own home was chosen master at a salary of twenty pounds a year and permitted to choose an usher at fifteen pounds per year. Free instruction was to be given to all in languages, philosophy, and divinity. While this was a free school it was in no sense a public school. It might be termed a synodical school for a joint testimonial was required from the trustees and the synod's committee. The establishing of this school led to results little realized. It was to prepare men for the pulpit, and it became the stone on which was builded the University of Delaware.

Much can be written about this school, its Master, a teacher to whom "the school was as necessary as to the church as the anvil is to the blacksmith," its standard of excellence, and its students which will be found elsewhere, enough here to say that this school like all schools of this period had no separate house and was conducted by the outstanding teacher, Alison, in his own home at New London in 1743 where his charge was located until he left for a wider field in Philadelphia in 1752 at a salary four times the sum the Synod paid per year. Three years later 1755 this, the Philadelphia Grammar School, was converted into a college, which later became the University of Pennsylvania with Rev. Francis Alison as vice-provost and Professor of moral philosophy. Thus we find Lewes on the Delaware the starting point from which this brilliant scholar was an influence in the erection of two Universities.

Through Dr. Alison's successor, the Rev. Alexander McDowell, another Scotch-Irish scholar, the Presbyterian churches' school was moved for the sake of convenience to Elk River, Cecil county, Md., then to White Clay Creek, from which it was located in Newark, Delaware in 1752 where it has remained. Here a building was erected on Main Street in a quiet village whose inhabitants trace its history back to a settlement by "English, Welsh, and Scotch who gave their new home in America a name suggestive of the old country, New Wark doubtless named for the old town of which Scott sings:

"Where New Ark's stately tower
Looks out from Yarrow's birchen bower."

From 1834 to 1869 the academy was merged with Newark College (Delaware College after 1843) and with the resurrection of the college in 1869 it was restored to its trustees and re-opened again and conducted as a feeder to higher education until the proper system of public education made private preparatory schools unnecessary.

The oldest ~~parochial~~ denominational school in the State to have an existence up to the present day, on the same site as originally organized and using the original building with additions as needed is the Friends School located on West Street between Fourth and Fifth streets.

Friends did not settle in Delaware in large numbers as early as in Pennsylvania, although George Fox visited and preached at New Castle in 1672. In 1687 Valentine Hollingsworth donated half an acre of land in Brandywine Hundred. Wherever a few Quaker families were they built a meeting house and in it or by it they had a school. One was at Quakertown, near Lewes, one at Duck Creek, one in New Castle, and by 1738 enough Friends came to Wilmington with, or following,

William Shipley, to build a small meeting house on West Street near Fourth Street and by 1748 the new larger meeting house was built on the opposite side of West Street so that the older house could be turned over entirely to the school. There in the same old meeting house with adequate alterations and additions has been housed the oldest private school in the State.

At first the subjects taught were the three R's but in 1796 a teacher was secured from Philadelphia who introduced the study of English grammar, Latin and Greek and raised the standard of the school to compete with the Academy on Market Street, a policy which Friends School has ever followed (to be as good as the best) it still offers progressive education from kindergarten to college entrance to all meeting its terms, and has a rating second to no other preparatory school in the country. It has now completely outgrown its quarters and on the Augustine cut-off, a suburban highway leading from the Augustine Bridge to the Concord Pike, the Alapocas Road, an ample tract of land two miles northwest of Wilmington has been secured, a fine modern building has been planned and is being built at a cost of $235,000. It is to be ready for occupancy in September 1937 and there this fine school with all the appliances of modern times will begin a new lease of life. This school was dedicated and opened Sept. 22, 1937.

Between the beginning and the middle of the eighteenth century there is no record of schools but there was certainly a fine type of education being carried on. Reverend George Ross, appointed missionary to New Castle in 1705 began as early as 1711 to petition

the authorities in England to send a schoolmaster. He himself taught his own sons and a few of the sons of other people. In the newspapers of the day we read appeals for teachers or advertisements for a run-away teacher who has broken his probation. In Lewes land was given in 1707 to the use of the Presbyterians for a school house. This was confirmed by the magistrates - many similar cases. Turner p. 317.

The men who gave leadership in the trying times of the American Revolution had in many cases been under the instruction of private tutors employed by the parents. Rev. George Ross in a sketch of the history of his church at New Castle writes "when a ship arrives it is a common expression with those who stand in need of an Instructor for their children,'let us go buy a school master.'" Some of the young Irish scholars were employed as tutors in Delaware families. It is said that Benjamin Franklin recommended Francis Alison to Mr. Samuel D. Dickinson to whose son John, "The Penman of the Revolution," he became tutor to be followed by William Killen a lad then still in his teens who tutored the young Dickinson, at the same time educating himself so that he later filled one of the States' highest offices. He was appointed the first Chancellor of The Delaware State.

File S-640

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Submitted by - Ellen Samworth

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Reference

Early EDUCATION IN DELAWARE

Early education in Delaware owes its beginnings to the influence of the Dutch, the Swedes, and the English, although the English had no system of public education as we know public education today; but both Sweden and the Netherlands were far in advance of other countries of Europe in their educational systems. Sweden could boast the oldest government in Europe. Their educational program, like that of Holland, was under the direction of the State. The Swedes were alert for improvement and readily adopted any features that were in advance of their own, though in many respects, especially in physical education, they were, as they are now, a model for the rest of the world.

The States of the Dutch Republic had an educational policy similar to that in the most progressive nations today. In both countries the Church was under the State and the School was under the Church, and education was a State-Church function. In Sweden the Church was so active in educating the young, and home instruction was so widespread that an old chronicler remarks "that in 1637 there was not a peasant child who could not read and write." (L. P. Powell, P. 37.)

Discovery and the first colonizing effort belongs to the Dutch under the direction of the intelligent and courageous David Peter De Vries. Though his planting brought no fruit in the establishment of Dutch settlements on the Delaware, it did result in a clear claim of possession, through which the present boundaries of Delaware encircle a sovereign State, and the three small counties on the Delaware became the first State in the nation. The Dutch genius was fixed on gain and they neglected the provision of the Dutch West India charter which called for colonization for the sake of large returns from the fur trade and freebooting, and the Zuydt River was abandoned for years.

During this lapse of time, William Usselinx presented the advantages of the new country to Gustavus Adolphus, Sweden's most powerful ruler, who as early as 1626 formulated a plan of settlement. The Thirty Years' War called Gustavus to battle, and he lost his life in the battle of Lützen in 1632, but his faithful minister, Oxenstierna set himself to establish the colony where "schools and churches should flourish through it, and be sustained, and furthermore, where those who had learned something, should be promoted to dignities and positions."

Important

With the coming of the Swedes came the minister and the schoolmaster, oftener in one person than in two, for as was the case in Sweden, the minister taught the children in the home. If a schoolmaster were available, he too, was an officer in the church, and was bell-ringer, sexton, psalm

setter and comforter of the sick. The propagation of the Gospel and a knowledge of the principles of religion were the objectives of education. The Bible and the Catechism were the text books. One "R" instead of the "three R's" was the curriculum of that day. Under Swedish and Dutch rule, there is no record of a schoolhouse on Delaware soil. Schools were kept in homes, in churches, and, in summer, in the open air; yet so well taught were these simple folk that Eric Biork, their faithful missionary pastor, sent from Sweden in 1697, writes to a clergyman in Sweden, October 29, 1697, "They can

Clay 67 all read tolerably well,"[1] while his fellow missionary Rudman, writes, "Almost everyone can read." Mr. Biork writes "I cannot mention without astonishment, but to the honor of these people, that we hardly found here three Swedish books; but they were so anxious for the improvement of their children that they lent them to one another, so that they can all read

Clay 68 tolerably well."[2] Biork also states in a letter to Sweden "The people live very well without being compelled to too much or too severe labor. The taxes are very light. There

Clay 67 are no poor in this country."[3] This condition was found to exist among the Swedes after the Dutch conquered them, and later after the English conquest, though be it said to the everlasting credit of the conquering peoples that the Swedes were allowed perfect freedom in religious and educational affairs. This freedom permitted the intelligent among the Swedes to transplant to their new home the advanced conception of religion and its hand maid, education, that was a national policy in the fatherland. It is remarkable that a colonizing people in disputed territory could maintain the ability to read

their own language for so long in contact with an alien tongue, and without books, schools, or schoolmasters. What a testimony to the school that is in too much neglect today---the School of Mother's Knee.

It would be interesting to describe some of these home and church schools in primitive Delaware, and some of the schedules of a day's duties for some of the few schoolmasters who labored here, but these may be found in the many histories of the times. This brief reference to our early Swedish settlers is sufficient to assure us of the cornerstone that was set more than three hundred years ago, patterned upon a policy of State education from a fatherland that led Europe in an advanced scheme of education; a nation whose educational policy, especially in physical education is still a model. Paragraph As fine a tribute may be paid to education in Holland, but the Dutch West India Company was a trading company, not a colonizing company, and no Dutch schoolmaster was sent to Delaware until 1656, after the company had turned their colonies over to Amsterdam and Fort Cassimer became New Amstel.[1] Then Evert Pietersen, who had passed a good examination before the classis, came with the first body of emigrants from Amsterdam as schoolmaster and "comforter of the sick" to read God's word and lead in singing until the arrival of a clergyman. (Powell p.25) His first letter to Holland proves that he organized a school of twenty-five children, that of the twenty families represented, only five or six were Dutch; the rest were Swedes.

There is no record of a schoolhouse in New Amstel at any time, but Dutch schoolmasters succeeded Pietersen until the English conquest. Abelius Zetsceven, 1663, was the last named in the records, and he appears to have been the minister also, though his reputation as a schoolmaster far exceeded his fame as a minister.

The Dutch influence was not so dominant as the Scandanavian, and with the surrender of the territory to the Duke of York, the English language became the dominant speech. Provision was made for education by the English between 1664 and 1682 for among the laws of the Duke of York was one dated 1676 that required the constable and overseers to admonish parents and masters to instruct their children and servants in matters of religion and the laws of the country, and that "parents and masters do bring up their children and apprentices in some honest, lawful calling, labor or employment and to provide corporal punishment for the rude and unruly who refuse to heed the voice of their parents or masters." (L. P. Powell, p. 28)

Discipline through corporal punishment was the usual accompaniment of the schoolmaster's art, and was perhaps a natural submissive recourse among a people facing crude living, where even the religious tenets of a generation were pressed upon others at the sword's point. William Penn, whose religion meant brotherly love, found no spot in England where a peaceful religion could be practiced without persecution, so he exchanged a king's debt for a commoner's kingdom and gathering a following of Friends, he sailed up the Delaware

on October 27, 1682 on his "Holy or Divine Experiment." (Scharf, vol. I, p.21.)

With the coming of William Penn to his province on the Delaware, the English language supplanted both the Swedish and the Dutch and through intermarriage, the characteristics of the various nationalities were mingled. But for the Old Swedes Church and some family names that have come down through the generations, there is now nothing in Wilmington to indicate a distinct ~~material~~ NATIONAL origin. The Swedish language was gradually dropped by the children who learned to read English before they leanred to read Swedish, and long before the Revolution Swedish schools were abandoned.

Penn's provision for education had been written in England before Penn sailed and that and his farewell letter to his wife show how dear to Penn's heart was the proper education of the young, both academically and industrially. No matter how deep the desire for education among the early settlers, it was impossible to organize schools or churches. Penn was half a Dutchman through the influence of his Dutch mother, and he probably brought more of a Dutch influence into early education in Delaware than the Dutch themselves left. As he sailed up the Delaware, he passed farms tilled by English, Swedes, and Dutch besides a few of other nationalities, but when he landed at New Castle, he had passed no schoolhouse nor ANY church but one at New Castle. Penn himself was a man of liberal education, had travelled extensively and no doubt had drawn educated men into his company on the "Welcome." They had no

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experience of public education in the sense that we regard public education; yet Penn, like the New Englanders in Massachusetts, brought a Dutch rather than an English conception of education to his province.

There is every indication that a system of schools was intended that were to be public in character in that if any were too poor to pay, their children were to be instructed free of charge. It was furthermore enacted that those persons having charge of children should have them instructed in reading and writing before they were twelve years of age or pay a fine of five pounds for every sound child. It was further enacted that children were to be taught some useful trade or skill. It was further enacted that the laws of the province from time to time shall be printed---and they shall be one of the books taught in the schools of this Province and territories thereof. These and many other laws constituted the "Great Law" passed in Chester December 4, 1682, and the founders and early assemblies attempted to establish schools on this intelligent ~~province.~~ PROVISION. Men had already settled in the colonies who were qualified to teach, and the first attempt to establish a school December 1683 is quaintly described in the "Minuits of the Provincial Council." quote? The council which established this first school also had in view a high school and the "Friends Public School" now known as the "William Penn Charter School" which had its origin in a public grammar school which was incorporated in 1689. These and many other interesting and successful schools were instituted in the Province of Pennsylvania, many of which have become important seats of learning serving the present day, but what of

early education in the "Three Lower Counties?"

Annals of Old Swedes p. 69 The Swedish ministers and the schoolmasters who accompanied them continued to instruct the children in the church or the homes. The first schoolmaster, was Swen Coleberg. On October 22, 1699, he was engaged by the congregation of the Christina Church to act as bell-ringer, and as the salary proved too small, they took him ~~especially~~ for a schoolmaster, agreeing to gather for him eighteen or twenty children in the house of Peter Mounson. Preparations were made to build a school the next spring. Sufficient timber was cut on the glebe lot, but on account of the sickness and other causes nothing was done about it. "Swen Coleberg, disheartened, was on the point of giving up his school when Joran Anderson removed from his own house and left it entirely free for half a year to keep school in, and with it a piece of land to plant, and Jasper Walraven, of his goodness to help forward what he saw was for the glory of God, viz, the education of the children, gave him not only a piece of ground to plant, but also promised him free board for two months." (Lyman P. Powell, p. 17.)

The Delaware Swedes tried to induce Arvid Hernbohm the "quiet and capable" schoolmaster at Wicaco (Philadelphia), to take charge of their school, but he declined because he had already made a good beginning of instructing certain of the upper congregation's children and he could not soon be spared without detriment to them.

Failing to secure Hernbolm the Christina congregation engaged Johan Gioding who had already done the young good service. Johan Gustafsson offered to furnish both house and board

for the schoolmaster while five others agreed to pay as wages thirty shillings for each child, leaving all the rest of the congregation at liberty to send their children whenever they pleased and agree on the terms as best they ~~can.~~ could. So ~~This~~ was ~~certainly~~ a parochial school. It was opened on June 17, 1717 in Johan Gustafsson's house with singing and prayer and godly talk to the children and their parents, and at the end of the school year, ~~it was ended,~~ on April 5, 1718, they with the pastor and all the scholars, met in the house of John Stalcop in presence of most of the parents to have a formal closing and proper examination. The children answered promptly and boldly and so quickly confirmed their answers by a text from the Holy Scripture that all the company present could not refrain from glorifying God with tears of joy and gladness for their children's quick memory and attainments and the schoolmaster's diligence and circumspection who all that, only by conversation and without any book had impressed upon the memories of the children, and that there had been no fault in teaching them reading, The pastor proved by having them read portions of the psalms selected by him and found to his great satisfaction, they could read Swedish well. This portion of the description of a Swedish school in Delaware, ~~as~~ shows both the interest of the Swedes in Education and the character of the instruction given.

The first Dutch schoolmaster ~~came~~ had come out with the first body of emigrants from Amsterdam. He came as schoolmaster and to read God's word, And lead the singing until the arrival of a clergyman. He at once organized a school as is

proved by the first letter he sent to Holland in which he said, "We arrived here on the South River on the 25th of April and found twenty families there mostly Swedes, not more than five or six families belonging to our nation. I already begin to keep school and have twenty-five children."

Arent Eversen Molinaes probably succeeded Petersen. The last Dutch schoolmaster was Abelius Jetscoven who appears to have been a minister. Andreas Hudde applied to be appointed schoolmaster but there is no record that he was appointed.

A direct descendant of Wiltbank who was appointed sheriff at Lewis in 1672 asserts that he, Wiltbank, settled at Lewis about 1650 when it was merely an Indian village and soon afterward donated a lot for a schoolhouse, but whether one was built was not verified. In spite of the lack of an early schoolhouse, Lewis has a continuous record of education.

This is the brief sketch of a brief period of Dutch education. As in Holland the church served as schoolhouse, and the clergyman as schoolmaster, and where the clergyman was alert and earnest, education flourished, but where the clergyman was indifferent, education languished.

Delaware suffered some disadvantages from being so near the capital of the province of which it was an appendage if not a part while at the same time it was benefitted thereby. The most skillful, the most influential, the best educated, and the wealthiest and most outstanding additions to the Quaker colony in the New World were drawn to the capital city and its environs. The press was early established there and Delaware, although one of the earliest colonies in date

of settlement, was the last except Georgia, to have a printing press and a newspaper established, an influence that should be one of the most potent educational agencies.

In 1761 James Adams of Irish birth moved his printing press from Philadelphia to Wilmington, and in 1762 began to publish the Wilmington Courant. This was the only newspaper in the State before the Revolution. His press sent out several works on religious subjects, one or more almanacs, and he bound and sold books. He removed his printing materials during the Revolution, but returned in 1787 after the British left and began the publication of another paper.

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State



English Contribution to Early Education

The contribution that English settlers made to education in Delaware must of necessity come at first through Pennsylvania. The Quakers who sailed up the Delaware with Penn were educated to the extent of being able to read a nd write. Some of them had university training and all had a keen sense of the value of education in producing orderly and law abiding people.

During the 17th Century the English had made many attempts to settle along the Delaware, but had been repelled by the Swedes and Dutch. Though no English colony was established on Delaware s oil there were a few Englishmen from New England or from Maryland and Virginia who had established homes here, The Quakers had flourishing colonies at Salem and Burlington in West Jersey and at Chester and other points on the west side of the river. The advent of the Friends brought a more intelligent and aggressive people than the earlier settlers whose importance immediately began to wane.

P. Powell

The Duke of York, under whom the region was ruled from 1664 tol682, had already made provision for education for among his rules we find the following dated 1676:

"The Constable and Overseers are strictly required frequently to admonish the inhabitants of instructing their Children and Servants in matters of religion and the laws of the Country, and that the Parents and Masters do bring up their Children and Apprentices in some honest and lawful Calling, Labour or employment. And if any

Children or Servants become rude, stubborn or unruly refusing to hearken to the voice of their Parents or Masters the Constable's and Overseers (where no Justice of the Peace shall happen to dwell within ten miles of the said Town or Parish) have power on Complaint of their Parents or Masters to call before them such an Offender and to inflict such Corporal punishment as the merit of their fact in their Judgement shall deserve not excepting ten Stripes, provided that such Children and servants be eighteen years of age."

How much more constructive Penn's provision for education written in England in 1682.

"Twelfth. That the Governor and Provincial Council shall erect and order all publick schools and encourage and reward the authors of useful sciences and laudable inventions in the said Province - - - - and, fourthly a committee of manners, education and arts, that all wicked and scandalous living may be prevented, and that youth may be successively trained up in virtue and useful knowledge and arts."

Education was a matter dear to Wm Penn's heart. His Dutch mother's influence speaks through him where he wrote to his wife and children as he embarked for America."Here is a foreword for Trade School and Industrial Education!

"For their learning be liberal. Spare no cost for by such parsimony all is lost that is saved; but let it be useful knowledge, such as is consistant with truth and Godliness, not cherishing a vain conversation or idle mind, but ingenuity mixed with industry is good for the body and mind too.

Ellen Samworth 107

I recommend the useful part of mathematic's as building houses or ships, measuring, surveying, dialling, navigation; but agriculture is especially in my eye; let my children be husbandmen and housewives; it is industrious, honest and of good example."

The first arrivals on the Delaware are not to blame that Public Education as we know it was of slow development in Penn's colonies. Hear how soon the first general assembly met soon after the arrival of Penn and accepted the provisions for general education which Penn had prepared and printed in England before journeying here. On December 4, 1882 they met in Chester and accepted the provisions already quoted as well as passing the Great Law consisting of seventy-one chapters, of which Chapter LX contains the following remarkable provision:

Thus we see that the slow development of Education in not only the three Lower Counties but in Penn's fair state as well was due to no lack of vision on the part of the founders but to certain social conditions, to sparsely settled territory and to a lack of comprehension of the inherent equality of mankind.

File No. S-640

Submitted by - Ellen Samworth

Date - December 16, 1935

See revision March 25, 1936

Early Education in Delaware

It is impossible to consider the history of schools in Delaware from a local point of view because education in a democracy to be efficient must be state wide and free. Each section is rich or poor in the quality of its private schools and its special schools and colleges in the contribution they make to human needs. To be worth while in America private schools and colleges must be labratories where experimentation in new fields, new methods may be proved at private expense before public adoption, or they must be schools for advanced learning and special tecniques.

The schools of the Territories on the Delaware date back to the earliest explorers and colonists in America, for the Delaware Bay and River, wide open to the sea, invited adventurous navigators from many lands to harbor here. Some came and went, some came and stayed, but all left some evidence of their advent or some claim to the territory.

Henry Hudson was the first on record in his Half Moon to sail into the River's mouth in his quest for the Northwest Passage August 28, 1609, but finding (A-p.23) the river difficult to navigate, he left and sailed northward.

His entrance established a claim to both sides of the valley through discovery.

In April 1621, a Dutch ship of eighteen guns entered the Bay under Peter Heyes of Edam with Gilles Hossett as commissary. De Vries himself did not sail with this expedition. Peter Heyes left Hossett in charge and sailed away. (A. p.32)

No educational influence resulted from this colony of thirty men for the Indians massacred them to a man very soon after ~~De Vries~~ Peter Heyes sailed away, but the doughty Captain De Vries attempted to renew the colony as a whaling ground. Finding the expense of the enterprise too great for the results obtained, and the men too few in number to hold the place against the Indians, DeVries took his men and sailed to New Amsterdam thence back to Holland sometime in 1633 and no other colony was planted within Delaware territory until the coming of the Swedes in 1638.

Unlike the Dutch, who were traders eager for gain the Swedish King Gustavas Adolphus saw in the West Indies, as all America was then called, a land where His Majesty's dominions might be greatly expanded, and the cause of civilization and Christianity ~~might be~~ greatly advanced. Unfortunately for Swedish supremacy in the New World, Gustavas Adolphus fell in battle at Lutzen before his ideas of colonization could be carried out, but his able Prime Minister, Axel Oxenstiern, was in harmony with his King's ideas and proceeded to set forward His Majesty's plans for colonization.

Three Dutch traders, disgusted with their treatment by their own country, or disgusted with the methods used by the Dutch in carrying out their trading enterprises, left Holland and gave their allegiance to Sweden helping Sweden establish colonies on the Delaware.

William Usselinx, 1623 or 24, who had been instrumental in organizing the Dutch West India Company, Peter Minuit left Holland and gave their counsel to Sweden. Samuel Bloemmaert joined them later and helped organize a Swedish trading company called the "Swedish South Sea Company" chartered May 1, 1637. This company was later called The Swedish-Dutch Company.

The Swedish-Dutch Company provided two ships, the Key of Kalmar, a large man-of-war and the Griffin, a small sloop, which sailed December 1637 or early January 1638 from Gutenburg. Many hindrances delayed the sailing westward, but once they got under way they had a comparatively speedy passage for that time. They entered the Delaware Bay in March as is shown by a document discovered in Sweden in 1876 which shows that Peter Minuit bought a tract of land from an Indian chief on March 29, 1638, undoubtedly the site of Fort Christina. (A-p. 39)

The spring was early that year and the green flower-decked shores of the Delaware Bay and River which the Swedes called Nya Swerige's Elf, New Sweden's River, must have been a joy to eyes whose last sight of home had been in the dead of winter. (A-p 39)

After landing for a brief enjoyment on shore and for a supply of fresh water, the expedition re-embarked from what they had aptly called Paradise Point and sailed north-until they came to a broad creek of which Minuit probably had some knowledge through a previous exploration. Entering the creek they soon came to a spot now known as "The Rocks", an excellent wharf, less than two miles from the Delaware River. Upon these rocks the passengers of the Key of Kalmar and the Griffin landed; the hardy pioneers who settled the first permanent colony on Delaware. This landing place is at the foot of 6th Street in Wilmington not far from Old Swedes Church and within one yard of the McCullough Iron Company's works.

While this company of men established the first permanent settlement on Delaware soil and built the first crude dwellings, two log houses, for their shelter and defense, they did not introduce any element of education in their colonization scheme. Their enterprise savored more of the Dutch desire for trade than of the Swedish desire for human expansion and development. Yet this venture was the seed planted to yield rich growth in things of the spirit as well as in material returns.

While the first expedition was commercial in character the Swedish partners in this little company which sent out the Fort Christina colony had from the first been united on a scheme of colonization, national in character for they saw of what importance the colony under national and political relationship would assume.

Charles Fleming became the special leader of the work in Sweden, a position for which he was well fitted, both by his connection with the company, and because he had become President of the College of Commerce, which body henceforth gave close attention to the colony.

The Dutch leader, Minuit, having lost his life in a West Indian hurricane in the harbor of St. Christopher, the Swedish leaders went again to the great maritime Dutch nation for a successor to Minuit and chose Captain Cornelius Van Vliet who had been for several years in the Swedish Service.

References - ~~Sharf~~ Vol I pp 23 to 42.
A. J. Thomas Sharf A.M., LL.D. - History of Delaware
L. J. Richards & Co 1888.

LOCATION - New Castle File No.640

Submitted by Ellen Samworth,
Date August 19,1936.

New Castle (New Amstel) Religion and Education.

The Swedes had, as a rule, a profound respect for religion and for Sabbath sanctity, and this led to the establishment of places of worship as soon as their own homes were built, and to accredited ministers. The Swedes held the territory on the South River for so short a time that but few churches were built by them. The Dutch sent a man of piety with each colony, one who was in full communion with the reformed Dutch Church, to teach school and to assist in public worship, discharging the minister's duties when no minister was present.

The first permanent Dutch settlement under the government of the Dutch West India Company on the South (Delaware) River was at New Amstel in 1657 when colonists came out from Amsterdam after the Dutch had taken Fort Trinity, permanently, from the Swedes on August 30,1655. The Swedes had sanctioned a Dutch Colony in 1656 under Henry Stretham. This Dutch Colony may have joined Stuyvesant in establishing Fort Casimir in

Aug. 30. 1655

The Dutch West India Co. transferred to the city of Amsterdam all the land from Christiana Creek to Bombay Hook calling it the Colony of the City, or City Colony, and on December 25, 1656 a colony of about one hundred sixty-seven emigrants sailed from the Texel. Among the emigrants were 76 women and children, and a school master, one, Evert Pietersen, who wrote home that he had begun immediately to keep school with twenty-five children, mostly Swedes,"not more than five or six families belonging to our own nation." Pietersen's letter to Holland, August 19,1657. (L.P.,Powell,p.25.

Dec. 25, 1656.

Insert "a"

The report concerning Rev. John Polhemus arriving in New Castle in 1657 is without proof. In a letter from A. J. F. van Laer, State Archevist of New York, dated Nov. 2, 1938, he informs a member of the Writers' Project at Wilmington of the following facts:

We are assured that Rev. Johannes Theodorus Polhemus probably left Brazil on the ship St. Charles at the end of April,1654 and could hardly have reached the Delaware before May 21/31 when Fort Casimir was in the hands of the Swedes. It is unlikely that Polhemus organized a Dutch church there before departing for New Amsterdam, "although he may possibly have stopped and preached there. At all events we know that Polhemus almost immediately after his arrival at New Amsterdam went to Midwout, L. I., and that there was no regular minister at New Castle until Dominie Evardus Weilus was sent there from Amsterdam."

About the same time (1657) came Rev. John Polhemus on his way from Brasil to New Amsterdam where he settled and died. He tarried in New Amstel long enough to organize a regular Dutch Church, about 1657, and place this interest in the care of Schoolmaster Evert Pietersen until the following year, the Rev. Evaldus Wolfless came from Amsterdam, as the first ordained settled minister of the town. He died in 1659 and again Evert Pietersen, who was distinguished for his piety, assumed the role of ministerial functions.

not verified.

see insert "a".

Arent Holmaer, son of Evert Pietersen ~~probably~~ succeeded Pietersen at New Amstel after 1662, and Abelius Zetesoven was the last Dutch schoolmaster whom the records name. No school house was ever built by the Dutch, although Penn found one church when he sailed up the Delaware in 1682, a small wooden church which stood between the Market Square and the River. This church seems to have been abandoned before 1700 though there was a considerable settlement of French Huguenots in New Castle, and a record of a French clergyman dying there in 1684 who may have been the minister of this church. In the same year, 1684, the classis of New Amsterdam sent a pastoral letter to the congregation deploring the dissension that had developed in the church, and exhorting them to promote the Gospel and secure a minister. The people were now under British rule and, in spite of the expressed stipulation, "that the people be left free as to liberty of conscience in church as formally," there was such a lack of harmony that the church had lost its influence. While the people continued to worship in the old church, the worshippers continually decreased in numbers, and there was a laxity of public morals inconsistent with

New Castle's former practices.

The Quakers made a demand on the authorities for a better observance of Sabbath laws. They had taken steps to establish a Friend's Meeting and in 1684, their meeting became permanent under the Quarterly meeting of Philadelphia. We know a Friends' meeting house meant a Friends School in the house or beside it, but, the [illegible] of Friends being few in number, [illegible] to [illegible] a [illegible]. Later their meeting was "raised" and the members attended at Wilmington. Their property at Beaver and Otter Streets, conveyed to them by George Hogg, Sr., passed into the hands of the Wilmington Meeting.

On June 16, 1701, Dr. Thomas Bray obtained from the king an act of incorporation for the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign parts and to this society is due the real beginning of education in New Castle. George Keith, a Quaker convert to the Church of England, represented to this society, whose missionary he had been, the great need of ministers in the colonies, and asked especially for one at Dover, and at New Castle where he reported churches being built. The Society immediately responded by sending Rev. George Ross to New Castle and Rev. Thomas Crawford to Dover. George Rose came in 1705, having New Castle as his home, but having no bounds to his parish, but our interest is in New Castle. In 1711, the vestry of the New Castle church petitioned the Society to send them a schoolmaster, but there is no record of one arriving.

In 1727, Ross writes," There are some private schools within my reputed district which are put very often into the hands of those who are brought into this country and sold for servants. Some school masters are hired by the year, by a knot of families who in their turn entertain him monthly, and the poor man lives in their houses like one that begs alms rather than like a person in credit and authority. He tells us that it is a common expression with those who need a teacher for their children. 'Let us go and buy a school master.' The office and character of such a person is very mean and contemptible, and cannot be otherwise till the public takes the education of their children into mature consideration."

While Rev. George Ross was deploring the sordid status of schools and schoolmasters in New Castle, he had a young family of his own growing up about him, and he took the education of his sons, into his own hands. Like Thomas Alison who brought a classical academy into being in the Delaware commonwealth, Mr. Ross at New Castle undoubtably called the sons of other people into his rectory-school and established a classical basis there. If Rev. George Ross educated none but his own children he contributed men and women of fine quality and education to the building of a new nation. Of his daughters, two became wives of men of national character. Gertrude, the youngest daughter, the wife of George Read, "the Father of the State of Delaware." Catharine became the wife of General William Thompson, a distinguished Revolutionary officer whose daughter, Mary Thompson, became the wife of George Read, 2nd., eldest son of George

Read, the signer, George Read 2nd was an eminent jurist, and for nearly thirty years United States District attorney of Delaware. (Thos F.Scharf,I p.191.

John Ross, oldest son of Rev.Geo.Ross,was attorney general under the crown and the second son,Rev. Aneas Ross, was the author of eloquent and patriotic sermons that stimulated those who fought for freedom. He assumed the duties of rector in his father's church, serving the parish from 1757 to 1782, father and son between them leading the people of their persuasion in New Castle for more than three quarters of a century in the highest field of teaching, the Christian ministry.

( INSERT THE FOLLOWING PAGE )

Rev. George Ross was not a teacher by appointment, but through the need of a qualified teacher for his own offspring. He filled the office faithfully,as he filled the office of pastoral guide, though, like Jonas of old, he once essayed to run away from duty. It was in 1708, three years after the Society sent Mr. Ross to the New Castle congregation. Life in the New World was hard. There were few comforts, and much to be endured in a missionaries life. An epidemic swept through New Castle diminishing the congregation by many deaths and Mr. Ross removed to Chester in 1709. For this action he was recalled and ordered by the Society to return to England. He sailed in a ship which was captured by a French cruiser, February 9,1711. He was carried to Brest, stripped and inhumanly treated. On being released he returned to Chester, resumed his missionary labors at New Castle where he served until his death, in 1754.

For many years before the opening of the eighteenth century

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The third son George Ross became an eminent judge and a signer of the Declaration of Independence for the State of Pennsylvania. He filled many offices of importance in the new government. His life was one of disinterested service. He refused a gift of plate from his adopted city of Lancaster where he died at the end of the century.

New Castle had been one gateway through which an educated tide of humanity flowed, which stimulated the mental and spiritual vision of the pioneers in the colonies. Scotch-Irish Presbyterians, Welsh Baptists, French Huguenots, English Quakers, to teach the rights of man as well as missionaries of the Church of England to teach loyality to established authority. George Fox held his first Quaker meeting in New Castle in 1672. After the restoration of Charles II to the throne, Scotch and Scotch Irish many of them graduates of Edinburg and Glasgow universities came, as many as one hundred in a month. These Presbyterians came teaching and preaching, and the congregation of the Dutch church, having adopted the English speech, lost their identity as a Dutch Reformed body and from the time, as early as 1703, when the Presbyterian, Reverend John Wilson, began to preach, New Castle began to be a Presbyterian stronghold, having a congregation before 1738 adding White Clay Creek and Appoquiniminik, Christiana Creek, Welsh Tract, Petusan and Patapsco. It was this New Castle Presbytery that set in motion the current that brought classical education, and ultimately, Delaware College by way of Lewis and Philadelphia to Delaware.

So much for clerical, classical, tutorial education in, and near, and through New Castle. The State began to provide what should have been public education on June 13,1772 when a lot of land on the N.W.Corner of the grave-yard was granted for a school. The land was vested in five trustees for erecting a school house or school houses thereon, to be for that use forever. Laws of Delaware I 516.

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The vesting of title to land for the erection of school houses "for that use forever" shows a public mind set toward the education of youth. These trustees, David Finney, John Thompson, George Read, Thomas McKean and George Monro, were, like all the men of the thirteen colonies too completely absorbed with questions of State to give mind to education and funds were too scarce to accumulate money for building schools. With the rebellious Continental Congress meeting so near in the City of Philadelphia, New Castle was in a turmoil, either in the possession of the enemy or under close observation and the master minds were in conference or in camp during the years closing the ~~nineteeth~~ eighteenth century. If schools were kept they were in homes or in the churches.

The first general school in New Castle after the British forces had left Philadelphia and withdrawn from the Delaware river was started in 1779 when George Read, Nicholas VanDyke, and David Finney rented the Friends Meeting house for school purposes, paying £6 per year for the building for at least six years to John Lowden and others, then trustees.

Samuel Armor was the first teacher and the names of fourteen of his students can be definitely identified, "but very few records have as yet been found. A record of a lease of the Friends Meeting house dated September 1, 1706 shows the meeting house still serving as school-house and it may have continued until the erection of the old Academy building. On March 17, 1798 there appears on the minutes of the meeting of the Trustees of New Castle Common, "Ordered, that a Committee be appointed to draw the form of an ordinance respecting the disposal of the monies belonging to this

corporation." The Committee was George Read, Kinsey Johns, and Nicholas VanDyke, who made the following report:-

"Whereas, the establishing of a public seminary of learning in the town of New Castle would conduce much to the general benefit of the community.

Be it Resolved:- that the funds arising from the lands known by the New Castle Common shall be and they are hereby appropriated for the erection and support of a college in the town of New Castle after the discharge of the debts of this corporation and the necessary expenses in the management of the business thereof." Judge Richard S. Rodney

Educational developments were rapid in following this movement. The minute book of the New Castle Academy cannot be located, but the treasurer's book shows 69 individual subscriptions amounting to $2,714.56. Nearly all subscriptions are dated June 20,1799 so it may be assumed that the building operations were commenced as soon as practical after this date.

On March 11,1801 the minutes of the Trustees of the Commons again recite the appropriation of funds for the erection and support of a seminary of learning and further record that an addition be made to render the said building necessary and convenient as an academy. The resolution then proceeds to make all funds on hand payable toward the cost of erection of the addition and all future rents to be divided so that one half would be applicable to pay cost of erection and the other half of the rents for the support of the school. The Trustees advanced for the Academy nearly $5,000. between 1801 and 1809 and in 1811 the sum of $700. was appropriated to build the cupola and install the bell.

On April 22,1799 the name New Castle Academy had been adopted and six trustees elected. This number was increased to nine upon the incorporation of the Academy.

In 1808 under authority of one of the sections of this Act of 1801, Thomas McKean surviving Trustee of the school house lot under the Act of 1772, conveyed the legal title of that lot to the trustees of New Castle Academy.

An academy was built on this lot in 1800 and was incorporated January 30,1801. This building was erected by the voluntary contribution of the inhabitants of New Castle and vicinity. The trustees assumed responsibility for the building only, and gave the whole responsibility for the school to the principal, who charged what fees he thought proper. In theory this was a public school. In practice it was a private school, Later this school became the New Castle Institute having no characteristics of a free school. Insert

Another charter for New Castle was given to the New Castle Benevolent Society for the purpose of establishing a charity school. This charter granted, January 28,1817 vested the school in four women and provided that only Christian women were allowed to become members or teachers,and only destitute white orphans deemed proper objects of charity were to be admitted to the school. This school was not a success.

Several other private schools were opened from time to time but were short lived.

Several of the capable principals of the New Castle Insitute bore names of men who made the history of the town, Samuel Jaquett, Samuel Hood, James Biddle and others.

When the public schoolsystem was established in the State the principal of the Institute, William F.Lane, was made the head of the public schools of New Castle. Under his dual role the Institute lost its individuality and was absorbed by the public schools of the ~~town~~ State.

7-A

(Insert)

Education - New Castle

On February 4,1818 the charter was amended, and it was provided that five trustees should annually be chosen. The electors consisted of white male persons who had either contributed at least $20. toward the original erection of the building, or contributed $10. toward the fund for the education of poor children,or agreed to pay $30. for the education of a child at the academy for one year. It is probable that in time educational control and management drifted into the hands of the trustees of the Common, and that all elections for academy trustees were simply passed over. In 1849 Chancellor Kensey Johns and Chief Justice James Booth were the sole surviving trustees.

The Academy served New Castle interests for many years and the town did not come under the Public School System of the State. In 1845 the conditions of the schools were very unsatisfactory and continually grew worse. A committee of the Trustees of the Common was appointed to investigate the matter. This committee made a long report in which they set forth the failure of the free school system as then in operation in the state and cited that a number of desirable citizens had refused to move to New Castle because of lack of educational advantages. In spite of a strong recommendation for a small appropriation for the betterment of the Academy it was voted in the negative. The matter was brought up again in 1850,1851 and the Trustees appropriated $1,500. for the purpose of establishing a correct system of public instruction. This was the beginning of the New Castle Institute and on February 4,1852 an Act of Assembly was passed which for the first time brought in any degree the schools of New Castle within the public and free school system.

Page 2. Insert.
Education - New Castle.

"This Act recited that the institute had been formed by the Trustees of the Common for the teaching,not only the rudiments of learning,but such classical literature as is usually taught in seminaries and colleges; that the school was supported by the Trustees of New Castle Common and by subscription of such as could pay, but that any child whose parents were unable to pay tuition would be admitted without charge. After these recitals the act provided that the share of the school fund due to the United School Districts should be paid to the educational Committee of the Trustees of the Common for school purposes. So the schools had become free, but in no respect had they become part of the school system."

Judge Richard S. Rodney, The Development of Education in New Castle, An address on the Dedication of the William Penn School, February 7,1931.

The original building was added to and other buildings such as the U.S.Arsenal and the town hall were pressed into service with alterations. A brick school was built for the western part of town, and though hampered for many years by lack of funds, the Trustees of the Common have given New Castle a remarkable measure of educational advantage. The success for this achievement belongs to those who labored so faithfully that the youth of the town might learn. Perhaps the period from 1857 to 1875 represents the high water mark of educational standards. In 1857 four graduates of the Institute entered directly the junior class at Princeton. As a tree may be judged by its fruit, so may a school be judged by those who thrive from its nurture. From the old schools came two United States Senators, two representatives

7-C





in Congress, a Governor, Chief Justice, two Judges besides a galaxy of professional men and women, and private citizens living sweet wholesome lives.

In 1874, the Trustees of the Common found it necessary to guarantee an annual sum to supply New Castle with a water system and they found it impossible to carry the support of the schools also. For that reason on March 31,1875 they discontinued appropriations to the schools, and a Board of Education was established by the General Assembly, and the schools were directly under this board until the adoption of the present code.

Insert



When we consider the early history of education in New Castle we come, not to a development of schooling only, for the youth of the town, but to a phase of character in a people that reflected the state of mind responsible for the national declaration of independence, and for the tenacity of purpose that sustained the colonists in obtaining that independence against great odds in warfare.

It is true that the grant of land for the erection of a school or schools was made before the birth of the nation by an Act of Assembly of the Three Lower Counties, June 13, 1772 (Delaware Laws, Vol. 1, p. 516). This Act merely vested title to land that was already set aside in the center of the town for the public use and benefit of the inhabitants, and had been so used as Market Place, or Market Plain, or Market Square since the first laying out of the town, but legal title had not been vested in any person or body corporate until this date.

By the Act of June 13, 1772 David Finney, John Thompson, George Read, Thomas McKean and George Monro were named trustees, and the Act recites that the inhabitants of the town intend to erect a school house or houses on it. There is no record of a school house being erected for many years, not until the 69 persons contributed the $2714.56 on June 20, 1799, and the erection of the first building took place.

On March 11, 1801, the minutes of the Trustees of the Commons recite the need of an addition to the building and they proceed to make all funds payable toward the cost of erection of the addition, and all future rents divided so that one half would be used to discharge the cost of the building and one-half of rents for the support of the school.

Until 1874 the town of New Castle maintained its own schools, supplying its own funds meager though they were, through its own committee on education, except their appropriation coming from the State when the Act of February 4, 1852 declared that all children should receive the fundamentals of an English education. Then the committee on Education had the State funds paid to the Trustees of the Common and by them allocated to the school which became The New Castle Institute and admitted free of charge those who could not afford to pay. The New Castle Institute was not a small school, though the salaries paid to its teachers were small. As late as 1894 some of the teachers were paid $300. for a full year, twenty-five dollars a month, corresponding with the three hundred bushels at the basic rate of one dollar a bushel that they paid their first teacher, Samuel Armor, in 1779. As early as 1868 there were 340 scholars, 200 boys and 140 girls.

This independence of spirit toward their educational affairs was typical of the entire State with the advantage New Castle had of having a fund from rentals of the Common and the high order of the membership of their Board of Education. With the diversion of the funds from Common rentals to the support of a water system the schools came under the direction of the State March 10, 1875 and from that date the history of the school houses is largely the history of education in the town.

This school building history is interesting. In the beginning the schools were in the homes and in the churches, the Friends' Meeting House was used from 1779 until the academy was built on the green. Nearby was the Federal arsenal erected on the Green in 1809 but their deed to the site was defective. The arsenal was in use during the war of 1812 for storage of war supplies and for the quartering of soldiers both militiamen and regulars. In 1845, about the time of

the Mexican War, the governmentssought to have the title corrected and a new deed executed. A public meeting expressed the wishes of a townspeople who were tenacious of their own rights, and the new deed was so restrictive that the arsenal was of very little use to the Federal Government. The conditions were that no ammunition could be stored there, nor soldiers quartered there without the consent of the town. These restrictions made the lot of little use to the Federal Government, and they practically abandoned the building and left it ready to be used by the Trustees of the Common when in 1852 they founded the New Castle Institute. The walls were raised, a second story was built and a cupola added as we see it today.

Something of New Castle school-masters is also of interest. We know how Rev. George Ross complained about the poor quality of the school masters whom the citizens went to "buy" when a ship came in as well as the indignities that were put upon the same "bought" school masters. Let us not suppose when we cite the fine men, university scholars who came as refugees through New Castle in the early days that the schools secured only fine scholarly men as teachers.

When such eminent teachers as Francis Allison entered through New Castle, took himself a wife of her fair daughters, and taught in the most famous schools of the middle colonies history records them, but when a town is unfortunate enough to get a M'Goggin the sooner he is forgotten the better, unless one may be far enough from the torture of his brutality to enjoy such a description as Robert Montgomery Bird gives of his first teacher. "He was an illiterate, vulgar dolt, an Irishman just caught, who professed as he said himself, to teach nothing but 'r'ading, writin' 'rithmetic, and dacent manners'... He

was six feet high and limbed and shouldered like a Hercules; and indeed of such strength and activity, that had he been set at the business for which he was best qualified, that is canal digging--- ". He had an ugly look too about the eyes, which besides being the color of a cat's were overshadowed by a pair of brows of such bigness and appearance that they looked like two stuffed rat skins stuck on with glue; and his complexion was of the hue of sole leather, plentifully besprindled with freckles of the size of half dimes.-- He was entirely incapable of fear, and had suxh a natural love of a row, that when informed by the trustees of our character and doings-- he rubbed his hands with satisfaction and declared we were 'swate little devils' and that we should get along very well together."

This description of one of the teachers by a shy and docile lad, who came in for an inordinate share of correction, and who carried home almost every day this brute's tally on back or knuckles, belies the statement, that 'he was incapable of fear'. He was a bully and picked the "shy and docile lad" because he could get away with beating him without resistance. So crude and galling were Bird's experiences in his early school days with this ruffian that "he took an oath on bended knee 'to kill his pursuer as soon as he was old and strong enough to do it' ". His tortures were ended abruptly on day when his uncle, Mr. Nicolas Van Dyke, found him in the hands of his sympathizing cousin, who was dressing a bruised and lacerated back. He was immediately withdrawn from school. Instead of killing this inhuman brute, the like of which were too often in charge of small boys in school, he made him immortal in "The Adventures of Robin Day."

It would be unfair to picture an ignorant, brutal school keeper which any school might be unfortunate enough to draw in early days,

without painting one in the same school who had the welfare of his pupils at heart and saw in the boys of today the men of tomorrow. Judge Richard S. Rodney quotes the following: "A letter is in existence from William T. Read in New Castle to James Booth, Jr., at Princeton, dated March 26, 1806, which throws some side-lights upon the course of study at the Academy. Read was fourteen years old, Booth a little older. Read says: 'It has always been my idea that I was to enter the freshman class (at Princeton) next fall. I think I would be rather too young for the sophomore-----. We have begun a few days ago to read Xenophon, but I am very much afraid that I shall not be able to obtain much benefit from it as Mr. Latta still preserves in his ridiculous plan of making us read Xenaphon in Latin... Mr. Latta still continues to tire us with his usual long Saturday prayers, but I believe the little man does it for the best."

This letter came again into the hands of its author in 1868 and to it Mr. Read made this note:

"Rev. John E. Latta was our well qualified teacher and his pupils it was said, were better prepared than was usual for the college. Though his prayers and religious instruction may have been tedious yet I have ever felt that I owed to them very much."

Clement E. Foust, A.M. Ph. D., The Life and Dramatic Works of Robert Montgomery Bird. The Knickerbocker Press. New York 1919. 725pp.

This historic old school with the other outmoded small schools of New Castle have been consolidated and are housed in the modern commodious Wm. Penn consolidated school on Route 40 just beyond the Pennsylvania Railroad.

The provision under the State for giving poor children the rudiments of an English education in the Sunday Schools, according to an Act passed February 3,1821, was made use of in New Castle. The following schools which accepted the stipulated 20 cents for each white scholar enrolled were the Female School, 100 scholars, Immanuel Church 40 scholars, New Castle school, 93 scholars.

The New Castle Library Company incorporated in 1812 was an addition to New Castle's educational equipment,but for some reason the books are not accessible as the building is closed, and such local library facilities as the people of New Castle enjoy are furnished by the New Castle County Free Library Service of the Wilmington Institute.

(Lyman P. Powell, History of Education in Delaware,Washington, Gov't Printing Office,1893, 186 pp.

J. Thomas Scharf,A.M.L.L.D. History of Delaware,L.J.Richards, Philadelphia,Pa. 1888, Vol.I 610 pp Vol.II p.611 to 1358.

Notes on Church at Christina
Amandus Johnson-Swedes on the Delaware-1927 revision

p.111- "About May 10 the ramparts (of Ft. Christina) were completed.---Two houses were erected inside the palisades,one of which was probably used for a dwelling house,the other for a magazine or storehouse.

p.134-135-"Rev.Reorus Torkillus ,who arrived in 1640 conducted services in Ft.Christina in accordance with Swedish law.-----One of the houses built by Minuit undoubtedly did duty as a meeting-house for a time but it is quite certain that a chapel was erected about 1641 or 1642. ----we may feel certain that the authorities did not fail to instruct Ridder to build a place of worship ,and that he obeyed the order,altho we have no record to tell thetale.We know that there was a house of worship in thecolony in 1643,for Brahe,answering Printz's letter of April 12, admonished the governor to decorate their"little church in the Swedish custom."

Frontispiece to Dutch and Swedes on the Delaware , a map of 1654, photographed from the original, shows only two buildings inside the palisade which could possibly be large enough for a chapel.

I checked all three books,and found references to contemporary letters and reports given for all statements,except those clearly labelled as inferences.

Moore, Th. Ap. Town 135

## Education

New Castle.

Our first school master, Evert Peterson, came from Holland in 1658. Later he was succeded by Abeilus Zetscooren . The authorities of the Upland desired his serives in 1663, but the people of New Castle would not give him up.

An act was passed on June 13, 1772,'setting aside a part of the State House lot of land in the Northwest corner of the grave yard of Immanuel Church, on which to erect a school-house ..... to be for that use forever'.

An Academy was built in 1800 and encorporated in 1801.

The act of January 30, 1801, provided as trustees of the New Castle academy:"Kensey Johns, James Booth, George Read, Archibald Alexander, James Riddle, James Goldwell, Nicholas Van Dyke, James Mc Calmont, and John Bird. The trustees had charge of the building only; the school was under individual control. Samual Jacquett was tha teacher here for many years The school was known as the New Castle Academy(Institute).

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# The Beginning of Education in Delaware

We Delawareans who are so fond of our "Firsts" can lay no claim to being first in Education, though those early colonists, the Swedes and the Dutch, left a fine, but sporadic contribution to educational endeavor.

Gustavus Adolphus (1626) planned a colony in the New World where "schools and churches will flourish and where those who have learned something, will be promoted to dignity and position."[1] Men die but ideals of truth never die. Killed in 1632, Gustavus Adolphus never saw his project "the jewel of his crown" carried into effect but Oxenstiern, his appreciative minister, inaugurated the scheme, and to him the first permanent colonization (1638) on the banks of the Delaware is due.[2]

The Swedish contribution to education was through the same channel that education flowed in Sweden, the Church, a State institution, and the clergyman or some lesser church officer was schoolmaster also. In a new state where defence against Indians and the hard task of wresting a living from a virgin country took up all the energy, education was not the first need considered. Yet in 1640 the Queen of Sweden gave to Henry Hockhammer and Company a grant and privilege for the establishment of a colony in New Sweden. In it appears the following provision for education;[3]

> "The Patrons of this colony shall be obliged to support at all times as many ministers and schoolmasters as the number of inhabitants shall seem to require, and to choose moreover for this purpose persons who have at heart the conversion of the pagan inhabitanta to Christianity."

"Among the instructions given to Governor Printz (1642) was the following; "to support a proper ecclesiastical discipline, to urge instruction and virtuous education of the young."[3]

The difficulty in the early education among the Swedes was the lack of books, yet, Mr. Rudman writes "Almost everyone can read." Mr. Biork writes, "I cannot mention without astonishment, but to the honor of these people, that we hardly found here three Swedish books, but they are so anxious for the improvement of their children that they lent them to one another so that they could all read tolerably well."

Later the English governors of the provinces allowed the Swedes perfect liberty in religious and educational affairs and these first settlers on the Delaware might have left an established educational system but for three adverse circumstances; the want of books, of school-masters, of school-houses.

Besides the hardships of colonization the early Dutch, Swedes, and English settlers were disturbed by the struggle for supremacy in contested territory. It is unfair to expect a record of Swedish or Dutch educational establishment, yet, in spite of odds against them, they did make "praisworthy attempts to instruct their children in the rudiments of common learning and Christian theology." This because the Dutch came from lands "farthest advanced in general education of all the countries of Europe."[1]

Powell

The first Dutch settlement (1631) on Lewis Creek was so soon exterminated by the Indians that almost no record remains and the patent to Lord Baltimore (1632) gave the Dutch an English rival before they could possess the land.[2] Thus the Dutch made no important settlement on the Delaware until New Amstel (1657) was founded by colonists from New Amsterdam.[2]

Powell p. 22

As in Sweden, so in Holland, the Church controlled education but "was the first country in Europe to establish a system of public schools similar to the schools we now know by that name!"[3] Part of a letter from John of Nassau to his brother, the Prince of Orange contains the following passage, "You must urge upon the States General that they should establish free schools where children of quality as well as of poor families for a very small sum could be well and Christianly educated and brought up."

Peterham

"The first provision made by the Dutch for education in Delaware occurs in the conditions offered by the city of Amsterdam in 1656 to settlers on the Delaware River. The city of Amsterdam agreed to send thither a proper person for schoolmaster who shall also read the Holy Scriptures and set the Psalms. The first Dutch schoolmaster in Delaware of whom we have record was Evert Petersen who came to New Amstel in 1656 with the first emigrants. That he at once organized a school is proved by his first letter to Holland August 19, 1657."[5]

Powell 24

Powell 25

There is little to relate concerning Dutch schools in other sections of Delaware. There was a lot in Lewis donated for a school-house when Lewis was nothing but an Indian village, (1650), but whether a school was built is not known.

This is but a brief sketch of education among the Dutch, but, as the English rule increased the Dutch and the Swedes attended the English Churches, used the English language and so education merges into one record.

# EDUCATION IN DELAWARE FROM THE FIRST SETTLEMENT TO THE PRESENT

## Table of Contents in Paragraph Form

Introduction: Educational Tradition

A brief statement will outline the events, the economic and political conditions, and the educational philosophies that have shaped three centuries of education in the State. Colorful bits of anecdote will be used to make a readable introduction, and the State's educational history will be sketched in general outline.

Period of the Swedes, Dutch, and the English under the Duke of York, 1630-1682.

For each of the three strains of seventeenth century colonization the book will show the continental tradition the new settlers brought, adaptations to meet local conditions, educational legislation, and, so far as meager records permit, the character of schools actually established. More information is available for the Dutch than for the Swedes and the pre-Quaker English. Several interesting bits of comparative education are available for this period, particularly in the history of Dutch colonization of the Hudson Valley region.

Colonial Period, 1682-1775

During the early years of the Penn proprietorship the Delaware colony was merged with Pennsylvania, and William Penn's ambitious plans for public education were expected to apply to both settlements. In actual practice, his ideas

had little influence here, except as they colored the thinking of important local Friends. Swedish parochial schools, taught in that language, maintained a hold in the neighborhood of Wilmington until after the Revolution, and church schools of other denominations were important, in many instances providing the only facilities for those of limited means.

The later decades of the Proprietorship were marked educationally by increased importance of denominational schools, the importation of tutors, some of them men of distinction, multiplication of subscription schools in many neighborhoods, and finally the appearance of academies. That at Newark, founded originally by Francis Alison in New London and later transplanted to Delaware, was among the famous schools of the later colonial period, and important both for the men it prepared in its early history and for the fact that it is the ancestor of the State University.

The colonial period, like most others, will be summarized by a brief statement comparing Delaware's educational plans and accomplishments with those of other Atlantic seaboard settlements.

Education in the Early State, 1776-1830

1776-1792 was a period of aristocratic education, for the most part. The State boasted distinguished teachers from time to time during this generation, and at least two academies seem to have maintained a high standard of performance. Free education, except through the generosity of individuals or religious sects, was unrecognized even as an ideal until after the state constitution was revised in 1792.

Names of Streets
Changed from,,.to...

January 18,1866, Marsh Road running from the Wilmington-Philadelphia turnpike to Shellpot Dam was changed to Vandever Avenue.

The numbers on Market Street prior to 1850 ran as follows:-

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Water to Front, | 1 to 12 | inclusive |
| Front to Second | 13 to 36 | inclusive |
| Second to Third | 37 to 64 | " |
| Third to Fourth | 65 to 84 | " |
| Fourth to Fifth | 85 to 110 | " |
| Fifth to Sixth | 111 to 128 | " |
| Sixth to Seventh | 129 to 158 | " |
| Seventh to Eighth | 159 to 185 | " |
| Eighth to Ninth | 191 to 214 | " |
| Ninth to Tenth | 215 to 230 | " |

In March of that year the old method of numbering was discarded and the decimal or block system put into use.

## Wilmington in 1875.

In 1875 Wilmington had grown to a community of 35,000 persons. Johua L. Simmons was the mayor and there were ten wards, two councilmen being chosen from each instead of the three mentioned in 1845. The city then had a Chief of Police, two special policemen, two sergeants, one for the Western and one for the Eastern districts, and 18 policemen, three for each of six districts. They were appointed by the mayor.

Wilmington Names:

File No. 101 141

Locality - Wilmington

Folder: Names

Submitted by - Robert Campbell

Date - December 7, 1935

Placenames.

WILMINGTON - (Wil - ming - ton) - Originally Willingtown from Thomas Willing who laid out lots along the Christian River in 1731 near the present site of Market Street bridge. Corrupted into Wilmington, possibly through similarity in sound to the name of Lord Wilmington.

CHRISTINA RIVER - (Cris - tee - na) - Commonly but incorrectly called Christiana. Was first called Minquas Hill by Dutch explorers from the Minquas Indians living in the neighborhood. Named Christina by the first Swedish settlers arriving in 1638 in honor of their Queen Christina.

BRANDYWINE RIVER - (Bran - dy - wine) - First called Fiske Kill or Fishkill by early settlers. Later known as Brantweins' Creek, corrupted to Brandywine.

SHELLPOT CREEK - (Shell - pot) - Name was originally Skylpaddly of Dutch origin. Corrupted by the English first to Skillpaddle and then to Shellpot.

References: Wilmington and Christiana - Scharf's History of Delaware.

Brandywine -

Shellpot -

1:40 small town called Christianahan
River Elk changed to Christiana Elf

# CHANGES IN STREET NAMES

Cunningham

On December 31, 1835, the following changes in street names were made by City Ordinances of that date:

High was changed to Fourth

Queen to Fifth

Hanover to Sixth

Broad to Seventh

Kent to Eighth

Wood to Ninth

Chestnut to Tenth

Elizabeth to Eleventh

Dickinson to Twelfth

Franklin to Thirteenth

Washington to Fourteenth

Stidham to Fifteenth

References:

Wilmington Ordinances
Wil. 1885-
888 pp.

, 265 By ordinance of March 12, 1846, Pasture Street was changed to Washington Street.

, 327 By ordinance of July 24, 1862, Mill Street was
, 331 changed to Sixteenth; Franklin Street between Front and Second Streets and between Jefferson and Madison Streets was changed to Christiana Street.

, 740 By Act of General Assembly of January 18, 1866, Marsh Road, running from the Wilmington-Philadelphia turnpike to Shellpot Dam was changed to Vandever Avenue.

7 Wil. Streets By ordinance of July 6, 1932, East Grant Avenue and West Grant Avenue between Barry Street and Lancaster Avenue was changed to Bancroft Parkway.

The street from Thirtieth Market Streets to Pine Street along Price's Run Park was given the name of Danby

Street in 1926, in honor of John H. Danby.

House Numbers

Ref: Wilmington Dec. 1931 P. 8

In the early days, the houses were numbered serially, with each house reckoned basically as a unit. The odd numbers were on the west side of the street; even numbers on the east side, as at present.

According to the "Directory and Register for the Borough of Wilmington" of 1814, the numbers on Market Street ran as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Water to Front | - | 1 to 12 inclusive |
| Front to Second | - | 13 to 36 " |
| Third to High | - | 37 to 64 " |
| High to Queen | - | 85 to 110 " |
| Queen to Hanover | - | 112 to 128 " |
| Hanover to Broad | - | 129 to 158 " |
| Broad to Kent | - | 159 to 185 " |
| Kent to Wood | - | 191 to 214 " |
| Wood to Chestnut | - | 215 to 230 " |

230 is the highest number listed in the 1814 directory.

By ordinance of City Council, dated March 24, 1859, the block system of numbering houses was adopted. This is also called the decimal system.

Wilmington Drap 144
Folder Frames

LOCATION: Wilmington

Submitted by: J. SWEENEY October 4, 1937

Subject : NAMES OF PLACES; meaning of "Verdrietige Hook."

PRELIMINARY NOTES

Verdrietig, a Dutch word, means vexation, or trouble, when literally translated. -- Calisch's Dictionary of English and Dutch Languages. In Two Parts. Dutch-English part (Tiel, 1892), 723, 877; English-Dutch part (Tiel, 1890), 838.

"BRANDYWINE HUNDRED.

" * *

" * * For many years different sections of the hundred were known by the old local names.

"These were, beginning at the mouth of Christiana Creek and going northward, Vertrecht Hook Marsh (later Cherry Island Marsh), Vertrecht Hook, the 'Bout' or 'Bocht,' Grubb's Manor Lands, Naaman's Creek Lands and west from all of these, Rockland Manor.

"The Swedes, as has been stated were the first settlers. They located on Vertrecht Hook (also called Trinity Hook), that being the first desirable fast land on the Delaware above Fort Christina, which was built in 1638, and which afforded them protection.

"Upon the surrender of Fort Christina, in 1654, the Swedes were much concerned as to their rights, as one of the terms of the capitulation was that they should leave their lands and locate in villages, which was distasteful to them. Accordingly, on the 19th

of January, 1656, 'There appears at the meeting of Council the free Swedes who live upon the second point* above Fort Casimir and request that they may remain on the land and that they are not willing to change their place of inhabitation nor to build in the village which is to be established, but they adhere to the promise made to them by the Hon^ble Peter Stuyvesant, that they should resolve what to do after the expiration of a period of one year and six weeks granted to them by the capitulation.' This request was presented to the Governor, and on August 14th in that year the deputy sent by the Governor read the instructions and conditions which were delivered to Gregorius Van Dyck, sheriff. The exact purport of the conditions is not known, but the greater portion still resided on Vertrecht Hook, and on May 20, 1657, forwarded a request to the authorities to establish villages. The request was granted by letter, June 12th the same year, and Gregorius Van Dyck, was ordered to concentrate them in villages, either at Upland, Passayonck, Finland, Kingsessing, or on the 'Verdritige Hook.' It was at the latter place that the Swedes were then living without title to land, except the right of discovery and occupation, as no patents were granted by Queen Christina to any one within the territory now embraced by the State of Delaware. Here they located in considerable numbers with their families, each having a narrow river front and running back into the woods, and using the marsh lands in common for wood and pasture. Some of them obtained titles under the Dutch, and which, in 1664 (?-JS), were renewed by the English. In 1662 the place was known as the 'troublesome corner' and in that year Vice--Director Beekman, of Fort Altena, in a letter dated June 21st, writes, 'Sixteen or eighteen families mostly Fins, residing in our jurisdiction to whom great offers have been made by Mr. d'Hinijossa, intend to move into the Colony; They are to have eighteen years' freedom of all taxes, with their own judges and decisions

"* The first point above New Castle, or Fort Casimir, was Crane Hook and the second was Vertrecht Hook.

up to 100 guilders, also free exercise of their religion — these families intend nevertheless to hold on to their lands in our jurisdiction and to sow grain on them, until they have cleared land in the Colony. In my opinion we may seize the deserted land and settle Dutch farmers on it if it were possible to get them.'

These families remained on lands they had located, mostly on Vertrecht Hook and the 'Bout;' a few, however, were at Tran Hook or Craine Hook and Swanwyck. Only one or two in the early days lived below New Castle, until about 1675-76, and then but few more settled there.

"The English came into possession of this territory, by the surrender of the Dutch, February 7, 1663, on condition that the inhabitants, principally Swedes, should be protected in their rights. Their lands became escheated, but were restored again to them by patents from the English Governor, Richard Nicholls. The first grant on the Delaware, to individuals, after the surrender, was given March 5, 1663, about a month after the capitulation of the Dutch. It was granted to Niels Nielson, Sr., Hendrick Nielson, Mathyes Nielson and Niel Nielson, Jr., 'for each of them a plantation with a proportion of meadow ground for hay for their cattle on a certaine piece of land att Delaware situate, lying and being on the Trinity Hook or that corner of land so extending to the Stone Hook and obliging them to build their houses near unto one another.'

This grant was confirmed June 15, 1664, and reconfirmed, January 8, 1667. At the time of the first grant Fort Christina, although virtually surrendered, did not yield until forced to do so by the presence of an armed force under the command of Sir Robert Carr, August 27, 1664. This grant was probably the first issued by the English in this section of the country." — Scharf's History of Delaware, II:898-899.

(Continued on next page.)

1663-67 "A Confirmacon graunted to Johan Hendricks, Neils Neilson Sr., Hendrick Neilson, Mattijas Neilsen, and Neils Neilson, Jr., for each of them a plantation at New castle upon Delaware.

"Richard Nicholas Esqr. &c. Whereas there waas upon ye fifth day of March 1663 a Graunt made unto Johan Hendricks, Niels Nielson, Sr., Hendrick Neilson, Mattijas Neilson, and Neils Neilson, Jr. for each of them to have a plantation with a proporcon of meadow ground for hay for their cattle on a certain piece of land at Delaware scituate lyeing and being on the Verdrietige hooke, or corner of land so extending to ye stone hooke upon such condicion as other lands were there given and graunted as also obliedging them to build their houses neare unto one another and ye grant afore mentioned, being afterward that is to say, on ye fifteenth day of June, 1664 confirmed unto the persons aforenamed by those then in authority. Now for a further confirmacon unto them in their possession and enjoyment of ye premises know yee by vertue of ye comision and authority unto me given I have ratified confirmed and graunted and by these presents do ratify confirme and graunt unto Johan Hendricks, Neils Neilson Sr. Hendrick Neilson, Mattijas Neilson and Neils Neilson Jr their heirs, and assigns the afore recited plantacons and proporcon of meadow grounds and premises with all and singular the appertances to have and to hold ye said plantacon meadow ground and premises unto ye sd Johan Hendricks Neils Neilson Sr., Hendrick Neilson, Mattijas Neilson and Neils Neilson Jr., their heirs and assigns unto ye proper use and behoofe of the sd Johan Hendricks, Neils Neilson, Sr., Hendrick Neilson, Mattijas Neilson, and Neils Neilson Jr. their heirs and assigns forever, rendering and paying and &c. The patent is dated the eight day of January 1667.

Five bushels of wheat acknowledgment." (* pp. 123-124)

"A Patent graunted unto Mr. William Tom, for an Island at Delaware.

"Richard Nicolls Esq. .. makes knowne unto all Men by these presents, that in Consideration of the Good Service performed by Mr. William Tom at Delaware, I have thought fitt to give and Graunt, and by these presents do give Ratify and Confirme and Graunt, unto the said William Tom a certain Island with the Plantation thereupon, heretofore belonging unto Peter Alrichs, lying about seven miles below New Castle towards the Mouth of ye River, the said Island standing confiscated upon the Accompt of the said Peter Alrichs, who was in Hostility against his Majesty at ye reducing of the Fort at Delaware, And I do likewise hereby give and graunt unto the said William Tom, a certain piece of Meadow Ground or Valley, lying at the Mouth of the said River at Delaware, between Christine Creeke or Kill and Verdrechts Hooke, being bounded on the back side with a Creeke commonly called Brandywine Kill Conteining by Estimacion five hundred Acres, bee they more or less; As also a small Parcell of Land lying within the Towne, containing, about halfe an Acre of Ground Bounded on the South with the Mill, on the North by the High Way on the East the Strand, and on the West the Mart .. In Confirmation and testimony whereof, I have hereunto sett my Hand and Seale, at Fort James in New Yorke, the 20th day of June, in the 17th yeare of his Majesties Reigne, Anno Domini, 1665.

R. Nicolls." (* p.26)

1670 "An Order for Olle Olleson Niels Nielsen &c. to Enjoye ye benefitt of what is granted to them in their Patent.

"Upon ye Petition of Olle Olleson Niels Nielsen Senr. & ye rest concerned in yet Patent graunted by my Predecessor Coll. Richard Nicolls for each of them to have a Plantation with proportion of meadow ground for Hay for their Cattle on Verdrietiges or Trinity Hook at Delaware, for ye which they had a graunt before those parts were reduced to his Majesties Obedience, who Complayne that Mr. William Tom having by misinformation obteyned a Patent for all that Marsh or Meadow ground whereon they had their proportion, hath by Order of ye Court at Delaware forbad them to cut Hay or to make bridges for their Cattle to goe into that Marsh without his leave ye which without reliefe will prove much to their prejudice, having taken ye same into Consideration I doe thinke fitt to Order that ye said Olle Olleson Niels Nielsen & ye rest in ye said Patent Exprest shall Injoy ye benefit of what is granted them in their said Patent any Patent graunt or Order of Court made in favour of Mr. Tom to be Contrary notwithstanding. Given under my Hand at Fort James in New Yorke this 16th day of May 1670." (* pp. 24-25)

* Original Land Titles in Delaware, Commonly Known as The Duke of York Record, 1646-1679.

"Swedes to live in villages."

1657, June 12 (n.s.): "Gregorius Van Dyck, sheriff, appointed by the Swedes, who it appears were still governed in part by their own officers, presents his credentials and instructions to the director--general and council, dated 20th May last, on South River. He appears before them, and his petition is read, 'setting forth the necessity of concentration as soon as possible.' Council authorize the sheriff, and appoint commissaries, and command them to concentrate their houses, and place them in future in the form of a village or villages, either at Upland, Passyunk, Finland, Kinsessing, at the Verdietigehoeck, (the Doleful Corner,) or at such place as they may deem most convenient to their purpose, provided they previously notify the directors when they select any other spots than here specified." (* p.236)

* Hazard's Annals of Pennsylvania.

"'Verdrietige hoeck,' or corner of land, was also called Trinity Hook, lying between Shellpot and Stoney Creeks. 'Verdrietige' was a term derived from the Dutch 'verdrietigh,' signifying 'grievous' or 'tedious,' owing to the character of the navigation in approaching that point." (* p.15)

* Ashmead's History of Delaware County, Pa.

SUMMARY

Ashmead's explanation is not acceptable, because the streams in the vicinity of Verdrietige Hook were more navigable formerly than they are now and his translation of the name is not strictly literal.

Scharf's statement that "the place was known as the 'troublesome corner'" in 1662 is undoubtedly based on a translation of a Dutch record of that period.

It will be seen from the foregoing notes that verdrietig is a Dutch word for vexation or trouble and that the semi-autonomous colony of Finns and Swedes at Verdrietige or Trinity Hook was a source of trouble to the Dutch, hence it is obvious that Verdrietige Hook (Trouble, Troublesome, Vexation, or Dolesome Hook) was a derisive name applied by the Dutch to the troublesome colony of Finns and Swedes at Trinity Hook.

Wilm. Jr. 158
Folder: Names

LOCATION: Wilmington

Submitted by: J. SWEENEY October 26, 1937

Subject : NAMES OF PLACES; Verdrietige Hoeck — supplementary note

"Letter. William Beeckman to Director Stuyvesant ..

"Nobel, Honorable ..

"On the 11th inst. our men came back, who had taken the discharged soldiers in a canoe to Meggeckesiouw; they reported that the Sheriff van Sweeringen with 7 men in a sailboat overtook them in going up river about 3 leagues below Meggeckesjouw, where they laid to wait for the tide. The Sheriff called out to them, they should bring the run-away women on board his boat, whereupon ours answered 'If you want them, come and get them; there they are in the canoe.' Having declined to do so, the Sheriff ordered his men to make their fire-arms ready, which ours hearing and seeing, they did the same. I went up river immediately after their arrival and met the Sheriff near the 'troublesome corner' (Verdrietige Hoeck) on the river and protested ..

"New-Amstel
the 21st of June, 1662. WILH. BEECKMAN." (* Vol. XII, 384-5.)



* Documents Relating to the History of the Dutch and Swedish Settlements on the Delaware. Albany: The Argus Co., 1877.

C. Miss Eckman
Sweeney's Field
This copy for office file

LOCATION: Wilmington

Folder: Names + Meaning

Submitted by: J. SWEENEY September 27, 1937

Subject : "Black Cat's Kill."

"'The Black-Katt's kill' was a small creek which entered the Brandywine about a furlong below the rail-road bridge. It was formerly one of the outlets for the great body of water, which, on the recession of the tide, had to be discharged from the marsh below the old church. It is now (1846-JS) filled up and converted into grazing ground, but can still be traced by its 'reeds and rushes,' through all its sinuous course, to its former mouth in a small cove, on the south side of the Brandywine, nearly opposite a small two story brick house on Vandever's place. It is said to have taken its title from a transport ship called 'the Black Cat,' which came from Sweden about the year 1645, under Printz's administration, and which wintered in the creek that still bears its name."[1]

While absence of annotation leaves the foregoing statements of Ferris "out in the cold," Johnson's exhaustive work shows no Cat (or Black Cat) coming to New Sweden before 1649, when the outward-bound Swedish ship "Kattan" ("The Cat") was lost near Porto Rico.[2]

Acrelius, who was accepted as an authoritative writer by Ferris and who came in 1749 — 100 years after the Swedish Cat went on her last voyage — to serve as a church minister in Wilmington, wrote in his History of New Sweden, &c.:

> "Under Governor Printz, ships came to the colony in three distinct voyages. The first ship was the Black Cat, with amunition and merchandise for the Indians."[3]

In view of the known inaccuracy of Ferris and Acrelius, both of whom seem to have placed great reliance on tradition, it is difficult to accept the position to which their writings point; still, of course, the insignificant creek may have been either the Swedish Cat's Kill or the kill of a Dutch Cat that was at the West Indies in and about 1645.[4]

1. Ferris' History of the Original Settlements on the Delaware, 196
2. Johnson's Swedish Settlements on the Delaware, I: 267, 270, 278
3. Acrelius' History of New Sweden, &c., translated by Reynolds, 29
4. Documents Relative to the Colonial History of the State of New York, I: 163, 165, 166

Postscript: In the Swedish edition of Acrelius work (p.29) now in the Wilmington Institute Free Library the vessel is called Swarta Kattan and the capital letters (S,K) are in extra-dark print, therefore Swedish-English and English-Swedish dictionaries in the same library will show that Swarta Kattan has been properly translated as Black Cat.

Folder: Frances 112

LOCATION: Wilmington

Subject: Additional note on the "Black Cat's Kill."

Submitted by: J. SWEENEY October 5, 1937

A Dutch yacht called Cat captured a Spanish bark and took her into New Amsterdam in 1648, (* I:255); therefore, it is very likely that this Dutch Cat visited ports on the South River about the same time.



* Documents Relative to the Colonial History of the State of New York.

Joseph E. Schell

April 9, 1940

Cities and Towns
Wilmington
GOVT. FILE

CHANGE OF STREET NAMES

An ordinance to change the names of certain streets within this City.

Section 1:
Be it ordained, by the City Council of Wilmington, that the street known by the name of High Street, shall from and after the passage of this ordinance, be styled and called Fourth St.

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Queen | street | be | called | Fifth St. |
| Hanover | " | " | " | Sixth St. |
| Broad | " | " | " | Seventh St. |
| Kent | " | " | " | Eighth St. |
| Wood | " | " | " | Ninth St. |
| Chestnut | " | " | " | Tenth St. |
| Elizabeth | " | " | " | Eleventh St. |
| Dickinson | " | " | " | Twelfth St. |
| Franklin | " | " | " | Thirteenth St. |
| Washington St. | " | " | " | Fourteenth St. |
| Stidham St. | " | " | " | Fifteenth St. |

Section 2:
And be it further ordained, by the authority aforesaid, That wooden labels, with the names of the streets painted on them, so as plainly to be distinguishable, shall be put on at least two of the corners, that are now or shall hereafter be improved, diagonally, at every intersection of the said streets with Market street, the one on the east side of Market Street to have the word East prefixed to the name of the crossing street, and that on the west side to have the word West prefixed to the name of the crossing street in like manner.

Section 3:
Be it ordained, by the authority aforesaid, That any person or persons who shall take down, remove, deface or in any manner destroy the said labels or boards, shall for every such offence, forfeit and pay a fine of ten dollars.

Passed at the City Hall: December 31st, 1835.

Bibliography:
The Ordinances of the City of Wilmington, published by authority of City Council, Wilmington, Del., Johnson & Chandler, 1849, 240p - p.46,47.

SCHOOL HELD IN NEW CASTLE COURT HOUSE

"It is agreed by the Court that the North West wing of the Court House may be used for a School-House. In Consideration whereof Richard McWilliam Esqr. promiseth to pay into the Treasury of this County the sum of Six pounds P Annum for the same for the use of the Public. - And the Court do agree that the said Richard McWilliam shall have the South East Wing of the Court House for a Public Office at any Time he shall think proper to enter into the same And that the same may be occupied as a School-house this present Year (if the said Richard McWilliam shall direct, or chuse the same shall be so used) without and Consideration therefore."

November 1770.

From Sessions Docket, 1769-1775. Page 94.

Section II

Accumulation and protection of the school fund was conscientiously attended to from the time the act was passed. The first report of the Trustee, taken from the House Journal of 1797, contains enough interesting sidelights to warrant its reproduction in full:

"AGREEABLE to the act of Legislature, entitled,'An act to create a fund sufficient to establish schools in this state,' passed the ninth day of February, One Thousand Seven Hundred and Ninety-six; the State Treasurer begs leave to represent that some time in the month of July last, he received information from the Secretary of the State of Delaware, that there was in his hands about the sum of Six Hundred Dollars, which he had received on account of marriage licenses; in consequence thereof I immediately purchased three shares of stock in the Bank of Delaware, at Two Hundred and Thirty Dollars per share, with the instalments paid up, that on the fifteenth of December last I received from the Cashier of said Bank the sum of Thirty-four Dollars, which was declared by the Directors to be due on the above stock for the last six months; and that on the fourth of this instant January, I received from the Secretary the further sum of Four Hundred and Fifty Dollars, which sum, together with the balance remaining in my hands after paying for the said stock, shall be applied agreeable to the direction of the above recited act, as soon as the nature of the case will admit

of. You will observe in the report of the Auditor of Accounts, that the sum of Eight Hundred Dollars was received by me from the Secretary, on the tenth of November last, which sum includes the Six Hundred Dollars above mentioned.

"The statement hereto annexed will, perhaps, be better comprehended than in the manner stated above."

Dr. The State of Delaware, in account with Thomas Sipple, Trustee of the fund to establish schools.

| | | | Dolls. | Cts. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1796 | | | | |
| July 15. | To cash paid Frederick Craig, for three shares of stock in the Bank of Delaware, at 230 dolls. per share - - - | | 690 | 00 |
| Cr. | | | | |
| | By cash of James Booth, esquire, 10th Nov. 1796, - | Dolls. 800 | | |
| | By dividend received at Banks, 15th Dec. - - - - - | 34 | | |
| | By cash of James Booth, esquire, 4th Jan. 1797 - - | 450 | | |
| | | | 1284 | 00 |
| | | | 594 | 00 |

"The State Treasurer begs leave further to represent, that in consequence of the commissions to the Collectors having been reduced from Nine to Seven and a Half Dollars per centum, he was put to some

difficulty to get good persons to accept the appointment in some of the hundreds throughout the state; he therefore hopes that if a tax is struck for the present year, you will take this subject under consideration, and do that which in your wisdom appears right. There is one other circumstance which your Treasurer thinks merits consideration, in order to expedite the coming of the monies into the treasury. It is made the duty of each Collector to obtain a certificate from under the hands of two Justices of the Peace, stating that he has made use of all legal means to collect the money from the persons in his hundred whom he returns as delinquents; this certificate must then be presented to the Levy Court Commissioners for their approbation, of course not one collector in the state can make a final close of his accounts at the time specified in the law, and it also furnishes them with a very plausible reason why they do not pay up.

"Your Treasurer is of opinion that if that part of the law which obliges the collectors to present the certificate to the levy court commissioners was omitted, the taxes would be sooner settled.

"The above observations and statements are respectfully submitted.

"THOMAS SIPPLE, State Treasurer

"Treasury Office, 11th Jan. 1797."

At the next session (1797) three changes were made. One amended the method of investing the fund. Another, because of constitutional requirements, allowed the proceeds of marriage and tavern licences to be borrowed to pay the salaries of judges and the Chancellor, and repaid from arrearage receipts. The third assigned to the school fund revenue from sale of vacant lands.

Laws of Delaware Vol. II, p. 1296-1298

Ibid. 1352-1355

In 1805, Governor David Hall, in his message to the Legislature, recommended that steps be taken promptly to apply the school fund to its intended use, since ignorance among the poorer residents in sections which had no access to local schools was already a serious problem.

In 1806, 1813, and 1822, the act of 1796, as amended in 1797, was reenacted-in 1822 without time limit, So far as can be learned, its provisions remained in force until the Act of 1921.

Weeks, op. cit. p. 20
School Laws of Delaware 1921-Sec. 1, Act. 58

Although from 1803 there were sporadic attempts to apply the income from the school fund to the assistance of schools, it was not until 1817 that any action was taken. The legislature of that year appointed trustees for each hundred to superintend the education of its poor children; empowered the Trustee of the School Fund to turn over to each county treasurer $1000 to be spent for instruction in

Weeks, op. cit. p. 20-22

reading, writing, and arithmetic for those "Obviously unable to receive the rudiments of an English education from any private or other source." Any surplus was to be returned to the county treasurer by January 1, 1818. The maximum for each hundred was set in the act (highest in New Castle - $180 for Christiana; for Kent, $365 for Murderkill; for Sussex, $155 for Broadkill.)

s of Del.
17. p. 252-
5

The law was reenacted with revisions in 1818. "The limit for three months instruction was fixed at $2.50' and a like sum in proportion for any longer or shorter term' ". Careful records were to be kept. Four chartered but privately initiated and operated pauper schools were given the privilege of sharing in the State fund. Weeks reproduces a report, SUSSEX COUNTY POOR SCHOOL EXPENDITURES FOR 1818 which shows the distribution of $767.02. He concludes from the existing records that "the purpose of the legislators was to promote the organization of schools which should draw their support entirely from public funds."

m
. cit.
-36

A supplementary act in 1821 permitted private schools to share in the fund.

> "That for each and every poor white child taught at any incorporated or other regular English school within this State, and for whose tuition the teacher thereof

> can in no other way receive compensation by reason of the indigence of such child and his or her relatives and friends, one dollar per quarter, or four dollars annually, shall be paid out of any unappropriated money in the fund for establishing schools within this State."

Weeks comments:

> "Thus it seems not only was the education of the poor in Delaware to be branded as such, but it was to be done by contract at so much per head."

The indictment is justified, but one must recall that all the surrounding states had charity schools before Delaware did, and kept them longer.

The legislative sessions from 1822 to 1829 inclusive ordered payment of $3,856.51 (but see below for another figure) to schools and individuals for tuition.

Contemporary accounts of the operation of the law, so far as they have been found in research for this paper, refer only to the financial side of the program. There is little to show what sort of schools were actually put into practice, or how they were received. A few later references, made in defending the public schools adopted after 1829 from those who wanted to go back to free education for paupers only, indicate that they were extremely unpopular, poorly attended, and inefficient. A report of a legislative committee in 1835, printed Feb. 3, 1835, in the Delaware Gazette and Watchman, says that schools for paupers alone had to be supplied in almost every district, or some children were still deprived of their right to schooling. Except in towns, however, there were not enough eligibles to support a satisfactory school for them alone. When poor pupils were admitted to private schools, and the teachers paid from the school fund, other complications arose, and such a plan was never satisfactory. In many

places, there was no school available. A great majority of those who were too poor to pay private tuition rates for their children were too proud to accept charity. Willard Hall, in his report to the legislature explaining his free school draft, gives the same reasons for the failure of the charity school plan and speaks of the experience of a man who had tried to enroll the eligible students in his neighborhood; he had found the attitude almost universal that schooling, under these terms, was a mere luxury that one could accept or reject as a matter of taste.

A second type of education offered free of cost to individuals of the poorer classes was the Sunday school, introduced into Delaware in 1817. At the beginning, these were not religious institutions ~~at all~~, but primary schools giving instruction in reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic to children and young adults who were employed during the week. The main idea in many cases was to keep adolescents out of mischief on their one free day.

The first of these schools, according to Scharf, was opened in 1816 by E. I. du Pont and his daughter, Mrs. Victorine Bauduy, in a building near the powder mills along the Brandywine. It offered both religious and secular instruction to the young people of the community, particularly the young boys employed in the plant. The school, says Scharf,

ol. II
. 892

was so successful that it was incorporated in January 1817, as the Brandywine Manufacturers' Sunday School. At first the project was to be financed by subscription only; by 1821, however, a law had been passed authorizing the payment of not more than $.20 yearly for each white scholar taught at a Sunday school, provided no county received more than $200 annually for the purpose. Funds were to be raised by taxation. Weeks, following Scharf, reports that to and including 1829, twenty-nine such schools, nearly all of them in New Castle and Sussex counties, had received grants.

27

The transition from mainly or entirely secular schools to centers for religious instruction, and the public schools' development to the point where they filled the social function of the early Sunday schools, ~~was~~ were such ~~a~~ gradual process as that the subsidy has never been repealed; a few Sunday schools still accept it (1939).

It is true ~~the~~ controversy over Sunday schools' status started shortly after public day schools began to be organized. Correspondence on the subject, indicating both their purpose in the eyes of their friends, and the objections raised against them, appeared in the Gazette & Watchman for February 1835.

1. Gazette & Watchman Feb. 20, 1835, p. 2 col. 2 summarized

A letter signed "Philo," and run under the head "Union of Church and State," opposes Sunday schools for these reasons:

Taxes are collected by law, and, if tax receipts are appropriated to any religious object whatever, it constitutes in

fact a union of church and state. We pride ourselves on the liberty of conscience allowed under our government: We can maintain this only if the government itself remains free from any official sectarian committments.

Sunday schools carried on with public funds should teach only reading, writing, arithmetic, and "other useful knowledge capable of demonstration." With such information as a foundation, the child as he matures can accept whatever religious teaching seems to him true.

The various sects naturally attempt to win the allegiance of their young people. This they have every right to do ~~from their own funds~~ at their own expense; the State will defend them from interference. But tax money must under no circumstances be used for religious instruction.

A second unsigned letter in the same column is summarized below:

The laws of Delaware contain a provision for schools for the education of children on the Sabbath, but make no special provision for religious education. These schools are to be supported by tax funds raised in the usual way. The law has been regularly enforced since 1821, and the citizens had paid $200 annually in each county for the support of <u>religious</u> Sunday schools.

Is this legal? "Is it not apparent that they are the great machine of the clergy to rivet their opinions on the infant mind before it attains age and strength to think for itself?---Would it not be wise to petition the legislature against making the specified payments unless the schools refrain from religious instruction, or possibly to bring suit against such payment as already illegal."

A later issue ~~*****~~ carries this notice:

. 24, 1835
2, col. 3

> "A Sunday School Teacher" was received too late for this day's paper. He shall be heard in our next, provided our compositors are able to decypher ~~(sic)~~ his autograph (which is more than we can do ourselves.) otherwise we must ask him to transcribe it.

~~*****~~

Apparently the compositors did make out the writing for Feb. 27, 1835 in which

. 27, 1835
2, col. 5

In a long letter ~~to the~~ Gazette and Watchman, "A Sunday School Teacher" defends the Sunday schools on the following grounds:

They are not "the great instrument of the clergy to rivit ~~(sic)~~ their opinions on the infant mind before it attains age and strength to think for itself."....The object of Sunday schools is to teach children, and such adults as are deprived of the opportunity of attending other schools, to spell, read, write, cypher ~~(sic)~~, and recite, with religious instruction." Where classes are held in schools, writing and ciphering are

taught, but where churches or other meeting-places not provided with desks are used, they must be omitted. "The scholars are instructed in the religion of the Bible". The explanation which follows suggests that the instruction was more in morals than in dogma.

The clergy had little or nothing to do, in the Sunday schools with which the writer was familiar, with their management. They were conducted by laymen, usually responsible and respected citizens of their communities.

Those who objected to Sunday schools on the grounds that they involved an improper application of religion ~~are~~ were really opposed to religion itself.

> "They would sap the foundation of our moral system....destroy the beautiful fabric, and point us to the theatre, the gambling house, and the brothel for lessons of morality. They would destroy the Bible and disseminate Pain's Age of Reason ~~(sic)~~. They would give us teachers versed in Owen theoligy ~~(sic)~~- turn our churches into halls of science-destroy the marriage ties, remove the restraints, loose the passions of mankind, and degrade the fairest portion of God's creation to the level of the brute."
>
> If they knew what religion is, they would not begrudge the ten cents per scholar that is received from the Levy Court once a year, and which goes to purchase books for the education of Sunday school pupils.
>
> A SUNDAY SCHOOL TEACHER

Three charity schools (so indexed in the Laws of Delaware), were incorporated by the legislature ~~during the period~~ before 1820, the Newcastle Female Benevolent Society, and the Female Harmony Society of Wilmington, both on January 28, 1817, and the Female Union Society of Smyrna, Jan. 22, 1818. All of these were for the benefit of pauper or orphan children, and were to be non-sectarian in management and admission requirements. All three received funds under the pauper school act, from time to time.

An African School Society in existence from at least 1814 was incorporated in 1824, — check for colored children, but since it never shared in either the poor school or Sunday school funds, it cannot be classified with them, and is important merely as an early indication of interest in the education of Negroes.

The charity school represented a perversion of the fund started to encourage the foundation of free schools open to all; the Sunday school was a response to certain labor and social conditions of the early nineteenth century. As the situation that had fostered it altered, it changed its character to fill the purely private function of religious instruction. Its only descendants are in the very distant collateral line of adult and continuation classes, springing in the twentieth century from a different set of circumstances.

Still another type of organization offered people of limited means an opportunity to educate their children--the subscription school. This was of course not new in Delaware;

the early Swedish congregations had used the method, as had most of the later groups of settlers. It did, however, flourish in some neighborhoods during the period under discussion. In 1798-99, for example, at least three small stone buildings were erected in Brandywine Hundred alone, as community schools.

The history of Forwood school, on Silverside road near Marsh, is the best preserved. A deed, executed May 19, 1799, transfers about a half acre of land from "Richard Justison and Ann, his wife, to John and Thomas Forwood and Thomas Bird, Jr." The property is described, and

> "transferred to their heirs and assigns forever, in Trust nevertheless and for the purpose of having a schoolhouse erected thereon for the benefit and accomodation of the families residing or to reside near the premises, and to or for no other use, intent, or purpose whatever, Provided always that if hereafter any difficulty shall arise concerning the application of the premises to the purpose aforesaid, the legislature of the State shall have full power and authority by law to make such provision for ensuring the benefit of the Trust aforesaid as may be by them Judged most expedient. -- Received fifty cents in full payment."

In August the neighbors gathered and erected a tight little stone structure which, with slight alterations and occasional repairs, served five generations over a hundred and

forty years of active use as a school building. Contributions were taken through the neighborhood to pay the teacher's salary; he taught whatever subjects he could. Sometimes an excellent instructor would be found, offering the young adults of the community inducement to attend during the winter months; at others, someone would be hired who was not competent to teach the babies their ABCs.

A year earlier, 1798, a similar schoolhouse was built near Shellpot, also in Brandywine Hundred, by members of the Weldin family. Likewise in 1798, a piece of land now within the borders of Wilmington (Vandever Ave. near Market), was deeded by John Welsh and John Dickinson to trustees for the erection of a school. According to Charles Palmer's history of Brandywine Academy, the deed contained phrasing in regard to use of the property identical to that found in the Forwood document quoted above.

Manlove Hayes' Reminiscences tell, in the following extract of a subscription school near Dover, about 1817:

> The subscription school in Little Creek Neck in the days of my early boyhood was of the most primitive order, a log house sixteen by sixteen feet in dimensions, badly lighted, and heated with a ten-plate stove in the center. There were plain benches with no backs, a passage between them to separate the boys from the girls, and a small platform and desk for the teacher. This constituted the interior arrangement and furniture of the first country school I attended. The teachers were generally poorly

> paid, though perhaps sufficiently well for their inefficient services. They were frequently domineering, and sometimes brutal, not sparing the rod, and often inflicting punishment when not deserved. When about twelve years old, I suffered a severe whipping because I would not cry at the first blow; this was considered obstinacy and angered my teacher, a brutal fellow, whose name was Wills. He was soon after soundly thrashed in a drunken brawl, and to my great relief, lost his job.

It has not been possible to determine just how many neighborhood schools similar to these there were scattered throughout the State in the years while the school fund was being accumulated.[1] Schools mentions some in every county before 1800. In an account of Delaware schools printed in 1878, Superintendent Groves said that fifty years previously there were probably not more than twenty schoolhouses in the entire State. In view of the fact that proven records show three in a territory only a few miles square, just north of Wilmington, erected as community enterprises in the space of a little over a year at the end of the eighteenth century, the estimate seems very low. It is possible, of course, that many schools sprang up at the time public education was first an issue, as an integral part of the movement that resulted in the Constitutional provision of 1792 and the law of 1796, but were unable to survive unaided. By 1825 there may well have been far fewer schools than at the beginning of the century. It may be true that the State was ripe for public education at the time

the national government was an exciting new experiment, and that poverty or negligence caused the opportunity to be lost; a generation that grew up in the tradition of education as an aristocratic privilege then had to be sold anew the idea of community schools.

V. E. Shaw
April 22, 1940

EDUCATION IN DELAWARE
1792-1830



Section III

Free School Law

In 1803 the town of Glasgow had asked the legislature for assistance from the school fund, but did not receive it. In 1805, the Governor, David Hall, recommended that steps be taken to establish neighborhood schools with the help of the State fund, but his suggestion was ignored. At the same session, petitions from "256 inhabitants of New Castle and Sussex Counties, praying the legislature to pass an act to enable trustees to open schools and to appropriate the school funds," were refused even a committee hearing. Two years later (1807), Governor Nathaniel Mitchell referred respectfully to the desirability of general education and reported that the fund was increasing to the point where it might soon be used. Until 1813 the subject was ignored; then Governor Joseph Haslet pleaded for an appropriation at least large enough to permit the opening of schools for short periods each year, so that the residents might learn at least reading and writing. This he considered possible without taking the entire fund. He believed better schools than the State could then afford were needed eventually, but "the present generation should not live exclusively for posterity, but should avail itself of the advantages which it possesses for its own improvement." Nothing came of the proposal, and he renewed it the following year, again without success. In his second message it is clear that he had in mind subscription schools with enough subsidy to make them feasible and efficient. The only

result of the discussion was the poor-school legislation referred to above.

Governor Stout in 1821 urged the establishment of academies and a college. Governor John Collins in 1822 returned to the effort to found a genuine system of public elementary schools. He admitted that the fund would not of itself support schools, but insisted it was sufficient to mean the difference between life and death for good community subscription schools. He recommended that the State be districted at once, and that, in the interest of the general educational needs of "the whole community", diversion of school funds to institutions for paupers alone be stopped. He was ahead of his legislature, and nothing happened.

For two years the subject was dropped. Governor Charles Thomas reopened it with an eloquent plea for schools as a part of the machinery of public defense, and suggested "a small tax" to defray the part of the cost the districts would have to meet. His arguments and some of his phrasing suggest that he was familiar with Coram's views on the subject.

A legislative committee agreed with him that schools were desperately needed, that some communities had none at all, and that many others maintained institutions almost worse than none. But they insisted that the funds were still inadequate to start a sound program, and that a failure might discredit the whole theory. They pointed to the poor-school experience as an example of considerable expense with little to show for it, because the money, except in a few towns, had been spread so thin that few children had received instruction of any real value. The same thing would probably

happen if a tiny dividend were given districts for general use. They believed the fund should not be touched for at least another eight years, when $50 yearly might be available for each of the estimated 300 schools the State needed. They suggested the It might after all be more desirable to limit ~~its use~~ use of the fund to charity schools.

The committee found it impossible to believe either that the legislature of 1796 had ever hoped the fund would grown to the point where it alone would support all the centers required to train the children, or that their fathers contemplated taxation to supplement the income from the fund. It argued that $2,000,000 would be necessary for the first alternative, and a tax of $80,000 annually--more than all county, poor and road taxes combined--for the latter. It regarded subscription schools, assisted by a somewhat larger income than the fund yet afforded, as the only solution to the problem. Again the matter lay fallow.

Judge Willard Hall, probably the most influential single personality in the history of the public school movement in Delaware, first enters the scene during the period when only the governors' messages remain to show that some residents of the State still recalled the free school proposals of the late 1700's. He settled at Dover in 1803, when he was twenty-three years of age. The Dictionary of American Biography gives his birthplace as Westford, Mass., and his family as one of those already in New England by 1650. He himself was an honor graduate of Harvard in 1795, and later read law. He was admitted to the bar in New Hampshire in 1803, but, deciding that New England already had all the aspiring young lawyers it

needed, he looked around for a less crowded field. Delaware was the spot he chose, according to one story because of a ~~letter~~ speech of James A. Bayard that came to his attention. It is true that when he arrived in Dover a month after his admission to the New Hampshire bar, he had letters of introduction to Bayard and Caesar Rodney. With these credentials he was easily admitted to practice, ~~here.~~ Before many years he was active in politics, serving as secretary of state, 1812-1814, followed by two terms, 1817-1821, as representative in Congress. In 1821 he again became secretary of state, and two years later was elected to the State senate. He served only a few months in that capacity, however, for in May 1823 he was appointed judge of the United States district court, a position he held until within a few days of his ninety-first birthday. He was almost ninety-five at the time of his death in May 1875.

During his active political life, Hall was a Democrat (the official label of the party at that period was Republican); his personal philosophy, as it was reflected in his writing on education, was fanatically democratic. His conviction that properly informed public opinion could be trusted, and that persuasion and voluntary cooperation were the only means that could achieve permanent results in a self-governing country, amounted to an obsession.

The Dictionary of American Biography ranks him as somewhat conservative in his judicial outlook, and deeply concerned with

sanctity of the law, but even more controlled by a profound sense of justice and a lack of prejudice. It adds that in his more than forty-eight years as a Federal judge "only one of his decisions--- was seriously questioned," and that one reflected a viewpoint the Supreme Court later sustained in an appeal in a similar case.

Hall was first officially connected with the public school movement in 1822, when he is said to have influenced Governor Collins in regard to his message to the legislature on the subject. Probably he had been interested in the matter long before that, for a letter of his written in 1865 to Henry Barnard, and quoted by Weeks (p. 21), describes the difficulties Delawareans, even those of comfortable means, experienced in the early decades of the century in finding teachers for their children. The whole tone of the letter is that of a man who had been intimately concerned with the problem. He himself had one child, a daughter, so he spoke as a parent as well as a public-spirited citizen.

From 1829 until advanced age forced him to limit his activities, he was active in supporting public schools in Delaware. The detailed story of his work and his opinions in this field belongs in later sections.

In 1829, Governor Charles Polk in his annual message to the legislature revived the free school discussion that had lapsed for five years. He told the Assembly efforts were afoot to persuade the Federal Government to assign public lands for the support of schools in the older States as it was doing for new ones in the West. This assistance, he cautioned, was only a possibility; Delaware must make provisions of its own for public education. Though

in theory almost everyone favored public schools, "it cannot be said that we have ever realized the benefit of a single practical effort to establish a general system of education throughout the state."

He urged the lawmakers to attack the school problem at once, since interest in education was growing less every year, and many who had once championed the school fund were convinced it would never be used for its proper purpose, and were resigned to seeing it diverted. If its income were not promptly distributed to schools, it was almost certain to be used for something else.

The fund had been accumulating for thirty-two years, and amounted to $168,773.40; income and current receipts averaged approximately $9,255.50 yearly. Though this was not enough to finance schools, the Governor believed it was sufficient, possibly with an added special appropriation, to encourage subscription schools in the districts. Such a plan, he hoped, might bring the gifts and legacies, for particular schools, that the State had hoped might be offered the general fund, but which had never been forthcoming.

Items in the House Journal for 1829 continue the story of the enactment of the first real school law in the State. The first day of the session, Jan. 6, a committee was appointed to study the problem. On January 9, its members, with consent of the House, asked Willard Hall to draft a law in accordance with the recommendations of the Governor's message. On Jan. 24, ~~he~~ Hall submitted a tentative bill to the committee on education, along with a detailed discussion summarized below of its provisions:

"The object of the bill, "he insisted, "cannot be overrated," since in a democracy the prosperity of the state depends upon the wisdom and integrity of the voters.

Hall echoed the Governor's warning that free schools were desperately needed at once, that interest in education was steadily declining, and that every year that passed made more difficult and unlikely the establishment of public schools along the lines originally intended. True, the fund was not large enough to support the needed centers alone, and would not grow to such proportions for at least another twenty years. Possibly this was a fortunate circumstance.

"These schools cannot answer their intended purpose unless the people make them their own concern. ---On no other ground will the people feel their value or avail themselves of their benefits. --- Such a system cannot exist unless the people bear a main part in supporting it."

The experience of England and Scotland, the Judge contended, validated his position. In England, where huge sums had been given as outright gifts for education, most of the money had been diverted to other purposes, and "the people rarely anywhere feel the benefit of a free school." "In Scotland, on the other hand, where far less had ever been given or appropriated, but the people made schools an important personal concern, "the children are all educated." Delaware had had a similar experience with charity schools. They were not regarded as a community enterprise, but as a contemptuous gift, and were ignored.

The main purpose of the school fund, as Hall understood it, was not to support a system of itself, but to turn public attention to schools, and give enough assistance to make local efforts effective.

He believed that taxation was the only sound means of financing public schools. There was no question of the right to tax for such a

purpose; a majority could levy funds for any purpose they thought wise. The most satisfactory method to use in raising funds had ~~been~~ proved a difficult problem.

Judge Hall ~~He realized that~~ the simple real property tax as a base for school revenue ~~is open to serious objections~~, and, in his efforts to evolve a fair and reliable substitute, made a suggestion that foreshadows the philosophy - though not the method - of the income tax. In explaining the various provisions of his draft law to the legislature, he wrote: "My first opinion was that the tax should be imposed upon personal rates only - making a capitation tax exclusively." But, since assessing bodies levied a higher personal rate against a man without taxable real estate than upon a property owner, such a basis was unequal. Yet real estate was already heavily taxed for other public needs. Hall proposed a tax list based both upon a personal property list and the rental value of real estate, and concluded: "The matter of taxation is submitted. I do not know that I have taken a just view of this subject. It is important."

He believed an unpaid superintendent might be "useful in drawing attention to this matter, and in aiding execution of the act." *

* Weeks, p. 38-39, has a gross misreading of this entire section; he construes it as the Committee's discussion, though it is signed by Hall, and freely uses the pronoun I. The entire meaning is thereby distorted.

On February 4, 1829, the proposed school law was reported with amendments after consideration by the House sitting as a committee of the whole. Two days later the amended version came up for vote.

Many of the changes, as indicated in the Journal, are unintelligible without a copy of the original, since they read simply, "delete from -- to --". Most of those that are clear were comparatively minor points of school administration, districting, and similar items. A few, however, were vital. The entire proposal for taxation was discarded. To indicate its nature we have only Hall's summary above, and a comment he wrote years later on the flyleaf of a bound copy of the Reports of the New Castle County School Conventions, 1837-49, (*1-footnote now in the possession of the Historical Society of Delaware):

> "The original provision was that when a district voted to raise a sum of money for the school of the district, if the sum were not made up by subscription or otherwise in four weeks, the school committee should proceed to levy the same by tax. That provision was stricken out by the General Assembly and the bill passed without it. It was afterward introduced by subsequent act of the legislature, but in a very lame manner, and the system has always been lame on this account."

Another amendment liberalized the curriculum. The original program had confined the schools to "reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, and the lower branches of

mathematics." This was changed to read, "reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and such brances as the (school) committee shall consider necessary to be taught in their districts." Although its immediate effect may well have been to make the list of subjects offered in many sections narrower than originally intended, the change laid the basis upon which public high schools could grow gradually without any additional legal skirmishes.

On February 9, 1829, the amended version passed the House, was introduced in the Senate for concurrence the following day, and on February 12, finally accepted by both houses with an additional amendment repealing the "Poor children" provisions of the acts of 1817, 1818, 1821, 1822, and 1824.

Willard Hall, when he drafted the act, had tried to keep it easy for the ordinary citizen to understand, as short as it could be without omitting necessary detail, and free of points that would lead to technical attacks in court. A brief outline follows:

Five commissioners were appointed by the levy court of each county to lay out school districts, approximately four miles square in rural sections, and in towns, of whatever size seemed "just, having respect to the population." The commissioners were to determine the number of schools in operation, the numbers of pupils enrolled, the wages paid teachers, and an estimate of the number of youths between 5 and 21 years of age.

Voters might meet annually at any appointed place in their district on the second Monday of October, to elect by ballot a clerk and two commissioners, and to determine how much money was to be solicited in the district for the support of a free school. Special meetings might be held as required by the business of the district; anyone entitled to vote for members of the general assembly was an eligible school voter.

The three elected officials were to act as a school committee with power to select a site for a school, erect and maintain a building, provide a school from the first of November and as long thereafter as funds would permit, handle funds, employ teachers, and perform any other acts required to operate a school. In employing teachers, they were to consider no candidate whom they did not "have just ground to believe of good moral character," and capable of teaching the subjects required in the district. Women might be employed during seasons when only the little children could attend, and need be proficient only in reading and writing.

Income from the school fund was to be divided equally among the three counties, each of which should give identical shares to every district which complied with the law. ~~and each third to be distributed equally among the districts.~~ A district could receive only such part of its share as it had matched from local funds, and each, through its school committee, must settle annually with the auditor, who should sit in each county at a stated time. Any district which failed to meet its obligations should forfeit its dividend for the next year.

Schools were to be free to all white residents between 5 and 21 years of age, ~~children.~~ Each district was to be a corporation with the usual powers. The Governor

was to appoint a superintendent of free schools for each county, annually, who was to serve as an advisory and liason official. He received no pay other than reimbursement for actual expenses, and had no authority.

It had taken almost forty years from the time they were first authorized in Delaware to set the machinery for genuine public schools clumsily in motion. The period was marked by certain curious coincidences. The first movement toward public education had apparently crystallized around the work of the brilliant Coram; a bill which embodied his theories of a democratic school system, but made no satisfactory provision for supporting it, was introduced into the assembly by a member from Sussex county. Coram died, and the sponsor of the School Fund bill moved on to the United States Senate. Though the fund was honestly administered, it grew slowly, and gradually interest in schools, at least as an immediate, practical possibility, died out, apparently for want of leadership. From 1814 to 1822, interest in the question was again aroused under the stimulus of Willard Hall and certain of the governors. Though "poor school" legislation had crept in to pervert the earlier idea, real public schools still had their champions; a law intended to encourage subscription schools was introduced in 1822. It failed, however, and its backer, Hall, withdrew from State politics to accept a Federal appointment; again the free school idea lagged for lack of influential leadership. By 1829, its friends were convinced that they must use the school funds at

once or lose them to pork-barrel projects, and succeeded, again under Hall's leadership, in forcing through a permissive law. This bill, like that of 1796, was introduced by a Sussex member. The schools it authorized, though unsupervised and poorly financed, were thoroughly democratic in spirit.

The geography of school thought and legislation in this period is curious. Of the four men intimately connected with successful efforts to further public schools, three, Wells, Hall, and Coram, came to Delaware as adults. Coram and Hall, who supplied the philosophy upon which Delaware schools are founded, were both residents of Wilmington at the time their influence made itself apparent; both Wells and Layton were delegates from Sussex county when they led the legislative battles to put school legislation on the statues.

During the rest of the century, and especially the next forty years, the public school system was to have a checkered existence as its enemies sought to discredit it and its friends to remedy the weaknesses of the original law.

File S-640

LOCATION - Statewide

State Project

Submitted by: Ellen Samworth

Date: July 9, 1936

"Brief review of Delaware Education"

A survey of the history of education reveals an early provision for an educational fund by setting aside tavern and marriage licenses. This provision made in 1796 gave a fund that grew slowly but in 1817, $1,000 was apportioned to each of the three counties. This was not acceptable because it was designated for poor children. An act of 1822 made matters worse by designating the fund for the use of children of indigent parents. This was immediately dubbed the pauper fund and children benefitting by it were made the butt of their schoolmates' ridicule. The people refused to use the fund and in 1829 a law was passed that forever removed the stigma from the public school law.

The law of 1829 required the counties to be divided into districts and the school fund to be divided equally among these districts provided the district raised a fund equal to the apportionment. Then the sum raised was reduced to be one-half the apportionment, then made subject to the will of the majority of the voters, then made $25 per district, then in 1861 made $100 in Kent County, $75 in New Castle and $50 in Sussex County.

Every law passed for fifty years was an amendment to this 1829 law which remained the basic law. One serious flaw in the law was the creation of small school districts with power to set, and to collect the tax, to make the basis of the tax the rental value of property instead of the real value, to determine for themselves whether they would have a good school, or poor school,

or no school. (Some districts voted no school throughout a generation).

Much school legislation was passed in the next fifty years, mostly local in character. Negro education was sadly neglected. By Actof the General Assembly they were permitted to tax their own property 50 cents on a hundred dollars and to impose a tax on dogs, using their own tax proceeds to pay for their own schools. This means they paid out of their own pockets for more than half of the poor educational facilities they maintained.

The Act of 1861 was most constructive as legislation went for it required that every child should receive a common school education in the English branches, changing the district apportionment for $100, thus doing away with voting no schodl year after year.

From 1861 to the present time education continued to have an important place in the messages of the Governors and in the minds of the people but so firmly were the people wedded to local authority, and so much did they fear centralization that education from the beginning to 1913 was a triple function parallel in the three counties under county superintendents, but not coordinated into a State system except from 1875 to 1887 when there were State superintendents. Besides these three parallel but not coordinated county systems the Negro administration was a separate function.

In 1913 a reorganized State board of education had as their executive officer a State Commissioner of education, and with his aid, in addition to the help of every civic body in the State, and with the findings and recommendations of a commission of

report

representative citizens, a new ~~era~~ opened in 1919 when a school code was passed establishing a State Department of Education with laws enacted for compulsory attendance, consolidation of schools, transportation of pupils, and with ample income to support a progressive system of education that is a far cry from the "good English education" of 1829.

The new code of 1919 was bitterly protested by a public not yet ready for so great a stride forward, and its most ardent lay supporter, Mr. Pierre S. duPont, who had been brought into touch with public education in Delaware through an organization of civic minded Delawareans organized in the General Service Board of Delaware from which grew the Service Citizens of Delaware of which Mr. duPont was president. At this time of opposition to the new code Mr. duPont abandoned his usual business to others and threw himself whole-heartedly into advocating a new code for Delaware schools.

It would have been impossible for an agricultural State like Delaware, with its' limited area and small population to finance the changes the new code called for, but Mr. duPont had already advanced large sums which were to be administered by a trust which Mr. duPont had already incorporated, The Delaware School Auxiliary. After a great campaign of education for education, the new code with some amendments passed at a special session of the General Assembly called March 3, 1920.

The responsibility of the free school system is now the responsibility of a bi-partisan State Board of Education. The State Treasurer is the custodian of all school funds. The State Board prepares the budget, presenting it to the Governor, dis-

tributing the funds but having no power either to levy or collect taxes. It has power to transport pupils, paying the cost of same from State appropriations.

Separate schools are maintained for white and colored pupils with separate boards of trustees, except in the special districts which manage their own local schools, and the City of Wilmington where all schools are under the Board of Education of Wilmington.

Since the new budget went into effect practically every school building in the State has been replaced or remodeled and where the replacing has not yet been done plans are under consideration. The cost of new colored schools to replace every one then in existence has been borne by Mr. duPont alone. Architectural, engineering, and accounting, and supervisory costs for other schools have been met by him. Before the State program has been finished more than ten million dollars for new schools will have been spent of which sum, Mr. duPont alone has given more than three million, five hundred thousand dollars.

Time and space here are not sufficient to tell of the improved teacher service throughout the entire State. Of the advance from the three R's, not to the seven point achievements in education, but to the ten cardinals of education for a full life. It is gratifying to realize that out of a clouded past where we walked, we now march jubilantly in the first ten states educationally. As an official of the United States Department of Education remarked, "It is doubtful if any State in the Union surpasses Delaware in its' work for a fuller life."

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ESTABLISHMENT OF INDEPENDENT FREE SCHOOLS IN THE COUNTIES, 1830-1860

~~Early free school history in Delaware, is the story of efforts to establish local schools in the districts, to maintain them in the face of indifference, hostility, and unwillingness to meet their expenses; then of gradual attempts to enlarge the curriculum, improve methods, obtain better teachers and equipment, and finally, toward the end of the pioneer period, of a movement toward closer supervision and toward providing better housing. During the entire thirty years there was a continuous, and largely unsuccessful, effort to have the legislature provide a sounder method of support.~~

~~The exact number of schools in operation in the State in 1830, and the proportion of free and pay institutions among them is not recorded.~~ The survey of existing schools ordered by the School Law is, however, on file *1 for New Castle county, and the Auditor's Report *2 gives some facts for other ~~sections.~~

In New Castle county there was a school population of upwards of 4,947 (several districts omitted the census), with a school enrollment of at least 2,042. Forty-six schools are listed in the county, and thirty-six in Wilmington, most of them private. Of the Wilmington

*1 H. J., 1831;

*2 p. 211-215; cf. Table I for page references.

schools, a Sisters of Charity foundation and a non-sectarian institution were entered as "free." In the county, a large Sunday school and one other were so designated. There were in addition fifteen schools apparently supported by contribution, since their teachers received a quarterly contract wage rather than tuition from individual scholars.

This method of providing schooling was firmly established in Brandywine Hundred, where seven of the eight districts used it, and where there were no tuition schools, ~~in existence.~~ St. Georges hundred, with five subscription and two tuition schools, was the only other that employed the plan to any large extent. The Auditor's Report for 1830 lists 22 schools in Kent county and 23 in Sussex as operating under the new law, ~~According to its provisions, these must also have been~~ supported by general contribution.

Though the public schools in the three counties apparently started on terms of approximate equality, their rates of development and their condition at the outbreak of the Civil War varied considerably. New Castle county's advantages of more compact population centered around a large town, and, after 1836, of annual school conventions, resulted in schools of better average grade here. Throughout the State, however, the records show that individual schools were poor, fair, or excellent according to the quality of local leadership. Some of each sort were

~~probably~~ almost certainly found in every section.

1830-1836

Auditor's Reports, findings of legislative committees, the Laws of Delaware, and newspaper files tell the story of the public ~~For its first seven years the history of public education can be traced on a State-wide basis, for its sources are mainly the Auditors' Reports, findings of legislative committees, and newspaper files.~~

~~One term's operation~~ A single year's trial demonstrated that subscription schools without power of taxation under any circumstances were not workable; the legislature in 1830 permitted districts to levy a tax not over $300 with the express consent of a majority of the voters, though Hall's semi-compulsory feature was still ignored, and the way opened for interminable local battles. The law specified that:

> "Assessment lists are to consist of rates of person of all white male inhabitants of the age of 21 years and upwards, of the valuations of the personal property of all white inhabitants,---and of the clear rental value of all real estate within the district."

The same legislature permitted the districts to match half instead of all the State money received, and to keep title to unclaimed balances for three years instead of one. After 1833, school fund dividends were apportioned to the counties according to white population, rather than equally, though each district within the same county continued to receive the same share. In 1834, the amount distributed was, according to a statement of the

Trustee of the School Fund, published in the October issues of the Delaware Gazette, $58.65 for districts in New Castle, $55.17 for Kent, and $48.32 for Sussex.

Another 1833 change permitted two or more districts to unite and support a common school from their combined resources, without loss of dividend. From this foundation grew the town systems.

In 1835 a committee of the legislature, appointed to consider the Governor's suggestions concerning free schools and Delaware College, submitted a lengthy report under the signature of its chairman, Charles Marim. After it had reaffirmed the standard arguments for public education in any republican community and in Delaware in particular, it discussed point by point the objections raised to the program of 1829.

To the complaint that the school fund should not have been touched until it had accumulated a larger capital, the committee replied with the same arguments Hall had used in urging the law originally: that the State money was intended only to encourage schools, not to wholly support them, and that it had to be used when it was or lost. The contention was bolstered by reference to New York State where schools for half a million were run with only half the subsidy Delaware offered.

Its answer to the argument that public money should be used only for the children of the poor has been summarized in an earlier section.

Some insisted that it was unfair to require those who were educating their children privately, or who had none, to train other mens' sons. The committee pointed out that public education was public defense, not a charity to which one might contribute, or not, as he pleased.

Taxation for school purposes had caused the bitterest criticism. The committee upheld the plan as an excellent means of bringing ~~to~~ into the schools children whose families would not have sent them if they had not had to pay for the service whether they used it or not. They admitted that the levy fell somewhat more heavily on poor young men without property or families than upon others, but recommended no change until some better compromise between the owners of already heavily taxed real estate and of personal property should be suggested. They likewise advised against any attempt to make taxation compulsory, though most of the committee favored ~~it~~ such a course in theory. Public education, even on a voluntary basis, was still too insecure in the State for its friends to risk a battle on the tax issue; the committee felt their wisest course was to keep a subscription school open in localities where taxation was ~~where nothing else would be tolerated~~ unpopular until residents realized ~~its~~ the value of schools.

In spite of difficulties, committee members were optimistic enough to assert that, though the system was still too new and too limited "to exert an immediate general influence, .... it will, in course of time, expand itself to meet all the wants and wishes of society."

The committee concluded with the statement that, in 1835, there were schools in operation in 127 of the State's 193

districts; there was still much opposition, some of it dangerous, but it could be expected to decrease gradually as schools proved themselves important.

~~In the two years, 1834-36, two movements took form that were the beginning of distinct units of the modern school system; both are discussed in full detail in appropriate sections, and are mentioned here only incidentally. The ten~~ dis-tricts which comprised Wilmington ~~were united, and thus was laid the foundation of~~ the independent city system. The State made a permanent agreement with the Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind ~~for~~ Delaware pupils ~~to be~~ received on the same terms as Pennsylvanians ~~and for~~ tuition to be paid from the School Fund for a limited number of indigent children. This action placed Delaware among the ~~earlier~~ States to recognize the ~~claim~~ of handicapped students to ~~a~~ share ~~of~~ school ~~revenues~~; it unfortunately also saddled it with a charity school tradition ~~that~~ hampered work in ~~this~~ field for a century.

~~Public schools in the State had reached a critical point in their development, the sources indicate, during this biennium. They~~ had begun to take root in some sections ~~fairly firmly~~; they were defended as a function of a republican govern-ment, not as a charity; many of the features of the modern system, such as taxation on the basis of income, consolidated schools, independence for Wilmington, special education, and a curriculum beyond the elementary grade were already present in embryonic form. But the system was in danger of direct destruction or of

starvation. The second possibility was especially menacing.

Then, late in 1836, the Federal Treasury found itself gorged with funds, and offered the surplus to the States. Delaware's share, according to Weeks (p. 47), was $286,751.49; friends of the common schools pounced on ~~the opportunity~~ this unexpected windfall to rescue their pet program.

1836-1860

At the call of the Wilmington United Districts, 123 delegates from 48 districts in New Castle County met at City Hall Dec. 13, 1836, in a Convention to urge the legislature to accept the offered funds and assign their income to the schools, and to discuss other mutual problems.

The Delaware Gazette, reports "unofficial delegates from some thirty districts" that had not responded, and "others interested" swelled the total attendance to "several hundred from almost every school district in the county, ... far beyond anything that was anticipated." Willard Hall was elected president; Colonel Thomas Robinson, William Kennedy, Jonas Pusey, and John S. Higgins were other officials.

The Convention was surprisingly successful in its immediate objective, for it obtained all but $20,957.66 of the endowment it asked, (though according to Weeks) Kent and Sussex counties were permitted to use part of their share for the support of the poor.

General discussion centered largely around finances. The

Convention based its proceedings on the theory that a chance for an education was a right due all citizens. "In this matter," the report insists, "The public has as deep a stake as the individual." Thus far the State encouragement to free schools had "proved insufficient", and many districts had either neglected to establish one or had failed in an attempt, and "in very few, if any, had there been the success that the public good required". This condition had resulted from the "long neglect of schools", and produced "a general carelessness in regard to them."The only remedy was for the government to offer "sufficient inducement, until experience of the benefits of schools shall convince men of their duty and interest to maintain them."

Delegates testified that it had been desperately difficult to support schools either by taxation or contribution, and that "the prospect was gloomy indeed," unless the General Assembly helped immediately; otherwise "apathy and opposition" would cause a delay of years before proper schools could become general.

One curious suggestion was that the funds, if given the schools, be made available for loans to local businesses with good security; it was defeated merely on the grounds that the method of investment was the business of the legislature.

In addition to preparing a petition to the legislature and authorizing the first official school lobby, the formal business included permanent organization, arrangement for full publicity by newspapers and handbills, and a request for a

formal report from each district at the next meeting. Invitations to attend the coming session were extended to anyone in Delaware interested in public education; the policy of welcoming spectators continued throughout the history of the Conventions, and in 1845 was specifically extended to women. Women delegates were first seated in 1853.

Unlike most other comparable movements in the State, the annual School Convention survived periods of growing indifference, internal disputes, and bad weather on meeting dates, to be an important factor in Delaware education for ~~the next~~ more than twenty years. Proceedings were published in pamphlet form for distribution, and included, besides a summary of business transacted, the annual reports of such districts as returned them, and usually a discussion by Judge Hall of the general condition of the schools, the problems requiring particular public attention, and frequently a repetition of the fundamental theory underlying public education. Though the reports are not as complete or as uniform as one could wish, and although they tend to reflect practice in the better half of New Castle county districts, rather than the average, they give the most complete account available of early Delaware schools and those who made them.

Because detailed material is on record for one county and not the others, the schools of New Castle county and the lower counties have been studied as separate units from 1836 to the enactment of the first uniform provisions for the entire State in 1861.

For the purposes of this paper it has likewise seemed

more satisfactory to trace the trends shown in the Convention reports each as a whole, rather than to offer a condensed version of each Annual Report in chronological order. Those interested in a strictly chronological presentation will find such a treatment in Stephen B. Weeks' History of Public School Education in Delaware, pp. 44-66. Original copies of Convention pamphlets for every year except 1841-42 are in the files of the Historical Society of Delaware, at Old Town Hall, Wilmington.*

*Footnote: Unless otherwise credited, the source of all statements concerning the Convention period is the Annual Report for the appropriate year.

EDUC. FILE

PHILOSOPHY OF EDUCATION

Judge Hall was keenly interested in the School Conventions from the first meeting, and usually compiled the annual report, ~~for general distribution.~~ To a digest of the Minutes he added each year a few pages of discussion about the purpose of public schools, what should be expected of them, and why they deserved public support. Though the opinions were his own, ~~and appeared~~ published over his signature, they reflect the viewpoint widely expressed by other public school advocates. The summary below is, therefore, though based on the Hall comments, a statement of the philosphy of education current among most of his colleagues.

Education is primarily public defense, and only incidentally a personal privilege. Since only informed men can make wise decisions, the safety of a republic, where all have a voice in government, depends upon giving each voter a chance for an education. In addition, superior ~~intelligence~~ ability appears among all sorts and conditions of men; a State that uses only the skill found among the children of the well-to-do wastes much of its most precious resource, human intelligence.

"It is the essential of the common schools," Hall wrote in the 1850 Report," that they educate men for the community; that through the education given in them one is not elevated above another, but the whole community is elevated. ... While they open to the individual a new field of enjoyment which he could not otherwise know, they invest him with advantages in every relation."

He believed that schools could not succeed "unless the people make them their own concern." So intensely did he feel that the

school must be the outgrowth of community interest, waiting, if necessary, upon the development of such support, that his influence delayed movements for centralization after the need for it became obvious to many who agreed with him on other matters.

~~of~~ Hall ~~'s many discussions of~~ frequently discussed what ~~an~~ education really meant; ~~those of 1838 and 1850 are the fullest~~ the fullest treatments appeared in 1838 and 1850. To him, the term suggested the stimulation of all a student's finest possibilities.

This could be accomplished, in most instances, only with the help of a teacher who was himself eager, intelligent, and able to arouse enthusiasm in his students. The ideal teacher must be not only a student, but a person of fine character, whose example would be an inspiration. He must know and love "the principles of our free institutions"; the context makes it clear that Hall meant by this full appreciation of the duties and privileges of living in a cooperative society, not a simple willingness to subscribe to an ~~teacher's loyalty~~ oath of allegiance.

"It is more important <u>how</u> a scholar learns than <u>what</u> he learns." Hall deplored the devotion to quantity in disregard to quality then (and now!) current. He realized that it leads to endless, meaningless, drill from which a child learns nothing but inaccuracy and inattention.

He tells of a visit to a school where he watched a boy fill a page of his copy-book with a slovenly scrawl, his mind miles away from the task. This, says Hall, is certainly not education in any real sense. The boy should be shown how to hold a pen, arrange the paper, and seat himself for the most efficient performance. Then he should study his copy carefully and attempt to reproduce it, examine his ~~work~~ work for error, and, after the teacher's

criticism, try again, checking carefully for improvement. One line done so, says Hall, teaches more than a slovenly page.

> "In this way, learning to write becomes, in addition to a mechanical acquirement, an important mental exercise leading to a valuable habit of thinking what you are doing, and of taking pains, when about to do anything, to examine so as to know what you are doing and how to do it. ... The great principle is that the scholar exercise his own mind, intelligently understanding what he is doing, and not mechanically repeating sounds like a parrot."

The child who was master of reading, writing, and ~~number work~~ arithmetic, though he left school early, could continue alone to any level he wished. But if he could not use the tools easily, they had no real-life value; years at school too often resulted in killing all further interest in the studies half learned there. The private schools were as remiss as the public in turning out pupils who were "superficial in all," who did not know what thoroughness was, and who had been robbed of their right to ~~experience~~ pride in good work carefully completed.

~~He~~ Hall believed that taxation was the only sound source of school revenue, though, like ~~many~~ most of his contemporaries, he ~~doubted the wisdom of trying~~ thought it unwise to introduce a state-wide compulsory system at the start. His tentative plan of financing, outlined elsewhere, emphasized the need of considering income as well as capital holdings in establishing a tax base.

Leaders of educational thought in Delaware, from the time Robert Coram started agitating for public schools in 1791 until the first compulsory measure was passed seventy years later, agreed to a considerable degree upon the purpose of common schools.

Ideas in harmony with modern practices in curriculum and method frequently appear in the records they have left. Early school champions, however, disagreed as violently about administration as their great-grandsons do in 1940.

Taxation, methods of preparing teachers, and the size of the unit for governing schools were all the subject of bitter debate. Most school supporters, in the first few years after 1829, believed that, theoretically, general taxation was the only sensible way to pay for education; practically, they conceded that they would first have to demonstrate the soundness of their idea ~~in~~ by schools financed ~~from~~ through contribution. One party, of whom President E. W. Gilbert of Delaware College was an active spokesman, believed that teachers could and should be trained specifically for that profession; others, whose views Hall expressed, doubted that this was either possible or desirable. Central supervision of all the schools in the State or county found an early advocate in Charles Marim, one of Hall's associates in the School Law fight of 1829 and later county superintendent for Kent; Hall long led the group who believed complete local freedom of action was the best policy.*

In tracing the origin of ideas now commonplace it is easy to forget that they once faced savage opposition or smothering

* Before the close of his long life, he had reversed his earlier position concerning both matters. It is noteworthy that on every other phase of educational thought, Willard Hall urged from the very beginning of the public school system the viewpoint that a century of experience has proved right.

indifference. There is ample evidence from all parts of the State that public schools were attacked as an invasion of personal rights, confiscation of one man's property for the benefit of his shiftless neighbor, unwarranted government interference with private enterprise, and at best a charity for the poor to be administered with the greatest economy. Those who dared predict that the common schools would eventually supplant private classes and academies as the dominant means of education, and would expand "to meet all the wants and needs of society" must have seemed visionary indeed.

SCHOOL LAW AND SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Only minor changes ~~to~~ in the original Free School Law were made during the first thirty years after its passage, and most of these were already completed before the first School Convention was held. The final touches were added in 1837, when women were permitted to teach under the same terms as men, instead of during the summer session only, and when the local contribution required for sharing in the school dividend was reduced to $25.00. Although the volumes of session law from 1838-1860 show much legislation indexed under Schools, it is of local character, and usually involves redistricting or the granting of special privileges (often exemption from the $300 tax limit) to individual districts.

This lack of general legislation does not mean that school advocates were entirely satisfied with the law as it stood in 1837; there were changes they urged almost yearly, and others whose advisability they hotly debated among themselves, before they started long campaigns for public approval.

The hardiest perennial was the proposal to have the school tax collected in the same way as all others after the voters of each district had determined its amount. Despite its obvious convenience and the constant support of the Convention, the Assembly invariably refused to consider the plan.

Sentiment for compulsory taxation in some form grew steadily as the voluntary system failed to support good schools in most communities; however, the proposal did not become law.

The best means of supervision and the degree of centralization advisable for the State was a bitter issue among school sympathizers during the 1830's and 1840's. By 1850, most convention delegates were convinced that a full-time county superintendent would increase the schools' efficiency, and petitioned to have one appointed and paid from the school fund. The proposal was repeated until, in 1854, the Convention in desperation appointed Dr. A. H. Grimshaw of Wilmington on its own responsibility; even then the legislative program was defeated.

In 1852, the Convention passed a resolution asking that examining boards be set up to determine teachers' qualifications, and that no unqualified persons should be employed. Again the legislature declined to pass the suggested measure.

In 1855 a general program, apparently embracing the various points urged in the years just passed--tax reform, superintendence, at least in New Castle county, and examination of applicants before appointment, was presented and passed the House, but was defeated in the Senate.

Each of the three decades of this period marked a distinct phase in the development of school law.

During the 1830's there was frequent tinkering with the original act to remove its inconsistencies and make it more workable. For the next ten years, efforts were directed largely to trying out the provisions already on the statute books. By 1850, a large percentage of public school supporters, at least in New Castle county, had become convinced that school organization was too loose, and that fundamental changes were needed before the State could hope to have a satisfactory system. The

next decade was devoted to selling the proposition to the general public; not until 1861 was a new program passed.

Little can be said about school administration during these years, since it was so entirely a local matter. Funds had to be voted annually; if taxation was approved, the district had to provide its own collectors; if refused, efforts were made to raise sufficient funds by contribution. The local committee, in practice, managed the school as it saw fit; the Convention reports suggest that in many cases its members gave ~~it~~ their duties little thought once a teacher had been hired and vouchers to pay the bills signed.

The Convention provided a few administrative suggestions for school heads in addition to its request for legislation. In 1837 members considered establishing "some general system of Rules and Regulations for the conduct of public schools throughout the county," but decided the time was not ripe for such a step; they likewise recommended a commercial teachers' agency in Philadelphia as a reliable source of supply. The next year they suggested to the districts that they "appoint or elect" a board of visitors to supply supervision for each hundred. During this time they also organized their own committee to assist "remote districts" in finding and examining candidates, and were not able to satisfy the demand. In 1845 the Convention started collecting and tabulating school statistics for the county in advance of the annual meeting. During the next ten years it undertook surveys of corporal punishment, of school housing conditions, and of the progress being made in winning

public support. In 1851, it recommended that part of each district's dividend be spent to purchase textbooks for resale to pupils at cost, so that teachers could grade their schools properly instead of wasting incredible amounts of time in individual instruction. Though the subject of uniform texts was not new as a Convention topic, it had not been treated as a matter of school administration in previous reports.

The Grimshaw survey of 1855 indicates, however, that few of the Convention's programs were carried out in the districts, and that Delaware schools were usually badly managed by their teachers, and had not even begun to be organized into a uniform system.

SCHOOL FINANCING

Financing was one of the most difficult problems of the early schools; failure to solve it satisfactorily caused most of the other shortcomings of the system. Whether schools should be kept up by voluntary subscription, by taxation, or by a combination of the two, was a matter of constant debate from the publication of Robert Coram's POLITICAL INQUIRIES in 1791 until the passage of the first basic amendment of the Free School Law in 1861.

Progress of the struggle in the lower counties is a matter that can be only guessed from the figures given in the Auditors' Reports in Table I, but for New Castle the Convention Reports give a comprehensive story. *

In 1837 most New Castle county schools were supported by subscription, and with considerable difficulty. Their friends felt that their only hope lay in working out a "uniform and efficient method of raising funds." For the years 1839, 1840, 1845, 1849, 1852 and 1856 there is special mention of efforts to have the tax provision amended, but at no time did both houses of the legislature approve suggested programs.

Public school supporters consequently centered their efforts on getting taxation approved in individual districts. As early as 1839 the method was reported as gaining in favor. In 1845 only one delegate opposed a motion that taxation for public schools was theoretically sound; of 40 districts reporting,

* Unless otherwise specified, all material in the section below is taken from the New Castle County School Convention Reports for the year indicated in the text.

only five still raised funds by passing the hat. A combined financial report for 1850-51 showed only six of 57 reporting districts that still resisted taxation. In 1853 only two of 45 districts were among the bitter-enders.

Specific requests for changes in the financial provisions of the law were made in 1837, when the Convention asked that the tax levied by school committees be collected by the regular tax gatherers of the hundreds, in 1852 when a bill proposing school taxation by the Levy Court was defeated, in 1853 when it asked that school taxes be collected in the same way as other taxes, and in 1855 when a tax program again failed. The Convention also, in 1845, suggested that each district include on its next ballot a referendum on the question of "applying to the legislature for passage of a law providing for some general system of taxation for schools."

Among the devices that some of the supporters of public education considered as alternatives to direct taxation was the lottery. In 1837 an exceedingly lively debate on the subject was held on the floor of the Convention. The following year a committee reported that on February 11, 1835, a lottery had been authorized, part of whose revenue was to go to the schools. The principal, however, had been unwisely invested. The Trustee of the School Fund stated that no lottery money had ever been distributed from his office and none was expected. The committee was satisfied that no such funds had been received, or were likely to be, as a result of past legislation; it condemned all future recourse to the method. It argued that

lotteries put the burden of taxation upon those least able to bear it, and that a scheme to which many people had moral objections, if used to support schools, might easily arouse fatal antagonism to public education itself.

During this entire period funds were distributed, as mentioned above in the section on school legislation, to counties on a population basis, and to the districts within the same county share and share alike, regardless of the number of school children in each. There was, naturally, some objection to such division, especially after population shifts had made some districts nearly twice as populous as others. In 1851, the matter was a Convention topic. The great majority of delegates, however, agreed that the State contribution should remain an equalization fee giving relatively the greatest help to poor districts with few taxables and slender resources. They admitted that in many instances district lines should be redrawn but recommended no other change.

Irregularities inevitably occurred in an organization as loose as the one in Delaware. Willard Hall, in his report to the legislature in 1841, admitted that fraudulent and near-fraudulent accountings had in some instances been made to the State Auditor; Auditors complained from time to time of the difficulty of securing prompt and accurate reports; Dr. Grimshaw's report of 1855 objects to a private school, Newark Academy, sharing in the State fund in direct violation of the law.

Low budgets for school maintenance had an unfortunate

effect on many phases of the program. Teacher training and tenure, school buildings and equipment, and an early movement for adult education were among those that suffered most.

All the early Convention reports complain that good teachers were difficult to get and harder to keep. A few districts, however, had found that, once they had gotten a satisfactory instructor, it was wise to offer a reasonable salary to hold him. Leaders repeatedly urged the economy of adequately supported schools.

Willard Hall ~~objected~~ to professional preparation specifically for teaching ~~for~~ theoretical ~~reasons~~ discussed elsewhere. The one which convinced a majority of his colleagues, however, was the purely practical one that the half-starved districts could not pay the salaries asked by normal school graduates, and must perforce rely on the low-paid services of young people preparing for other learned occupations. As the need for further training ~~became more apparent~~ was demonstrated, financial considerations still blocked action.

In 1839, ten years after the schools went into operation, salaries ranging from $67.50-$87.50 per quarter were quoted; $350 per year was the highest "outside towns which charged tuition." And in 1854 salaries of "a dollar a day or less" were still common and were still attracting few but incompetents.

From 1852, the Convention was convinced that the schools needed a full-time supervisor, but the legislature made no move to pay for one. By 1854 the districts were asked to subscribe $5.00 each toward the support of a county superin-

tendent until the Assembly could legally authorize his appointment. Apparently this was done, for Dr. Arthur Grimshaw served for at least one year in that capacity; the bill, unfortunately, failed, but he may have continued on a voluntary basis.

The short school term in many parts of the State stems directly from poor financing; "school in session from three to five months because of lack of funds" is a common entry.

A committee in 1838 reported that lack of funds had made it impossible to secure speakers for evening meetings "for every school district in the county." The same fact probably explains the failure of the promising adult education program, mentioned in several of the early reports, to become an integral part of public education in Delaware from its first decade.

Another section discusses the wretched buildings and equipment with which early teachers had to work. Throughout the account, it is clear that poverty as well as indifference ~~was a contributing factor.~~ was a cause of the bad conditions.

There was, none the less, considerable increase in school revenue in New Castle county between 1837 and 1857. Table I gives the Auditor's figures for various years. The Convention Report of 1853 gives more specific detail about the changing financial picture in the schools than do any of the others.

For New Castle county, forty-five districts had reported; twenty-seven of them raised locally $200-$300 apiece for their school. The Auditor's Report showed that the average district in the county matched the State dividend and added one-fifth. Sussex districts provided by tax or contribution only about a third what they received from the School Fund, or an average

of $37.04½ each. In Kent the average was a little more than half the State contribution.

The writer of the report did not contend, however, that schools of the northernmost county had now won their fight for liberal support. The average local contribution for each pupil enrolled ranged from $1.85 in Mill Creek Hundred to $4.91 in St. Georges; for the entire county the mathematical average was $3.02, and the median $2.84. Only in three united districts, (Christiana-Brandywine, New Castle, and Wilmington) was sufficient money supplied "for making their schools what they ought to be."

Willard Hall believed that the New Castle county schools had obtained more liberal support than those to the south because the annual Conventions had succeeded in rousing and holding considerable public support. In the other counties, schoolmen and their friends had had no forum for discussing their problems among themselves and carrying their case to the voters. He included a table showing the amounts raised in each for school purposes in a typical year of each decade:

| Counties | 1834 | 1841 | 1852 |
|---|---|---|---|
| New Castle | $6,986.55 | 8,997.00 | 12,650.00 |
| Kent | 4,230.00 | 6,597.00 | 5,108.00 |
| Sussex | 2,845.15 | 4,067.00 | 3,501.00 |

Stephen B. Weeks points out (p. 63, note) that, on the basis of 1858 figures, there is not so wide a discrepancy between the counties if property valuation is considered. In New Castle the rate of tax-or-contribution was $0.14 per

$100; in Kent, $0.13½; and in Sussex, $0.06 3/4.

A glance back through the period from the first Convention until the Civil War shows a slowly increasing income for public education in New Castle county. There was a tremendous spread between the revenues of the progressive districts and those that were merely going through the motions of supporting a school in order to get their share of the State fund. Sentiment in favor of compulsory taxation to provide at least a minimum term under a competent teacher in every district grew steadily; the legislature habitually turned a deaf ear. It even disregarded the oft-repeated request to have school taxes levied and collected by the regular county officials after each district had certified the amount its residents had agreed to raise. At one time there was a Convention suggestion that each district include on its next ballot a referendum urging this reform upon the legislature.

At the beginning of the Convention period the three counties, in proportion to population, levied roughly similar sums to supplement the State grant; by 1852 New Castle had doubled its contribution, while Kent and Sussex had increased theirs only a trifle, and were paying less of their own money for schools than they had done ten years earlier. Even in New Castle county, however, only three united districts raised what school advocates considered sufficient for an effective program.

Table I at the close of this chapter includes a summary of information culled from the Annual Reports of the State Auditor between 1830 and 1860.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND EQUIPMENT

Early sessions of the School Convention paid little attention to the matter of school buildings, possibly because the matter of supporting any school at all, even in begged, borrowed, or jerry-built quarters was still too acute in many sections. The comment in 1837 that "a considerable number (of the 46 represented districts) had schoolhouses" is proof that one was not considered ~~a first requirement~~ absolutely necessary, for most of these districts had been operating under the law for from three to seven years.

It is reasonable to assume that the description of buildings where earlier subscription schools were held is valid for those opened under the School Law. We know that some of these earlier structures were tightly built of stone, brick, or frame, while others were disgraceful shanties, and that almost all were incorrectly lighted, heated, and ventilated. One of the few notices concerning a school building during the early Convention period is an advertisement for bids "for building a school house thirty-two feet long by eighteen feet wide, the materials to be furnished by the contractor, of the best kind, together with all the necessary fixtures for the same." It appears in the Delaware State Journal for April 22, 1836, and is signed by the Committee for District 44.

After 1843 the housing situation is reported much more fully. In 1848 the Report mentions a comfortable, convenient schoolhouse of sufficient size and with ample playground as one of the requisites of a satisfactory school. The next year

condition of the building became a standard item in the district report; of the 51 schools which responded to the first questionnaire, 16 admitted that their plant was unsatisfactory, and several made repairs in the next few years.

Just previously, in 1846, Stanton was reported as without a school "because the district will not supply a house for one," and another district had "vacated a school for the purpose of paying arrearages of debt."

It was against this background that Dr. Lewis P. Bush, a prominent Wilmington physician, ~~and~~ as chairman of a committee of the Convention in 1852 made the first recorded ~~survey~~ report of school buildings in a Delaware county. ~~they reported in 1852.~~ Dr. Bush called attention to the then standard study of school architecture, Henry Barnard's Report of School Houses, and continued:

> "Anyone who will read the recommendations of this report and then go and in the light of them view our school houses, will perceive their grossly inadequate structure. ... They will find our children crowded together, not professedly for the purpose of training them up with curved spines, contracted lungs and consequently debilitated bodies, with the impression most prominent in their minds of rattans, fatigue, foul air and headache, the sun blazing in their eyes in summer, and the smoke torturing them in winter; not intended, it is true for these purposes, but accidentally and most wonderfully adapted to fulfill them."

The report, after citing three typical schools selected at random, whose air capacity was sufficient for only nine to twenty-five minutes occupancy, suggests a simple method of ventilation that might be installed in any building to avoid both drafts and suffocation. Backless seats were condemned.

Three years later Dr. A. H. Grimshaw, a physician serving as county superintendent, included an acid comment on housing in his general report on schools. Starting with the observation that, "unless we adopt some more thorough mode of supervision our schools will be a by-word and a reproach," he points out that private persons, in planning a business building, design it carefully for the purpose in view. But schools, the business of all, were unplanned and stupidly located. "In most instances the coldest, bleakest, least protected, noisiest and dustiest spot in the district has been chosen."

Many schools were dangerously close to main highways, few had porches, "scarcely one in fifty" had a scraper for cleaning shoes, and many were too small for the enrollment. The customary four-direction lighting both injured the children's vision and made it impossible to find sufficient space for blackboards, maps, charts and proper disposal of wraps. This was one defect that might be remedied without delay or much expense. Use of curtains was rare in schools.

Seats were fantastically arranged, sometimes face-to-face so the pupils had ample opportunity of amusing one another, sometimes around the edge of the room, affording the teacher "an unobstructed view of her charges' backs," sometimes packed in rows so close no space was left for aisles ~~or convenient ventilation~~. The danger as well as inconvenience of this last arrangement is obvious.

Dr. Grimshaw reports that the seats themselves were uncomfortable; many were backless, almost all were from sixteen to thirty inches from the floor, i.e., ranging upward from the

normal height for an adult. He comments that Commissioners who think seats are all right as they are should "perch their wives on seats thirty inches high, without backs, and ask them to sit quietly and sew for three hours, or even one hour, and if there is not a rebellion in the family it will be because human nature is suddenly regenerated."

Incidence of nervous diseases, consumption, and scrofula among school children, he believed, was due in large degree to the uncomfortable and unsanitary conditions under which they were forced to spend so much of the day.

He noted filthy toilets exposed to the plain view of pupils and passers-by alike, in utter disregard of decency and privacy; they were commonplace, not the rare exception in an especially negligent district. Buildings and fences were in such disrepair the bad example might make children indifferent all their lives to the condition of property under their care. Trees and fences on schoolgrounds were scarce. Few teachers were supplied with enough maps, globes, cards, and blackboard space for effective teaching. Some schools had no board, and many that had been hung were almost inaccessible, too small, or not provided with chalk.

Books were not supplied by the State until the close of the century, and pupils supplied themselves with a motley array, or even none at all. (The advisability of the districts supplying books for resale or rental had been broached at the very beginning of the Convention period, but the committee in charge of the motion had at that time decided the

supply could be satisfactorily obtained from private dealers. Methods of introducing and keeping uniform series of texts were a frequent topic of discussion, and before the end of the period opinion among school leaders had crystalized in favor of district purchase.) Grimshaw, in 1855 urged such a course. Children sent to school without slates or writing materials were not at all uncommon.

Equipment, in brief, included the building--frequently in a wretched state of repair toward the end of the period when it had been in use some twenty or thirty years, and certainly badly lighted, heated, and ventilated--an inadequate and badly kept playground, lavatories in filthy condition, a meager supply of blackboards, maps, and charts in the better schools, and such books and personal supplies as each child's family furnished him. Furniture was often cruelly uncomfortable, and the building crowded with more pupils than it could ~~easily~~ properly accommodate.

Some schools, it is true, had provided enough room, and comfortable quarters for the children, and had shaded grounds in good condition. A few had introduced cabinets for mineral and botanical specimens, and in very rare instances there were libraries. In evaluating the reports made by physicians on the scene, we must consider that they may have been written to shock delinquent districts into action, rather than to praise the better ones. Even allowing for this, school buildings, grounds, and equipment were generally unsatisfactory in Delaware twenty-five years after the passage of the school law.

The very first of the Convention meetings devoted to general problems unanimously adopted a resolution urging the districts to supply libraries for their schools. The practice was recommended as one that would arouse general interest in education throughout a district. A similar recommendation appears in the next report, 1838, coupled with the suggestion that all friends of public education, both teachers and laymen, would find COMMON SCHOOL ASSISTANT, an educational periodical, extremely valuable.

In 1839, delegates' attention was called to a newly published series, THE AMERICAN SCHOOL LIBRARY, a set of fifty volumes which could be obtained for $25.00, and would provide a splendid basic collection. An inquiry which The Federal Writers addressed to New York State Library brought the following supplementary information from Joseph Gavit, Acting Director, under date of Nov. 7, 1938:

> The series you mention has this general title: American School Library. Published under the direction of the American Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge. New York: Harper Brothers. No. 82 Cliff Street, 1839. The books are 15½ cm. in full cloth. The series included nine titles of history, three of voyages and travels, six of biography, five of natural history, three of intellectual science, one of belles-lettres, and six miscellaneous volumes. ... By 1843 there were available the following: the Family Library, 153 volumes; the Classical Library, 36 volumes; The School District Library, 200 volumes (including the American School Library); and the Boys' and Girls' Library, 32 volumes.
>
> The fifty volumes about which you write were, therefore, really only a small part of the pocket-size library on all subjects made available by Harper for the students of that early day.

Unfortunately the districts did not follow the suggestion in any large numbers, for one of the resolutions in 1845 read:

> The Convention has learned with much regret the great deficiency of libraries in the school districts of the county, and we urge upon each district an early effort to supply a library adapted to the needs of its children.

A committee was appointed to list suitable books for the purpose. The only existing libraries mentioned in district reports were: #1, 600 volumes used in cooperation with a Sunday school; #40, no number given; Wilmington United Districts, 350 volumes; Newark, 185 volumes.

The next year reveals little change in the situation; three districts, not identified, reported that they had libraries, and four others planned to purchase them soon; one bought books "needed by the teacher"--apparently reference material.

The report of 1850 admitted regretfully that the library idea was not spreading, and that there was a general indifference to it. The community value of a good publicly owned collection of reading matter was stressed. The next Convention again pleaded with the districts to obtain libraries, and called their attention to the fact that $20.00 would buy a satisfactory basic set to which they might add as income permitted. Again in 1852 the report argued that libraries would "encourage mental improvement," and would "produce a radical change in every district."

In 1854 the Convention undertook to sponsor the publication of a school journal, and appointed local committees to solicit subscriptions at $1.00 a year. The publication, under the editorship of Dr. Grimshaw of Wilmington, failed after a few issues "for want of interest," though it had been well reviewed outside the State.

The Convention in 1856 asked a Webster's Unabridged Dictionary for each school.

Thus in spite of twenty years' effort to convert the districts to the use of school libraries and similar aids, only a few of them had made even a beginning in this field.

add some descriptions of this

ENROLLMENT AND ATTENDANCE

Accurate statistics of attendance and enrollment were not kept until years later than 1830-60. From the fragmentary material available it is none the less possible to piece together some notion of who went to school, how long, and how regularly at this time.

Throughout the Convention years some districts reported opposition from a majority of the well-to-do residents, and others, Newark particularly, felt the competition of select private schools. Many districts, however, indicated that no other facilities than their own little school were available for their children. Obviously, in communities of the first sort the common school must have enrolled only the poorer children and the sons of rabid democrats. In the others it was probably as representative a cross-section of the neighborhood as is found in the schools of today.

Schools were free "to all white children 5-21 years of age." There is evidence to suggest that the entire range was frequently represented. In 1838 District No. 6 reported that its enrollment of 74 included 22 pupils who could not read and write legibly; most of these were "very small children, four and five years of age." This same district claimed two recent graduates who were successfully teaching in neighboring schools, and several pupils "making excellent progress in mathematics"--a term which apparently meant something beyond plain geometry,

since arithmetic, geometry, and algebra were mentioned separately. Subjects that belong to the upper high school years and indicate the presence of mature students appear in the district reports with increasing frequency from 1840, and become commonplace by 1845 in the more progressive neighborhoods. Elderly people still living who attended country schools as children state that, before the day of the public high school and easy transportation, rural schools offered almost any subject the instructor was able to teach; when a district was lucky in securing a well-informed teacher it was the accepted custom for young men and women to attend during the winter lull in farming activity. The subjects given in various schools in 1840-60 suggest that the tradition dates from very near the beginning of the public school era.

Attendance throughout this period was poor, but the absence of complete records make it impossible to say just how poor. In 1838, 1845, and 1855 the Convention Proceedings include special reports deploring irregular attendance and tardiness. In one case the practice of sending children to school "now and then" is mentioned; even before the Conventions began a discouraged teacher wrote a dreary description of the conditions under which he was expected to work, one of the most aggravating of which was that children were permitted to stay at home on the slightest pretext while their parents expected them to make normal progress, none the less.

In 1837 and 1838, 33 of the 63 organized districts in the county reported to the Convention. Enrollments in the neighborhood of 1300 or 1400 were listed, with an average of 43 per school. Since the figures were compiled from the more active half of the total number of districts, the writer warned that far less pupils were probably to be found in the unreported group. If the large towns were eliminated from the calculation, the average per school reported was 34, though some schools had nearly twice that enrollment--far beyond the proper load for one teacher. Except in the three or four largest schools, co-education was the rule.

A year later, 1839, twenty districts enrolled 2,385, with an average attendance of about 900, District enrollment had fallen to about 30, though in some it was much larger.

In 1845 some schools with an enrollment of 50-100 are listed. Ten years later a school, mentioned as a typical instance, had an enrollment of 43 and an average attendance of 27.

The final Convention Report of 1856, refers to 3,530 public school pupils in the county; the source of the figure is not given.

Length of the school term varied widely. Some of the schools were in session the year round, or for ten or eleven months, while others were kept for only four or five. The 1837 report calls 6-10 months normal. Twelve years later, 51 districts reported, and of this number only five had less than a ten-month session, and three of the five were of nine months duration.

The figures indicate an increasingly long term, slowly rising enrollment, a very wide age-span, and very irregular attendance; little more can be determined from the incomplete evidence at hand.

State Auditor's Reports, summarized in Table I, give for each of the three counties approximate figures which are interesting but probably not true, since Auditors had no means of checking the returns of local school committees. Statements for individual schools show a suspicious proportion of enrollments in even tens, lending substance to the charge in the Grimshaw report of 1855 that most so-called records were mere guesswork.

CURRICULUM AND TEACHING METHODS OF EARLY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Curriculum and method varied in the public schools of the first generation in Delaware as widely as the other factors in the program. It had been indirectly mentioned in the School Fund Act of 1796, which stipulated that the income of the trust be used to provide "a good English education" for the State's youth; in this respect the act followed Robert Coram's suggestion of 1791. The first application of the revenue, the unfortunate poor-school act of 1817, provided instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic for those "obviously unable to receive the rudiments of an English education from any other source."

When the Law of 1829 was under consideration before the legislature, one of the amendments to the original draft read: "Section 3, line 22, strike out 'geography, history, and the lower branches of mathematics,' and insert instead 'and such branches of knowledge as the committee shall consider necessary to be taught in their district.'" The words before <u>and</u> were: reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar. (<u>House Journal</u>, 1829, Feb. 6, and <u>Code of 1852</u>, Ch. 42, sec. 3).

A typical advertisement, appearing in the <u>Delaware Gazette</u> for October 17, 1834, states that an applicant for a Free School position "can be well recommended for correctness of deportment and competency of teaching Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, English Grammar, and Geography."

The 1837 School Convention report includes many details about curriculum in the 46 reporting districts. Most of them had attempted only the rudiments, but a few had introduced mathematics (which usually meant higher mathematics) and "some of the higher branches of an English education." One was experimenting with a course in mineralogy and had acquired a cabinet of "between three and four hundred specimens." Uniform texts were discussed at this meeting, and Angell's Series of Spelling and Reading Books, I-IV; Emerson's Arithmetic, I-III; Smith's Geography and Atlas; Smith's Grammar, and Olney's History of the United States were recommended. Unfortunately, it proved impossible to have the same texts voluntarily adopted throughout the county; the problem was never satisfactorily solved until the State supplied free books at the end of the century.

The same report mentions a brief-lived experiment with the Lancastrian system in the Boys' School at Wilmington, and the use of the plan in the Girls' School.

In the next few years one finds references to geography, grammar, mensuration, bookkeeping, and higher mathematics in some of the more ambitious districts, of much time devoted to needlework in Wilmington, and of pupils able to take neighboring schools at graduation. The rudiments, however, were still the rule in most districts.

By 1845 the curriculum of reporting schools (only 26), was much richer than it had been a few years earlier. All schools list reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and

spelling. Five or more mention also grammar, mensuration, surveying, algebra, philosophy (probably general science), geometry, or several of the group. Composition, declamation, and bookkeeping appear on three lists, history on two, and chemistry, logic, Latin, music, astronomy and Watt's on the Mind (apparently elementary psychology) each on one. Newark, which had previously felt especially keen competition from private academies which attracted students as soon as they began to show any promise, appears to have introduced a fairly complete high school course in an effort to hold its good students. It was especially proud of its success with music as a regular subject of instruction.

The next few years show much the same subject-matter, with a gradually growing tendency for the better districts to include Latin, history, and various branches of higher mathematics. The high school, in fact if not in name, appears to have been creeping into the more alert sections, at least in the years when they were fortunate in their selection of a teacher. One curious phenomonon, noticeable during the entire early public school period, is that flourishing schools, offering broad, experimental programs of study for a few years, frequently lagged after a little, and their places of leadership were transiently filled by others that had previously merely existed.

Hall's complaint of schools devoted to mere quantity, teaching their students inattention and carelessness, and robbing them of the satisfaction of knowing they have completed a difficult task well, is found in the 1850 report.

Concerning actual curriculum he remarked that reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar were obvious fundamentals, and that geography of the United States and of the world, supplemented with a little geology, was likewise essential. Astronomy should be included in the program since "no knowledge is so exalting and expanding." Familiarity with American history and civics should be part of every young citizen's equipment. Chemistry was sufficiently valuable for farmers and housewives to justify its inclusion in the public school curriculum, and physiology and hygiene were important. The same Convention urged the introduction into the schools of some book that would "instruct the pupils upon the privileges and duties of American citizenship," and recommended the use of "some plain compendious treatise on Natural Theoligy." Two years later the introduction of agricultural chemistry was suggested.

The Grimshaw report of 1855 is caustic in its description of subject-matter and teaching methods.

Equipment for effective teaching was lacking in most schools. Hardly any teachers had maps, globes, cards, and blackboards in sufficient quantity, if at all. Many of the blackboards that were in place were almost inaccessible, too small, or not provided with chalk; in frequent instances teachers did not understand their use, or used them for nothing but arithmetic. West Point, comments the report, used the method for instruction in all branches. A feature of the convention of 1855 had been a demonstration of the use of the board.

Pupils still brought any textbook that happened to strike their parents' fancy, so grading in the modern sense was utterly impossible. Dr. Grimshaw describes a school with forty-three names on the roll, and an average attendance of twenty-seven, where five different kinds of reader and seven kinds of arithmetic were in use. Just to instruct all these groups properly, he comments, would require a teacher's entire time. There were some children attending who had no books at all, and so "were not students, but nuisances."

This condition was not exceptional, but typical. Nor were textbooks the only item where rugged individualism played havoc with the school program. Children provided themselves with slates or not, as their parents chose; children of eight or nine, who had attended school for several years, and still were unable to write because of lack of practice, were not at all exceptional.

In such abominably organized schools, individual instruction was inevitably the rule; the poorly trained teachers rarely provided employment for the rest of the students while they were giving their special attention to one or a small group. In many schools, Dr. Grimshaw charges, the pupils were being almost deliberately drilled in habits of idleness that would be a serious handicap in their later years.

"Teaching" was scarcely the term for the occupation at which some of the instructors passed their time; lessons

were heard, but rarely explained. There were several reasons for the poor quality of much of the work. There was general apathy to schools in most districts; the commissioners exerted little real supervision; the parents allowed their children to attend irregularly and tardily; they resisted taxation which would raise enough revenue to operate a worthwhile school with a competent teacher. The teachers, too, were indifferent and ignored opportunities to organize and to read independently for professional improvement, as other professional people ~~do~~ did.

Dr. Grimshaw remarked that during his two years of service on the Board of Examiners under the Wilmington Board of Education, "a large proportion of those who presented themselves for examination were deficient in the elementary branches of an English education." Some of the most signal failures were those of experienced teachers. Though examination results do not prove that a person will make a good teacher, the superintendent argued that failure to prove reasonable literacy shows that he cannot succeed.

Meaning of this sentence.

Curriculum in the narrow sense is discussed in somewhat less detail. Arithmetic was taught, though the children did not know the fundamentals; English grammar and composition, says the doctor, "are an art which one should suppose was entirely useless." The teacher's English was in far too many instances defective. Spelling was taught with too much oral drill and too few dictation exercises. Many schools attempted too many subjects

for the facilities they had. Nearly all of them failed to keep the little children busy and interested.

The Convention Report of 1855 urged free textbooks as the only genuine remedy for the weaknesses in school practice resulting from lack of uniformity, or simply lack, of texts. A list of recommended texts, reprinted in Weeks' Public School Education in Delaware, p. 64, includes several arithmetics (among them an "intellectual arithmetic"), a general mathematics series, an algebra, and a bookkeeping manual; a book of dictation exercises; several geographies and a Natural History text; assorted spellers and readers; a collection of general and United States histories, one of which was "combined with geography," foreshadowing our present-day social studies; a "Governmental Instructor," presumably a civics text; a grammar; a choice of Natural Philosophy books (a subject now appearing under the name of General Science or elementary physics); and a chemistry.

The last county school convention whose Proceedings have been preserved was held in 1856. Nineteen annual reports are available for the twenty-three year period over which the meetings were held. The information they give about curriculum and methods during the first quarter-century of the public school era is somewhat sketchy. None the less there stands out clearly a picture of schools which varied tremendously in both the quantity and the quality of their offering. Some gave instruction only in the barest

rudiments; others approximated the academic high school program of the early nineteen hundreds. Methods in use ranged from excellent to wretched, though instruction in far too many cases was superficial, formal, and unrelated to the students' needs. Since teachers as a group were poorly trained and underpaid, it is not surprising that too many of them did not do good work.

It has not been possible to determine precisely when or why the School Conventions were discontinued. Weeks states that 1855 was the final date, but the Historical Society of Delaware has a copy of the Proceedings for 1856, in which mention is made of the appointment of a committee to arrange for the next meeting. The Delaware Gazette for Sept. 28, 1858, carries an account of the annual School Convention held Sept. 18 in the U.S. District Court Room in Wilmington. It was rather poorly attended, due to competition from a political meeting "at the City Hall"; among its resolutions was one requesting the President to draw all funds due the Convention from the School Fund and the Legislature, and with them liquidate the Convention's printing account. We believe this was the last session of the Convention, for a letter in the Delaware State Journal and Statesman for Sept. 27, 1859, inquires why no meeting had yet been held, and asks that the proper persons issue a call for assembling on Oct. 15. There is no record of either a call or a meeting.

Preparation of teachers and their conditions of employment throughout the nineteenth century is discussed in a single section below, as is the growth of the Wilmington school system. Early provisions for the continued education of adults, and for the training of handicapped children appear in the introductions to the chapters on Twentieth Century developments in these fields.

KENT AND SUSSEX COUNTIES

1830-60

Information concerning school affairs in Kent and Sussex counties during the years 1836-56 is fragmentary, since there was no central organization operating there to collect and publish records of the various districts.

The most satisfactory study of conditions in Kent county during this generation is found in Charles Marim's report to the Legislature in 1845. He was at that time serving as county superintendent, and sent this statement partly as a refutation of one Willard Hall had made earlier. Marim, like Hall one of the pioneers in the free school movement, disagreed with him on the matter of centralized control of all the schools in the state; to him some organization seemed essential.

Unlike so many of the more ardent champions of public schools during their early history, Mr. Marim* was a native Delawarean belonging to one of the long-settled families. He practiced law and participated actively in State politics, serving in several appointive and elective positions. In his later years, he moved to Wilmington, but his important service to public education came during his residence in Kent county. He died, only fifty-four years of age , in April, 1858.

* In Wilmington Public Library, in Vertical File "Delawareana."

In 1842, Mr. Marim had prepared and circulated questionnaires, and had begun a personal inspection of schools in his county; he had visited more than half of them before illness interrupted his work.

Reappointed Superintendent in 1844, he did not continue his inspection trips because they "required almost constant absence from home and business for a considerable length of time," and he could not afford either the time or the actual expense. He had continued an extensive correspondence concerning the schools, and lectured twice before large audiences.

During his trip in 1842, he was pleased with conditions. He found that the system of public schools was already useful, was overcoming the prejudice that had opposed it at the beginning, and was gaining a firm hold on the voters' affections. Though the organization was far from perfect, it had in a large measure justified the hopes of its friends.

To a considerable degree, the success of individual school districts has depended upon their success in enlisting the support of influential and enlightened citizens; where they had such support, schools had been highly satisfactory; where it had been withheld, schools had completely disappeared or been barely kept alive. One of the chief problems of friends of public education throughout "the length and breadth of the State" had been to elicit the cooperation of such people.

Smyrna was cited as a town where the spirit of the citizens was most encouraging and the school excellent. There were two districts within the limits of the village, each of which maintained two schools, "one for large, and one for small children." There were no illiterates over eight; a large proportion of the children were instructed not only in the rudiments but in mathematics and the classics.

His enthusiasm for the accomplishments of the better districts did not blind Mr. Marim to the difficulties facing the schools, and the imperfections that existed in the general school system of the State.

In some places, he found the schools hampered by selfishness, sometimes that of a few well-to-do citizens with no personal stake in popular education; sometimes that of the entire community. In one of his visits, the superintendent had asked an acquaintance about the popularity of the local school, and received the reply: "It would be popular enough if it could be had without cost." Needless to add, this school was in a "wretched state," under an utterly incompetent teacher. There were districts where it never entered the minds of those responsible to comply more than nominally with the minimum State requirements for sharing in the dividend.

Mr. Marim was of the opinion that the schools were "too liberally patronized with the public money"; the grant from the surplus funds of the Federal Treasury

"begets the idea nothing is to be done by the people, and the dividend from the school fund is enough" to support satisfactory schools.

He faced the fact, however, that the plan of taxation then in force was not in any way satisfactory. He stated that "Something must be done to give the system an operation of equal prosperity in all the districts." He favored compulsory taxation, making the same arguments that Willard Hall had reported in 1839, and emphasizing the right of the State to tax for school purposes on the ground that it "has a right to protect itself from ignorance, as from fraud and violence."

Incompetent teachers were, he believed, the most serious single threat to the system of public schools. Evasion of the law concerning qualifications should be stopped by a new enactment "with teeth." Although he approved in theory of Normal Schools as a means of providing teachers, he felt they were not practical under conditions existing in Delaware at the period. He suggested as a possibility worth consideration that some plan of training might be worked out in cooperation with Delaware College.

He found Willard Hall's theory that the free schools should train their own teachers likewise untenable from a practical viewpoint; it might be the eventual solution, but where were good teachers to be found, immediately, to educate the potential supply? Even under the most favorable

circumstances, he feared such a program might lead to undesirable inbreeding. Any school system, to be permanent, must be progressive; it should get new ideas and new blood from any source available. He likewise felt that public schools, well taught, would soon answer many of the purposes of academies. In his own district, there were already instructors qualified to teach the classics and mathematics. It was a fallacy, too, in his opinion, that college and academy graduates were too out of sympathy with the public school program to make good teachers for the district schools; he cited numerous examples to support his contention.

He felt that the public schools could rid themselves of incompetents and encourage the better candidates if positions were given only after a standard examination.

A State superintendent would be preferable to the county superintendents, serving without pay, who at that time supplied the only supervision. Some adaptation of the Massachusetts and Connecticut plans, which included a State Board of Education with a paid official to do the actual administrative work, might be worked out; for Delaware, he thought the full-time superintendent alone might suffice. Whatever the program finally decided upon, he considered it axiomatic that the Delaware school system could not proceed uniformly "without a head."

The report concluded with a suggestion, submitted by request, but not approved by Marim, that districts be

authorized to charge tuition in addition to levying a tax. Marim objected to the proposal as a violation of the principle that public education is a public utility, not a private privilege.

No efforts to organize permanent school conventions in the lower counties, or on a State-wide basis, succeeded, a fact which deprived friends of the schools of a gathering place to exchange ideas among themselves and of a forum from which to arouse public opinion. As early as 1838, C. E. Layton of Sussex county and Charles Marim of Kent had expressed interest in the proposal to have a State meeting; the only attempt prior to 1857, a Convention in 1843, was apparently unsuccessful.

The Delaware Gazette for April 2, 1858, however, contains an announcement of the "next meeting" of the Kent and Sussex County Teachers' Association, indicating that such an organization was formed before this date; Layton's report to the 1856 Convention had given no indication of its existence then, so it probably began in the interim.

As indicated above neither of the southern counties supported their schools nearly so generously as did New Castle, though Kent's contribution, by the end of the period, was nearly as large per $100 valuation.

The New Castle county Convention of 1847 notes little active opposition to schools in Kent county, but much indifference. Though the section had only half as many children of school age as its northern neighbor, it had twice as many not enrolled either in public or private schools.

The Convention, in 1856, asked C. S. Layton, of Sussex, and a clergyman from Kent, guests at the meeting, to report on conditions in their counties. Both found incompetence and downright corruption common. Layton believed the only hope for the rural sections was passage of the bill proposed in 1855 (apparently similar to that passed in 1861), and appointment of a State Superintendent capable of standardizing practices throughout the State.

Public schools had lagged in the lower two thirds of the State, in other words, because of lack of sustained leadership and a forum for their advocates; and because greater isolation made schools harder to organize and support. None the less, good schools did exist in some communities where residents were interested. To make them general instead of exceptional far closer supervision and better support was necessary.

Table I gives summaries from the Auditors' Reports for the years between 1830 and 1861. Although, as has been noted in connection with New Castle county, these figures are neither complete nor accurate, they are suggestive.

V. E. Shaw
Sept. 29, 1939





# CURRICULA AND TEACHING METHODS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN DELAWARE

## Part I. (1796-1919)

The curricula offered in Delaware public schools have varied widely through the years, and from school to school; the subject, however, is widely discussed in the numerous official papers still extant, and its history, in outline, is reasonably easy to trace.

Curriculum was indirectly mentioned in the Act of 1796 which created the School Fund, when it stipulated that the income from the trust was to be used to provide "a good English education" for the State's young residents; no colleges, universities, or academies might share in the subsidy.

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A variety of contemporary statements make clear the exact meaning of this term, at the period when Delaware schools were being planned and organized.

The first effort to apply the revenue of the Fund, the unfortunate poor-school provision of 1817, assigned a portion of it to pay for instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic for those "obviously unable to receive the rudiments of an English education from any private or other source." When the Law of 1829, establishing genuine public schools, was under consideration before the legislature, one of the amendments to the original draft read: "Section 3, line 22, strike out 'geography, history, and lower branches of mathematics,'

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and insert instead 'and such branches of knowledge as the committee shall consider necessary to be taught in their district.'" The words before and were: Reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar.

On December 16, 1834, in the Delaware Gazette and Watchman, a private school, Milford Academy, advertising an English and classical curriculum offered the following:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| Reading, Writing, Arithmetic and composition, | $3.00 per | quarter |
| Grammar, Geography, & History | 4.00 " | " |
| Algebra, Geometry, Surveying, Navigation | 5.00 " | " |
| Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, and Rhetoric | 5.00 " | " |
| Latin and Greek | 6.00 " | " |

Although this is not the course of study of a public school it does show what the class of Delawareans able to patronize a modest private school expected their sons to receive as a "sound English education," and gives an idea of the subject-grouping then traditional.

A few months earlier, October 17, 1834, the same paper carried an advertisement from a Dover resident who wished a Free School appointment. He stated that he "can be well recommended for correctness of deportment and competency of teaching Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, English Grammar, and Geography."

Two weeks later, October 31, a district in Appoquinimink Hundred advertised for a "good teacher, who can come well recommended, and is well qualified for teaching the various branches of the English language."

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In 1836 a large group of influential citizens of New Castle county who were interested in the public schools gathered as delegates to a convention in Wilmington to discuss the problems facing the new system. The immediate reason for meeting was to obtain from the General Assembly more satisfactory financial support for public education; the success of the first meeting led to a permanent organization. From the second Convention, December 5, 1837, through the last of which we have record, September 13, 1856, a great variety of topics came up for consideration. It likewise became customary for the districts to report the condition and progress of their school to this meeting. Consequently, though the material is far from a complete survey of the school practice of even this one county, it does give an interesting sidelight on what the schools of a century ago considered desirable.

The 1836 meeting reported the schools in general in very sickly condition. Many districts had failed to provide one of any sort; several had opened one, only to be unable to maintain it for any considerable period; "and in few, if any (districts) had there been the success that the public good requires."

At the second Convention, 1837, 46 districts reported in one way or another on their school. Many included details concerning curriculum; most had attempted only the rudiments, though a few had introduced mathematics and "some of the higher branches of an English education"; one was experimenting with a course in minerology and had acquired a cabinet of

between three and four hundred specimens.*

The matter of uniform texts, which was to plague Delaware schools until the 1890's, makes its first appearance in 1837 as a topic for discussion. The meeting recommended that, as a matter of convenience for teachers and pupils alike, the same texts be adopted by the various districts. A tentative recommended list suggested Angell's Series of Spelling and Reading books, I-VI; Emerson's Arithmetic, I-III; Smith's Geography and Atlas; Smith's Grammar, and Olney's History of the United States. An additional resolution condemned the use of "any book or text containing sectarian sentiments."

Wilmington, whose two-room building was designed for three hundred students, reported that it had originally organized on the Lancastrian plan, but had abandoned it for the boys as unsuited to their needs. Since this meeting was held in the early fall of 1837, and the Wilmington school had opened April 25, 1836, the Lancastrian experiment had been very short-lived.

During this same year many schools complained that satisfactory teachers were hard to find, and harder to keep. Wilmington wailed that there was "great difficulty because we have no male teachers educated among ourselves who plan to continue as teachers. In consequence the wages of male teachers are high and it becomes difficult to obtain them."

* About half these institutions had been in operation less than seven years, and none except occasional subscription schools, absorbed into the public system on its organization, had been in existence over a longer period; no mention is made of this fact, in the Report, but the writer noticed that Forwood School, in continuous operation from 1799-1839, was represented.

Several detailed reports from districts appear in 1838. Wilmington had had an enrollment of 217 the previous year; 117 of these students wrote in copy books, the rest on slates; the girls, who followed in general the same course of study as their brothers, used two days a week for instruction in needlework. (It is not clear from the wording whether the entire day was actually given over to this purpose, or whether there was merely some instruction twice a week.) Brandywine School boasted 74 students, 52 of whom could read and write legibly, 40 of whom were studying arithmetic, and eight or ten English grammar. Several of the older pupils were making excellent progress in mathematics (apparently implying something above elementary arithmetic), and two former students had successfully undertaken the supervision of neighboring schools. Other schools reported classes in geography, grammar, mensuration, and bookkeeping. These were, of course, the most progressive districts; the same report tells of overcrowding, schools in session only four or five months, irregular attendance, and disgraceful pittances offered teachers, all of which indicate far from satisfactory conditions in sections that did not want a good school enough to pay for it, or lacked leaders competent to organize one.

No further items concerning curriculum are available until the Convention of 1845. The indirect indications of content and method in the reports for the intervening years suggest alternating improvement and retrogression in individual schools. Schools were in session longer than they had been a few years earlier; attendance was still a serious problem, and many

districts still did not have satisfactory teachers; the general trend, however, appears to have been upward. The curriculum offering in 1845 was far richer, in the schools which reported this item, than in 1838.

All the schools which mentioned subjects at all listed reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, and spelling. Five add to this grammar, seven mensuration, six surveying, nine algebra, nine philosophy, seven geometry; one each chemistry, logic, Latin, music, astronomy, and Watt's on the Mind (elementary psychology?); two history, and three each composition, declamation, and bookkeeping. Only twenty-six schools in the county had made a report during this year; probably all the really active districts were among them, so the material above is suggestive merely of the work some of the better schools were attempting, not of the typical offering throughout the State.

Newark appears to have had a rather complete high school course; it calls special attention to its music as a regular subject of instruction, and recommends it heartily to other districts. This district was by 1845 definitely trying to equal the private schools, largely because it had previously felt the competition of the academies especially keenly; as soon as a child showed promise, he was whisked away to one of them, and the public school above the first few grades was left to dullards and the indifferent.

Wilmington had three schools. The Primary Male School enrolled 113 pupils, to whom Aquila Thomas taught "letters, spelling, and writing on slates" at $200 per year. The Principal

Male School had 250 boys; it paid J. R. Hayes $525, and Leah Hayes $250 (~~possibly for fall-winter and spring-summer terms respectively, since the enrollments are given separately for the two seasons~~) to instruct them in reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling and definitions, grammar, geography, astronomy, history, and bookkeeping. The Female School listed 300 as belonging, though, as in the two boys' departments, actual attendance was much lower than the enrollment; under Ann Wilkinson, whose salary was $300, the girls studied the same curriculum as that offered the boys, with the exception of two days weekly devoted to needlework. (Whether this literally means what it says is still not clear.) The program required the assistance of two subordinate instructors who received a princely $50 apiece annually.

The effort which the conventions had been making for years to persuade the districts to obtain libraries, and to establish lyceums for adult discussion and lecture courses seems to have borne little fruit. Only four districts mention the existence of a school library, and attempts at adult education seem to have been all but abandoned.

The following year, 1846, shows little change in the curriculum picture, though more schools report Latin, history, and mathematics as part of the program. The high school in fact, though not in name, appears to have been creeping into the more alert districts, at least in the years when they were lucky enough to secure an unusually competent instructor. One point to be mentioned in this connection is that schools reported flourishing and offering broad and experimental programs of study for a few years frequently lagged after a little, while

others that had previously merely existed blossomed into brief periods of leadership. The writer talked with an alumnus at a reunion of Forwood School who remarked that, in the 1870's and 1880's, when he was attending rural schools, they offered "whatever the teacher could give -- sometimes only the modern equivalent of the first few grades, sometimes a considerable part of a modern academic high school program." The Convention Reports offer ample evidence that this was the case in earlier years also.

The 1847 Convention passed a resolution recommending "that the commissioners be recommended to procure for the use of the schools the map of New Castle county." It also presented for consideration the following year that all teachers thereafter be required to "present a certificate of qualification from the committee to be selected as a board of examiners." There was an abortive attempt to organize a Teachers' Association; at the poorly attended meeting, one of the principal topics discussed was the hardy perennial of uniform texts.

The next few meetings of the Convention were chiefly devoted to efforts to arouse the public to the need for supplying sanitary, well-lighted buildings, to securing efficient teachers, and to a defense of the theory of public education. The next specific discussion of curriculum came in 1850, in a comment Willard Hall added to the published proceedings of the convention.

He complained that the schools were becoming infected with a devotion to quantity, which was leading them to drill their students in meaningless exercises, incorrectly done, and from which they learned nothing but inaccuracy and inattention. In all schools, private as well as public, he detected a tendency to

produce pupils "superficial in all," and to rob them of the thrill of accomplishing something really complete and good. His entire discussion, reproduced elsewhere, is worth examination.

Concerning the actual curriculum, he writes that reading, writing, arithmetic, and grammar are obvious fundamentals. Geography of the United States and of the world, supplemented with a little geology, is likewise essential. Astronomy should be offered since "no knowledge is so exalting and expanding." Familiarity with American history, too, should be part of every citizen's heritage. Fundamentals of chemistry are useful both to farmers and housewives, and deserve a place in the public school program. A knowledge of physiology and hygiene sufficient to enable a man to protect his health should also be taught. From this curriculum outline, with the more extended discussion of the same topic found elsewhere in his writings, we are justified in assuming that the judge would have completely approved of the "Seven Cardinal Principles of Education" so much discussed in contemporary textbooks on educational theory.

The resolutions passed at the same convention urged the introduction into the schools of some book which should "instruct the pupils upon the privileges and duties of American citizenship." It also recommended the use of "some plain compendious treatise on Natural Theology."

Another of Hall's comments bears indirectly upon curriculum. He remarked that if a State neglects developing the minds of all its citizens it is throwing away its best resource, and continues:

> "It is the essential of common schools that they educate men for the community; that

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> through the education given by them, one is not elevated above another, but the whole community is elevated . . . . While they open to the individual a new field of enjoyment which he could not otherwise know, they invest him with advantages in every relation."

The next year (1851) the convention returned to the old problem of uniform texts, recommending that part of the dividend be used to purchase books for resale at cost to the students so that satisfactory grading might be introduced. The committee which had considered the matter found that, in the majority of districts, students were using many different types of text for about the same work. Making uniform texts available at publishers' prices would permit far more economical use of school time, and, once the plan was in operation, would reduce the students' book bills. The convention was still urging the districts to obtain libraries; a good foundation collection might be acquired for only twenty dollars.

In 1852, a resolution of the convention urged that the commissioners and clerks of the school districts should be present at the school at least once a month to learn the progress the children were making, the general condition and management of the school, and the qualifications of the teacher. The same resolution recommended that cases be placed in each school for minerals and geological specimens, and that the teachers be encouraged to have collections made; that agricultural chemistry be generally taught; and that teachers be licensed after examination of their educational and personal fitness and no unaccredited persons employed. This last objective would have required the cooperation of the legislature.

In 1855 Dr. A. H. Grimshaw made his first report as

section removed for inclusion in curr. 1830 +D

Mary Mazzeo
March 6, 1940





NEWSPAPER EXTRACTS - 1839

Thoughts on Common Schools No. 1
From the Delaware State Journal, June 21, 1839.

What have the citizens of Delaware gained by the School Law now in force in this State?

The first obvious advantage which resulted from the present school law was the laying off of the State into school districts, and the erection of school houses so as to be accessible to all the inhabitants.

A second advantage is that a large proportion of the County Districts are now able to support a school during the whole year, whereas before the present system came into operation, but comparatively few neighborhoods in the county supported a school during the summer months.

A third advantage resulting from this law has been to increase the number of scholars who attend school, and to extend the blessings of education to all classes of the community. This has been the effect in every school with which I am acquainted. In the town of Smyrna, where before the passage of the present law there was great difficulty in supporting one good school, there are now employed two males, and one female as teachers, and the number of scholars would justify the employment of another teacher. And in many county districts where there could not be a school kept up during the summer months, there are now taught from twenty to forty scholars: Many of whom are children of poor parents, who under the operation of the old system would actually have been, or would have supposed themselves to be, too poor to educate their children.

Who then would attempt to compute the benefits this state has derived, and may derive from its school law . . . And when I have seen the children of the poorest class, day after day, wending their way to the school room, and evincing by the rapidity of their improvement, that although Heaven has cast their lots amid the sons of poverty and toil, it has blessed them with intellectual capacities of the highest order - I have blessed a thousand times our school law, and have thought that the men who devised and matured it deserve a proud place in the hearts of their fellow citizens.

That the present school law might be improved is very possible. But I have always observed that the persons who are most clamorous for alterations, and who tell us that it compels the poor to educate the children of the rich: are the very men who are least anxious that the poor should be educated, and thereby be placed on a level with the children of those who would drive back the inestimable blessing of education to those costly institutions.

"Before whose gates exclusive wealth stands guard

Repelling all who entrance seek without the pass of fortune."

An Advocate for General Education Smyrna, June 12th, 1839.

## TENTATIVE WORKING OUTLINE



(Note: Breakdown for five main parts
follows on next page.)

TENTATIVE WORKING SCHEDULE (In Detail)

Breakdown for Five Main Parts

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PART I---BACKGROUND AND FUNCTIONS

Section 1-----Introduction (Background of basic law)

Section 2-----Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act

Section 3-----Financing--Appropriations and Budgets

Section 4-----George-Dean Vocational Education Act.

PART II---DELAWARE'S PLAN FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Section 1-----Introduction

Section 2-----Vocational Agriculture

Section 3-----Vocational Home Economics

Section 4-----Vocational Trades and Industries

A---Scope of Training

B---Methods and Materials of Training

Section 5-----Vocational Distributive Occupations

Section 6-----Vocational Rehabilitation

Section 7-----Vocational Training and the National Defense Program

PART III---PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN THE STATE COLLEGES

Section 1-----Introduction (Background; professional education defined)

Section 2-----Teacher Training

A---At Delaware College

B---At Women's College of Delaware

C---At State College for Colored Students

D---Summer Schools

E---Teachers' Institutes

TENTATIVE WORKING SCHEDULE (Continued)

Section 3-----Agricultural Education

A---At Delaware

B---At State College for Colored Students

Section 4-----Engineering Education

A---Civil Engineering at Delaware College

B---Mechanical Engineering at Delaware College

C---Electrical Engineering at Delaware College

D---Chemical Engineering at Delaware College

Section 5-----Chemical Education

A---Industrial Chemistry at Delaware College

B---Agricultural Chemistry at Delaware College

C---Bacteriological Chemistry at Women's College

D---Chemical Training at State College for Colored Students

Section 6-----Home Economics Education

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rence W. Evans
uary 9, 1940



# Part I

## BACKGROUND AND FUNCTIONS

### Section I

### Introduction

Few, if any, States in the Federal Union have made greater strides in vocational education than Delaware since its adoption, on April 2, 1917, of the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act. Prior to July 1 of that year, when the Congressional provisions of the act became operative, no work of a specifically vocational character had been included in the curricula of the "First State's" public schools. That preparation had been left wholly to the apprenticeship system of the trades unions or independent journeymen and to the private business and technical schools.

Before 1917, public education in Delaware, for the most part, had been strictly academic, or cultural, with its basis rooted in the traditional classics, languages, and the Three R's. In some schools, mainly in Wilmington, a few so-called "practical" courses had embraced domestic science, manual arts, and "commercial" classes in bookkeeping, shorthand, and related business subjects. But--those courses were not organized into any semblance of vocational classes designed specifically to prepare students to become wage earners in definitely established trades.

Dawn of a new, more practical, educational era may be said, factually, to have been hastened by the advent of World War of 1914-18, which served to step up industrial activity as well as agricultural enterprise. With the sudden expansion of both

domestic and foreign markets came increased production and a consequent shortage in skilled labor. More and better mechanics and more efficiently trained agriculturists were as essential as the armies and the navies in pressing the conflict against the Central Powers. Educators, caught in the maelstrom of grim reality, forgot, in part, the classic past and mere cultural education, and turned their minds patriotically toward the pressing need of the present for practical training. Thus, the Nation's--and Delaware's--first legislation to spur vocational education through Federal aid was born, in a measure, as a war child--born, as it were, through a Caesarean operation hastened by exigencies of war-time industrial needs, although far-sighted educators had pioneered for several decades in scattered and sporadic experiments in vocational education.

It has long been said, in truth, that "necessity is the mother of invention," and thus it was that industrial necessity spurred passage by the 64th Congress, on February 23, 1917, of the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act, keystone of a national system of practical training for industrial, commercial, agricultural, and home making employment.

Accepted for Delaware by State statute on April 2, 1917--four days prior to America's entry into the European War--the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act, as legally initiated on July 1, of that year, released for the first time Federal funds to each of the States to promote <u>specific</u> vocational training in <u>agriculture</u>, in <u>home economics</u>, in <u>trades and industries</u>, and in <u>teacher training</u> for these specific vocational fields.

Sponsors of the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act were specific as to the aims of their legislation and the definite

meaning of the term, "vocational education," as encompassed by the act. The general aim of the act's framers envisioned definite means and methods of educating young men and young women to earn livelihoods specifically in industrial trades, homemaking, and agricultural pursuits. And the groups intended to be reached by the types of training provided under the act are those who are either definitely headed toward these particular wage-earning occupations or are already engaged in them.

Original intent of the vocational act's framers and common usage have given to the term "vocational education" the narrowed meaning of simply "trade training." This narrow definition is accepted generally by educators, industrialists, and general public alike, although vocational education may be employed literally to cover the entire range of specific preparation for particular specialized jobs, from the short, intensive, partial trade-instruction course to that of the professional and technical training received at higher institutions of learning.

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Part I - Section 2

Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act

In accepting for Delaware the benefits of the Federal vocational legislation [incorporated in 1919--two years later--as part of the general school code] the General Assembly's enactment read:

"The State Board of Education is authorized, empowered, directed, and required, along with the State Commissioner of Education to co-operate with the Federal Board of Vocational Education in the administration of the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act. The State of Delaware accepts the benefits of this act passed by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, entitled: 'An Act to provide for the promotion of vocational education; to provide for co-operation with the State in the promotion of such education in agriculture and the trades and industries; to provide for the co-operation with the State in the preparation of teachers of vocational subjects; and to appropriate money and regulate its expenditure,' and will observe and comply with all the requirements of said Act, and the State Treasurer is hereby designated as custodian of any funds accruing to the State from the aforesaid Act."

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The members of the Delaware State Board of Education were designated, with inauguration of the act's provisions, as the State Board for Vocational Education, and have served since in such dual capacity.

In strict compliance with the Federal law, Delaware, as prerequisite to receiving the benefits provided under the Smith-Hughes Act, enacted legislation specifically covering three points: (1) acceptance of all provisions of the act; (2) designation of a State board to administer the act, and (3) appointment of the State Treasurer as custodian of Federal funds accruing to the State under the act.

Summarized, the provisions of the act encompass, in addition to the aforementioned stipulations: (1) national aid to States for teachers' salaries in the schools, or classes, created--such

aid which the State must duplicate dollar for dollar; (2) Federal supervision of work and expenditure; (3) national studies and investigations regarding needs in agriculture, industry, trade, home economics and commerce, with emphasis on courses of instruction; (4) stipulation that courses must be given in public schools, must be for those over 14 years of age, must be of less than college grade, may be organized into full-time or part-time periods of instruction, and must be primarily for those preparing to enter or who have entered a trade or useful industrial pursuit.

Under the Smith-Hughes legislation, national aid to the State is divided as follows:

(1) Co-operation with the State in paying salaries for agricultural instruction, with allotments to be made in proportion which the State's total rural population bears to the total rural population in the United States.

(2) Co-operation with the State in paying salaries for instruction in home economics, trades and industrial subjects, with allotments to be made in proportion which the State's total urban population bears to the total urban population in the United States.

(3) Co-operation with the State in teacher training for vocational courses, with allotments to be made in proportion which the State's total population bears to the total population in the United States.

(4) Co-operation with the State in making studies and investigations, and the preparation of reports as to means and courses in vocational education, including agriculture, home economics, trades, industry, and commerce.

Under Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education, in strict harmony with the Federal law, administrative powers are vested in a State Board for Vocational Education. The personnel of this board is comprised of all members of the State Board of Education--serving ex officio in this dual capacity.

Sitting as the Executive Secretary of both of these boards is the ~~"Blue Hen State's"~~ Superintendent of the Department of Public Instruction.

Active supervision of the State-wide work under the Smith-Hughes Act is the function of the State Director for Vocational Education, with authority of this office, at present, vested in the University of Delaware's Professor of Vocational Agricultural Education.

The State Supervisors who carry on their work under this State Director include: State Supervisor of Vocational Agriculture; State Supervisor of Trades and Industries; State Supervisor of Home Economics. They are assisted by various State assistant supervisors, local supervisors, teachers, teacher trainers, and assistant teacher trainers.

Duties of the State Director, who is in general charge of development and direction of all vocational work supported in whole or part by State or Federal funds, comprise: (a) outlining policies for presentation to the State Board; (b) preparing State-wide plans with the aid of the supervisors; (c) directing the promotion of vocational education; (d) acting as the medium between State and Federal Boards; (e) directing the work of the vocational staff; (f) preparing forms for reports of vocational schools and classes and teacher training classes; (g) recommending schools and classes to the State Board for approval and reimburse-

ments from earmarked funds for vocational courses; (h) bringing together all persons interested in vocational education in support of State programs; (i) educating the State as to the meaning--the significance--of vocational education.

Since 1920, provisions of the Federal vocational education legislation have been extended so as to enable participation by the States in a program of vocational rehabilitation of disabled civilians, but to date (January, 1940) Delaware has not accepted benefits under this law. Delaware, in fact, is the only State in the Union not now co-operating with the Federal Government in this important humanitarian work for the retraining of persons injured in industry.

Progress under the Smith-Hughes Act was steady and far-reaching during the first decade of its operation, and ambitious youth and industry alike took advantage of its benefits in ever-increasing numbers. Although Delaware as a predominantly agricultural State centered a large percentage of its vocational work in furthering farm production, the effect of Federal aid was felt notably in the State's trade and industrial field. Late in 1935, a "Shoppers' Bureau" was organized in co-operation with the Mercantile Section of the Wilmington Chamber of Commerce and the Works Progress Administration, now the Works Projects Administration.

It was through the training afforded young men and women in buying conducted by this "Shoppers' Bureau" that classes in distributive occupations were organized as a sub-division of the work supervised by the State Supervisor of Trades and Industries and placed directly under the guidance of an aide designated as Assistant State Supervisor of Distributive Trades.

Services of these shoppers were made available to any store or sales organization upon request, which requested conferences in merchandising and salesmanship. These conferences, to a large extent, gave impetus to crystallization of plans for broadening of the trades and industries vocational work to include distributive occupations. Plans for such education became reality with passage by Congress, on June 8, 1936, of the George-Dean Act, which, among other provisions, authorized appropriations to the States for use in the teaching of distributive occupations.

In 1937, an Assistant State Supervisor of Distributive Trades was added to the State school system to plan and organize classes and select and train teachers in his vocational field. Training in the distributive trades-- concerned mainly with selling and buying, both retail and wholesale--encompasses education in salesmanship, show card writing, window trimming and store display, sales promotion, retail advertisement, and merchandising. Importance of this branch of vocational training is emphasized by the greater number of jobs available in the merchandising field to trained workers than in other lines of endeavor.

Retraining of workers through distributive trade training plays an important part in the program. Through retraining, "round pegs in square holes" have been profitably adjusted in the economic world to the advantage of both employee and employer.

Impetus to plans for definitely incorporating distributive education in Delaware's vocational training given through success of the "Shoppers' Bureau" was accelerated by a survey in 1937 to determine how the work of the salespeople in retail stores could be improved. This survey was conducted by National

Youth Administration juniors and seniors from the University of Delaware. The findings of this group became the basis for much of the subsequent store training since conducted. Co-operative education, with the students dividing their time between classrooms and places of employment has proved highly practical. The work has been advanced materially by excellent support given by the Wilmington Chamber of Commerce, local service clubs, civic associations, and individual merchants. Both day and evening co-operative classes are offered, in trade and secondary schools.

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Part I - Section 3

Financing--Appropriations and Budgets

Every dollar of Federal funds provided through the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act to aid the State's public schools must be matched by a dollar of State or local money, or contributed to by both. Reimbursements to schools from Federal funds will be made only for: (a) salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of agriculture courses and their assistants; (b) salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of trades and industries and home economics subjects and their aides; (c) specialized training for vocational teachers.

Financial aid appropriated by both the Federal and the State governments to advance the program in Delaware of all branches of vocational education has increased steadily since the first United States grant under the Smith-Hughes Act. That initial Congressional appropriation gave Delaware $15,000 for the fiscal year, 1917-1918, ending June 30, and which Delaware, under the law, matched dollar for dollar. The following year's vocational appropriations totaled the same amount. Thereafter, for four fiscal years, ending June 30, 1923, the Federal grants increased to $20,000, as did those of the State. With the beginning of the fiscal year, July 1, 1923, and annually thereafter, benefits from the Washington government for vocational work have been $30,000, with yearly matching appropriations made by the ~~"Diamond State's"~~ General Assembly.

During the first two fiscal years--July 1, 1917, to June 30, 1919--the grant was divided equally among three divisions of vocational work: (1) agriculture instruction; (2) instruction in

trades and industries and home economics; (3) teacher training. Each division received $5,000 of Federal money, with a like sum from the State Treasury.

With the first increase of the Federal grant, however, in 1919, the additional $5,000 was allocated to the teacher training division, with the State, as before, matching the fund dollar for dollar. The annual funds for the two instructional divisions remained the same. This ratio of Federal financial aid--$10,000 for teacher training, and $5,000 each for the agricultural instruction division and the division covering courses in trades, industries, and home economics--continued through four fiscal years, from 1919 to 1923, with the required matching appropriations made annually by the State.

When the Federal Government's appropriations reached the annual maximum under the Smith-Hughes Act, $30,000, with the beginning of the fiscal year, July 1, 1923, the amount was divided equally among the three divisions of vocational work, and have so remained. The allocations at present consist of $10,000 of Federal money and $10,000 of State money for each of the aforementioned three divisions.

The task of training the farmer, the mechanic, the housewife, and the merchandising worker to do better jobs had so increased in importance and size, by 1936, that additional appropriations for the work were sought and granted by Congress. Additional payments to the States to advance vocational education were approved under the George-Dean Act, passed by the U.S. Senate and House of Representatives on June 8, 1936. The act more than doubled Federal allotments to Delaware for the annual cost of vocational education.

Due to operation of the new George-Dean Act in Delaware for

the fiscal year, July 1, 1937, to June 30, 1938, an increase of $51,818 in Federal funds and an increase of $15,000 in State funds gave impetus to vocational training.

Inestimable has been the practical value of vocational training to workers and employers alike during that twenty-three year span since this concept of education became an integral part of of the Delaware school system. The results of vocational education cannot be measured with fairness by the amount of cash expended for its operation and maintenance. But it may be assumed, logically, that it has proved of practical value when it is noted that the work has expanded steadily from year to year, necessitating increased appropriations from both the Federal and State governments.

Delaware's total current expenses for public education for the fiscal year, 1937-1938, amounted to $4,147,997.88. Included in this sum was the State's total expenditures for vocational education, which amounted to $162,080.74. The break-down for vocational money outlay follows:

Vocational Expenditures (1937-1938)

| | State and Local | Federal | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture | $19,924.55 | $29,849.09 | $49,773.64 |
| Trade and Industry | 18,615.48 | 27,064.22 | 45,679.70 |
| Home Economics | 10,091.67 | 20,000.00 | 30,091.67 |
| Teacher Training | 13,358.22 | 13,358.22 | 26,716.44 |
| Distributive Occupations | 3,273.10 | 6,546.19 | 9,819.29 |
| Total | $65,263.02 | $96,817.72 | $162,080.74 |

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C.W.E.
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Part I - Section 4

George-Dean Vocational Education Act

Far-sightedness and generosity of national government leaders have been responsible, in large part, for the financial key without which Delaware's door to greater vocational education opportunities would have remained closed indefinitely for lack of funds. Passage by Congress, in 1917, of the Smith-Hughes law had unlocked gateways into broader fields of public training, but it was not till enactment, in 1936, of the George-Dean Vocational Education Act that sufficient funds were made available for practical cultivation of all of these fields and experimentation with others new to commerce.

It was on June 8, 1936, that Congress, through the George-Dean Act, provided for further development of vocational education in the several States and Territories, thereby considerably boosting Delaware's funds earmarked for that purpose. These new Federal funds, however, did not become operative in Delaware until the beginning of the fiscal year, July 1, 1937.

Hitherto, Delaware's appropriations from Washington had amounted to $30,000 annually, matched dollar for dollar by State funds; the new act provided an increase of $51,818 in Federal cash and an increase of $15,000 in State funds for the first year. Expenditures in the State for vocational training totalled $162,080.74 for the fiscal year 1937-1938. Provisions governing George-Dean

appropriations to the State more than double future trade training funds if Delaware appropriates State funds in proportions stipulated by the Federal act.

Periodic increases in funds, to supplement those provided under the Smith-Hughes Act, assure the individual States, through the George-Dean Act, of means upon which to base future expansion of vocational training. The supplementary act's provisions for appropriations stipulate that the State must match 50 percent of the Federal allotments until June 30, 1942, 60 percent for the year ending June 30, 1943, 70 percent for the year ending June 30, 1944, 80 percent for the year ending June 30, 1945, 90 percent for the year ending June 30, 1946, and annually thereafter 100 percent.

As originally enacted, the George-Dean legislation set aside a fund that totalled $12,000,000 for apportionment among the States and Territories in aiding vocational education in agriculture, home economics, and the trades and industries. One-third of the State's allotment was required to be based on the proportion that its farm population bore to the entire farm population of the United States, according to the U. S. census last preceding the end of the fiscal year in which any such allotment was to be made. This one-third appropriation was to be used for salaries and traveling expenses of teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects. Educators in home economics subjects were empowered to use a third of the appropriation, after allotment based on the proportion that the State's rural popula-

tion bore to the entire rural population of the Nation. On the proportion that the State's non-farm population bore to that of the entire U. S., one-third of the appropriation was to be alloted to further the work of the trade and industrial educators.

With release of additional Federal money for use in Delaware's vocational program, many undeveloped fields, particularly distributive occupations, experienced extensive cultivation. In addition to the $12,000,000 set aside under the George-Dean Act for salaries and traveling expenses of vocational educators, the legislation provided also a fund of $1,200,000 to be apportioned among the States for work in the distributive occupations. Allotments for this purpose were to be designated for use as salaries and traveling expenses of educators and the maintenance of teacher training in merchandising subjects. The appropriation to the State from this fund must be matched by the State in the proportion that its total population bears to the total population of the United States and Territories.

A third fund of $1,000,000 was set aside annually, under the George-Dean Act, for the preparation of teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural, home economics, and trade and industrial subjects. The law stipulates that allotments from this fund will be made to the State in the proportion that its total population bears to the total population of the United States and its Territories.

Broadening of opportunities for vocational training, expansion of teacher training facilities, and additions of more and better equipment for work in the fields of education dedicated to the primary aim of economic efficiency constitute the far-reaching results of more

Federal capital released to Delaware through operation of the George-Dean Act. The most important factor in obtaining public support for building of Wilmington's H. Fletcher Brown Vocational High School was passage of the George-Dean law. It was due to this act, supplementary to the Smith-Hughes legislation, that facilities were made possible in Delaware's chief city for instruction in hitherto undeveloped fields, including the metal trades, painting and decorating, industrial chemistry, beauty culture, commercial art, the foundry trades, merchandising, and radio maintenance, and expansion made possible in the skilled trades already offered in the Wilmington Trade School since superseded by the Brown School.

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C.W.E.
6/3/40

Clarence W. Evans
June 4, 1940

Part II

DELAWARE'S PLAN FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Section 1

Introduction

To train potential workmen to become educated producers in specific callings is the keynote upon which is based all occupational training under Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education. Since 1917, when Delaware accepted Federal benefits under the Smith-Hughes Act, the State's Division of Vocational Education has operated under such a Plan, revising its provisions every five years to meet the ever-changing conditions of economic and social life. The five-year plan now governing the aims, methods, and materials of instruction in Delaware's agricultural, homemaking, and industrial trade courses was approved by the State Board for Vocational Education on May 21, 1937. (B) (C) (G)

Devised to meet the requirements of the Smith-Hughes Act and supplementary Federal enactments, the revised State plan lays down specific regulations for the apportioning of Government and State funds among the public schools supporting vocational instruction or teacher training in agriculture, home economics, industrial trades, distributive (merchandising) occupations, and technical pursuits, and for retraining leading to the economic rehabilitation of workers. The plan further outlines the functions of the State Board for Vocational Education, the personnel of which comprises <u>all</u> members of the general State Board of Education, responsible for efficient operation of the Department of Public Instruction's Division of Vocational Education. (F) (G)

The administrative chief of this division is the State Director for Vocational Education, with authority of this post vested in the University of Delaware's Professor of Vocational Agricultural Education. The director is responsible for reports of his supervisory staff to the State Board, the Executive Secretary of which is the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. State Supervisors head the division's three main sub-divisions, namely: Agricultural education, home economics education, and training in trades and industries. Under the latter, there has been developed what is, in effect, a separate sub-division, distributive trades education, headed by an assistant supervisor. A recent development is a unit of the division devoted to the rehabilitation of the industrially handicapped. (F)

The years since the birth of organized vocational training have been marked in Delaware, as elsewhere throughout the land, by steadily progressive steps whereby the school and industry have solidified their contacts. As a consequence, the objectives, the methods of teaching, the physical equipment, and the very atmosphere of the State's vocational program have been decisive factors in shaping its course. If the trend of Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education is to specialize narrowly, the fact must be remembered that such specialization follows the demands made by every field of industry for which vocational students are being prepared. (B)

Keyed to the inexorable fact that youth today faces a highly competitive world are the objectives which influence all phases of training in the State's vocational classes. Occupational trends are watched closely. Educators and industrial leaders alike are sensitive to the ever-shifting tides affecting supply and demand.

Advances in technology, social and economic dislocations of war, and the cataclysmic sweep of the cycle of boom, depression, and recovery have wrought, and are forcing, changes in the social and economic order significant for vocational education. Delaware's Plan is a flexible one, devised to keep in step with the changing times. (B) (G)

Underlying the framework of the State's occupational training structure as its basic stone is vocational adequacy shaped to serve as a cushion against the stress of economic pressure. Delaware's vocational educators, with vocational adequacy ever in the fore, fashion their courses and enrollment to fit, as adequately as possible, the shifting needs of industry. To this end, their frequent surveys take into account these vital factors: (1) Increase of unemployment, particularly in cities; (2) decreased demand for gainful labor of children and youth, due to employment policies and legislation; (3) delayed entry into full vocational responsibilities, due to unemployment and compulsory school extension; (4) the increasing specialization required in many trades and professions; (5) mechanization of many industrial operations; (6) increase in gainful employment of women; (7) a decreasing demand for labor requiring little special training, judgment, or manual dexterity, and (8) an increasing demand for workers with skill, insight, and adaptability. (F)

Based on vocational adequacy, Delaware's Plan aims to increase all phases of the worker's efficiency through shaping individual courses in such a manner that he will be able to achieve economic effectiveness in the creation and use of goods and services. Most persons simply drift into an occupation and become, in too many instances, "square pegs in round holes." It is the purpose of

Delaware's Division of Vocational Education to minimize this all too prevalent waste. In short, Delaware's courses in agriculture, in home economics, and in the various trades and industries operating under the Smith-Hughes Act and supplementary legislation seek to prepare skilled journeymen or technical specialists capable of earning the current wages of their crafts and as educated producers to contribute their bits toward a workable democracy. (B) (F)

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C.W.E.
6/8/40

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March 1, 1940

Part II - Section 2

Vocational Agriculture

Progressively practical has been Delaware's development in the field of vocational agriculture instruction during the past two decades, marked by steady expansion in the program to train present and prospective tillers of the soil for proficiency in farming.

Advancement of agriculture's interests in the "Diamond State" during the twenty-three-year span since inauguration of Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education has been more far-reaching than originally visioned by its pioneer promoters. These advances have been made possible primarily through efficient operation of a systematic program of specialized training, provided by the financial scheme of cooperation between Federal and State Governments.

Agriculture, since the Colonial era, has maintained a position of paramount importance in the economic life of the "First State." Today, approximately three-quarters of the State's total land area is still devoted to farming; nearly a half of the commonwealth's total population dwells in this rural area--a population which makes its livelihood either by farming or in the numerous small rural communities which indirectly depend upon farming for their economic progress. The State's only purely urban center is the City of Wilmington, manufacturing and commercial hub, near its northeastermost corner. Manufacturing in relation to agriculture plays a relatively minor role on the economic stage of the commonwealth beyond Wilmington.

Agricultural Delaware, however, has been faced, like other farming areas of the Nation, with the serious problem of stemming the tide of youth from the home acres to the city in search of more lucrative and satisfying niches in the world's work. The industrial depression has served, in a measure, to check this migration. But the trend toward reversal of the cityward drift has been due, in considerable part during the past decade, to more satisfactory farming conditions, especially making it possible for young men to get vocational satisfaction, financial rewards, and cultural and social life comparable in their scope to that enjoyed in urban lines of endeavor. In this achievement, the instruction under Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education has been mainly responsible.

Public instruction in vocational agriculture, an integral part of Delaware's school system, stems from the office, in Dover, of the State Supervisor of Vocational Agriculture and his aides to classroom units in the commonwealth's three counties. Planned instruction classes are of three kinds: (1) for all-day pupils in high school classes; (2) for young men on the farm, between the ages of 16 and 24, in part-time classes; and (3) for adult farmers in evening classes.

With practical application of farming methods as the keynote of all instruction given under the Delaware Plan, the scope of training encompasses: (1) classroom; (2) farm shop; (3) on the farm, and (4) leadership training through Future Farmers of America (white), New Farmers of America (Negro), and other extra-curricular activities.

That farming is a mode of life as well as a method of making a living is the consistent viewpoint of the State Supervisor and

his teachers of agriculture as they endeavor, through practical scientific education, to improve farm life in Delaware. To this end, these educators have set as major objectives the development of effective abilities in individuals so that they may: (1) become established in farming; (2) produce better products of the soil; (3) manage a farm business; (4) market agricultural products; (5) maintain efficient farm equipment; (6) finance a farm enterprise; (7) conserve soil and other natural resources; (8) cooperate for the common good; (9) maintain a farm home; (10) appreciate farm life; (11) adjust themselves to national and international trends affecting agriculture, and (12) exercise leadership and recognize and follow leadership.

All rural high schools of the State foster vocational agriculture instruction. During the 1938-1939 school term, all of them (22) offered such instruction in the freshman and sophomore years; 14 of them carried the course through the junior year, while in nine of them pupils were afforded the opportunity of a complete four-year agricultural course. Sixteen of these centers, during 1938-1939, were white; six were Negro. That ultimately four-year courses may be established in all centers now fostering specialized agricultural instruction is the goal set by Delaware's vocational educators. At 16 centers, adult farmers were provided during 1938-1939 with evening classes; one center was a part-time school for farm boys.

Not all the men serving as teachers of agriculture in the State schools received their required professional education within Delaware's borders. The majority of the white teachers, however, are graduates of the University of Delaware, at Newark;

all of the Negro teachers except one, during 1938-1939, came from out of the State. Delaware's two higher institutions of learning, Newark's University of Delaware and the State College for Colored Students, at Dover, serve as official training schools for young men who seek to equip themselves for positions as teachers of agriculture under the State Supervisor of Vocational Agriculture.

Great stress is laid by Delaware's State Board for Vocational Education upon adequate collegiate training as a prerequisite before granting teachers' certificates. Such certification is granted to young men only on the recommendation of the State Supervisor of Vocational Agriculture with the approval of the State Director for Vocational Education, who at present (1940) is the University of Delaware's Professor of Vocational Agriculture Education.

For white students, the University of Delaware's School of Agriculture serves as the State's sole training center for secondary school teachers of vocational agriculture subjects. For Negro students, the State College for Colored Students serves a like purpose. Appointments to teaching positions, however, are not restricted to Delaware's colleges, but are open to any holder of a bachelor's degree in agriculture earned at any institution of higher learning approved by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Consistent maintenance of high standards set by the State for the professional and practical background required of its supervisors, teachers, and teacher trainers has been reflected in the vocational courses offered throughout the school system.

Not only must prospective agricultural instructors complete a specialized four-year course in college before being certified to teach, but teachers in service must continue their own education through professional improvement conferences.

Under Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education, based on stipulations of the Smith-Hughes Act, supervisors of vocational agriculture must be graduates of a standard four-year agricultural college; must have been farm-reared, or have had four years' farm experience after the 14th birthday, with one year of that experience having been continuous throughout an entire 12 months' cycle; must have had at least two years' teaching experience in vocational agriculture subjects in a secondary school; must be at least 25 years old, and possess personal qualities indicating leadership in the development and supervision of an agricultural education program.

Major responsibilities of the supervisor are of three kinds: Promotional, inspectional, and instructional. His promotional duties include: (1) the formation of classes; (2) the organization and approval of courses; (3) the mapping of yearly programs of work; (4) the recommendation of teachers; (5) the making of special studies, surveys, and investigations deemed needed and desirable, and (6) cooperation with farming organizations in the preparation of State printed matter on agricultural education for distribution.

The inspectional duties of the supervisor comprise: (1) the general supervision and inspection of work being conducted in the State schools with funds provided wholly or in part by the Federal Government for vocational education; (2) the furnishing of data to the State Board for Vocational Education as sufficient

bases for judging whether individual schools are entitled to reimbursement for expenditures made for vocational agricultural courses.

The instructional duties of the supervisor consist of: (1) individual aid to his agricultural instructors in the various schools through visits to instructional centers; (2) visits to projects carried on by his teachers' pupils, either at school or farm home; (3) individual assistance to his teachers by means of correspondence, supplying advice through personal letters and printed material on vocational education, and (4) cooperation with the teacher training departments of the State colleges by conducting professional improvement conferences of teachers in active service.

Qualifications for teacher trainers in the State college departments of vocational education are set as high as those for educators serving in supervisory capacities in the public school system. These teacher trainers in Delaware's two institutions of higher learning are charged with the responsibility of preparing young men adequately for teaching posts under the State Supervisor of Vocational Agriculture. At the University of Delaware's School of Agriculture, supervision of teacher trainers is vested in the Professor of Vocational Agriculture, who serves also as the State Director for Vocational Education--the State Director not only for agriculture but for all classifications of Vocational education under the Delaware Plan. At the State College for Colored Students' School of Agriculture, supervision of teacher training is under the Director of Agriculture and Teacher Trainer in Vocational Agriculture--one member of the faculty serving in that dual capacity.

Particular stress is laid on practical experience in both farming and teaching, as well as on a broad professional education, in the selection of teacher trainers.

Practical experience in farming is among the major qualifications demanded of all teacher trainers. The requirements for appointment stipulate that they should be practical tillers of the soil, but this requirement may be met fully if they have been reared on farms and actually taken part in the business of farming.

Practical experience in teaching is also a prime requirement. Candidates for teacher training posts should have had at least two years' of successful experience as agricultural instructors in approved vocational schools, the Delaware Plan for Vocational Education points out.

Practical supervisory experience of at least two years in responsible posts, preferably in the field of vocational education in agriculture, is required of all who desire to fill teacher training posts.

Of prime importance, too, is the requirement that all candidates must be thoroughly equipped with both a broad general education and intensive professional school training.

It is stipulated that members of the teacher trainer staffs must be graduates of standard four-year agricultural schools of college grade, or its equivalent, with agricultural and cultural courses properly correlated. The prescribed course for teacher trainers covers four full years of work, divided among: (1) technical agricultural subjects; (2) pedagogical subjects; (3) related science subjects, and (4) humanistic subjects calculated to produce a well-rounded education.

Supervised observation of classroom teaching and practice teaching of vocational agriculture classes also are prerequisites for appointment to posts as teacher trainers in Delaware.

In the teaching of agricultural subjects, Delaware has been consistently progressive. High standards set for certification of teachers compare favorably with those of any other State in the Union; in many instances, instruction methods employed are productive of more satisfactory results than in some sister commonwealths. From the inauguration, in 1917, of vocational education in Delaware, her educators have kept abreast of practical and progressive trends in the methods of vocational teaching.

Qualifications for teachers of agriculture in the State's secondary schools are based, in large part, on the requirements for Federal aid set forth in the Smith-Hughes Act and incorporated in Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education.

A clear vision of rural life and its possibilities, successful farming experience, and a thorough professional training in vocational education are prerequisites for the State's teachers of agriculture.

Teachers in all-day classes in the high school agriculture departments must hold a bachelor of science degree in agriculture from a standard four-year college. Their practical farming experience minimum is set at two years, and must have been acquired since the age of fourteen. When filling vacancies, preference is given to those young men who have been reared on farms. In Delaware's agricultural colleges, teaching preparatory courses are permitted for only those young men, graduates of standard four-year high schools, who have had or are acquiring

practical agricultural experience. Observation and practice teaching are required before graduation.

Teachers in evening classes conducted for adult farmers to supplement their daily employment are, in most cases, the regular day school teachers. Men or women, however, who are equipped with wide and successful farming experience in special phases of agriculture may be approved to assist the regular teachers in conducting such adult classes.

The qualifications for teachers in part-time classes, conducted for young men on the farm, between the ages of 16 and 24, are the same as for instructors in the all-day high schools, with respect to professional and specialized agricultural education. But the school authorities indicate that teachers for this type of work should be equipped with more extended practical experience in farming. Supervised farm practice is stressed in these part-time classes.

In fact, supervised farm practice is the keystone upon which is based all phases of instruction in the scheme of vocational farming education. At least six months' of supervised farm practice is required of all students enrolled in all Delaware vocational agricultural classes, whether these classes be day schools, evening schools, or part-time schools.

A close correlation between agricultural work proper--both classroom studies and farming practice--and rural living is ever present as the goal of educators for all phases of the State's agricultural education program.

This correlation in the day schools is furthered through organization of courses in such a way that classroom instruction

will be divided between purely agricultural subjects and those in a cultural academic category, while time is allotted to practical field training through farm shop practice and supervised home projects on the farms. The Delaware State Plan for Vocational Education requires that each agricultural student carry on a farming project each year from the project's inception to a successful completion. Such project must be correlated to his school work, with full responsibility on his part for financing the enterprise and performing its tasks without the aid of others except supervision by the educational authorities. The home project involves the keeping of books, the taking of inventories, and the making of final statements. Application of scientific principles learned in the classroom thus becomes an important phase of the embryo farmer's training. Each school adapts its program to the type and needs of agriculture prevalent in its area.

The methods of instruction in the day schools, therefore, are planned with the objective in view of equipping the students for practical farming. And the instruction is so organized that the students will profit through demonstrations, the employment of illustrative and reference material, laboratory and farm practice in such proportion as deemed helpful, and group co-operation in extra-curricular activities, particularly the Future Farmers of America and the New Farmers of America.

Accomplishments of vocational education have been materially effected in recent years by the enthusiastic interest youth has displayed in the programs of the Future Farmers of America and the

New Farmers of America. Membership of these two farm youth organizations is nation-wide. The former is limited to boys enrolled in vocational agriculture classes in white public schools, while the latter draws its membership exclusively from boys taking agricultural studies in the State's Negro schools. Chapters of the Delaware Branch of the Future Farmers and of the State Branch of the New Farmers have become firmly established in all schools fostering vocational agricultural classes.

Activities of the Future Farmers and New Farmers are widely diversified and are closely correlated with the work undertaken in classroom and home projects on the farm. Cooperative service to each other and to their communities at large is a cardinal principle upon which the work of the organizations is based. Much of the supervised farm work is carried on under the vocational education program as projects of these two organizations. Activities of the chapters embrace such things as State-wide corn-judging and cattle-judging contests, cooperative buying and selling enterprises, poultry-judging contests, public speaking contests, exhibits at the Kent-Sussex Fair at Harrington and at the annual meetings of the Peninsula Horticultural Society, programs given before service clubs, Granges, school assemblies, and Parent-Teacher associations, and long-time supervised programs relating to agriculture or other phases of rural life.

Practice is an essential part of the training of Delaware's youth in vocational agriculture. Indicative of the value of project work in financial return is the following summary (1938-1939) of the financial status of Delaware boys as a result of their project work:

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|---|---|
| Approximate amount invested in farming ----- | $30,747.00 |
| Approximate amount on deposit in banks ----- | 12,258.00 |
| Amount in local F.F.A. treasuries ---------- | 1,082.00 |
| Net profit from animal projects ---------- | 9,649.98 |
| Net profit from plant projects ---------- | 4,600.27 |
| Prize money won at Kent-Sussex Fair--------- | 472.25 |
| ********** | |
| Ribbons won at Kent-Sussex Fair ---------- | 190 |
| Articles written for newspapers and magazines | 500 |

Correlation of agricultural education's various phases in the State's evening schools is furthered in much the same manner as in the day schools, although emphasis is laid upon conferences in which group discussions of the classes' adult farmer students are supplemented by special instruction needed by a particular group of farmers. In the majority of cases, the regular classroom facilities of the day schools are used as instructional centers. Unit courses are arranged from ten to twenty lessons in length. As in the day schools, a required part of the course is supervised farm practice of at least six months.

In the part-time schools, designed for young men of 16 to 24 years of age engaged in farm work, correlation also is made between classroom work and actual farming projects. These classes are intended primarily for those young men, not regularly enrolled in day schools, who have facilities for directed or supervised farm practice. The instructional work is organized into unit courses, planned to help them in getting established in agriculture through classroom studies and related activities aimed toward advancing their civic and vocational intelligence. A minimum of ten sessions is set for each course. As in the day and evening schools, a minumum of six months of actual farm practice, also supervised, is required. The instructional program includes demonstrations and discussions in the classroom, and practical application by the students of the principles of agriculture

studied.

At the apex of Delaware's scheme of education in vocational agriculture stand the commonwealth's two institutions of higher learning, the University of Delaware and the State College for Colored Students. Under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act, Federal funds earmarked specifically for the furtherance of vocational training are allotted annually to these colleges. Such money must be used only in the preparation of young men for secondary school posts as teachers of vocational agriculture. Vocational training, of course, is given in these schools for agricultural fields other than teaching, but those non-teaching fields do not come within the scope of Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education based on Federal financial aid through operation of the Smith-Hughes Act.

In addition to the specifically vocational teaching course, Agricultural Education, the curricula of the University of Delaware's School of Agriculture include specialized courses in Agronomy, Animal Industry, Horticulture, Poultry Husbandry, Farm Mechanics, Animal Genetics, and Agricultural Economics. All of these are standard four-year courses, leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Agriculture, planned to fit students, according to studies pursued, to: (1) teach agriculture or science in high school or college; (2) become associated with industrial enterprises economically allied to agriculture; (3) enter farming directly as a means of livelihood; (4) become members of Agricultural Extension staffs; and (5) pursue graduate research in the scientific agriculture field.

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At the State College for Colored Students, courses in its School of Agriculture are organized with the same purposes in view as the curricula followed at the University of Delaware.

To summarize--Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education seeks to provide, in the field of agriculture, a comprehensive program, closely correlating classroom instruction and practical farm work in such a manner that the student will be able to reap adequate pecuniary and occupational satisfaction from the pursuit of farming.

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C.W.E.
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Part II - Section 3

Vocational Home Economics

Of all the multiple lines of human endeavor woven into the fabric of American life, homemaking stands supreme, eclipsing all other occupations in its basic importance to the individual and society and in the relative number of its devotees. No other occupation is as old as homemaking; its age is coeval with mankind. Its roots, extending deeply into the past, are entwined about the very foundations of society and have nurtured the growth of family life, thereby creating the need and incentive for all other divisions of labor. Significant is the fact that more women are engaged in homemaking than in any other occupation to which either men or women devote their time.

Only in recent years, however, have educators and economists recognized the importance of homemaking as a vocation and provided, within the public school system, courses in home economics comparable in scope to those for vocations in the industrial, merchandising, and agricultural fields. Systematically organized training in home economics is a relatively modern development in education. Its definite inception came with passage, in 1917, of Federal legislation providing for financial cooperation with the States in establishment and maintenance of distinctly vocational classes. Known as the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act, this legislation set up definite standards under which young men and women received practical training in livelihoods in definite callings. Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education, in strict accordance with this Federal statute, has proved its practical worth in the steady progress achieved through homemaking instruction toward better home management and consequent

contributions to cooperative community life.

In Delaware, as in other parts of the Nation, public education in the household arts and sciences had been accorded scant attention before inauguration of vocational training outlined by the Smith-Hughes Act. Before 1917, the "First State's" homemaking instruction was confined solely to a few academic courses in "domestic science," taught mainly in the city schools of Wilmington and regarded primarily as part of the pupils' general education rather than practical vocational training for homemaking. Those out-moded domestic science courses, therefore, were devoid of the keynote of the modern home economics course--the keynote which is specialized training for productive service in a specific homemaking vocation.

Under Delaware's Plan, the primary aim of home economics instruction is to train present and prospective homemakers so they may become proficient, happy, and understanding housewives, and be able to apply immediately their vocational knowledge to professional, business, or industrial pursuits.

The major objectives of vocational education in home economics envision the effective development of abilities in individuals in order that they may: (1) establish a well-organized home; (2) develop happy social relationships; (3) efficiently manage the business of a modern home; (4) effectively rear children for useful adulthood; (5) finance home operation and maintenance through proper budgeting; (6) properly select and prepare food in relation to quality, quantity, and cost; (7) buy, make, and conserve wearing apparel to the best advantage; (8) select, arrange, and maintain furniture and household furnishings in relation to utility, aesthetic value, and cost; (9) develop habits conducive to the promotion of health and happiness

of their associates; (10) cooperate with the community, as well as the immediate household or business enterprise, for the common good; (11) adjust themselves to developments in arts and sciences that contribute to the happiness of family and community life, and (12) exercise practical initiative and leadership and recognize and follow such leadership.

For more than two decades now, the ideal of a dual goal for Delaware's vocational home economics program has been kept to the fore by the State Supervisor and her aides--the ideal which imbues all instruction with the belief that homemaking is a way of life as well as a way for making a living. To this end, therefore, have been shaped all courses under Delaware's Plan; teacher trainers, supervisory staff, and field instructors alike have so correlated their work that results have gone beyond expectations of pioneers in this field of education. That application of this ideal has been highly productive of far-reaching success is evidenced by comparative yearly statistics published by the Department of Public Instruction from reports submitted through the State Board for Vocational Education.

Success of the State's homemaking program is rooted definitely in planned instruction--a progressively practical course during which stress is increasingly laid upon skill in applying technical knowledge to tasks usual in the operation of a home. Such instruction, as given in classes entitled to Federal financial help, falls into two classifications, namely: (1) all-day schools of junior and senior high school rank for pupils not less than 14 years of age, and (2) evening schools for young persons and adults, with the minimum age set at sixteen. The Federal law provides for a third type of instruction, that for individuals between 14 and 16 years of age who are employed, but

Delaware thus far has not seen fit to establish continuation (part-time) schools in home economics. Instruction, given to groups in both white and Negro centers, is intended primarily for girls and women, but a unique development in recent years has been the organization of classes for boys at their own request in a few of the senior high schools--training designed to provide practical experience and develop appreciation to further homemaking roles the boys might follow later and help them to become better cooperative members of their present family and social groups.

Although Federal financial assistance is not given to foster homemaking courses outside of the State's public school system, supervisory service and the loan of teaching material are permitted. Such aid is extended to four State institutions, namely: (1) the Delaware Industrial School for Girls, at Claymont; (2) the Delaware Industrial School for Colored Girls, at Marshallton; (3) the Ferris Industrial School of Delaware, for boys, near Roselle, and (4) the State Training School for the Feeble-minded (Delaware Colony), at Stockley. Teachers in these schools, however, do not come within the scope of the Smith-Hughes Act upon which Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education is based, nor does any supervisory work of any public school educator entail more than class observations, conferences with the teachers, and recommendations in reports to the institutional superintendents.

Within the public school system, homemaking education is concentrated largely in the all-day courses of junior and senior high schools. During the 1938-1939 term, all of the State secondary schools--40--provided instruction in home economics. Of these, 30 were white centers while 10 were Negro schools. Courses, according to facilities in individual schools, range from two to six years in length and are offered in grades seven to twelve inclusive. This

type of vocational work was pursued--during 1938-1939--in the seventh through the tenth grades as part of the regular schedule of classes in all junior and senior high schools. In 22 schools, the course included the 11th grade; in 6 schools, the 12th grade was included.

Although the homemaking program in respect to adults and out-of-school girls assumes under the Delaware Plan a place secondary to that for the day-schools, its importance is not overlooked. During 1938-1939, 20 of the 30 schools giving home economics instruction to white pupils employed a teacher for an additional half-month to visit homes, directly contacting parents and supervising home projects. In seven of the ten Negro schools fostering homemaking classes, the vocational teachers were employed for a full month of additional time to give instruction to parents of pupils and other adults and supervise home work. Special evening classes for these grown persons were organized for meetings in the schools' homemaking rooms when deemed advisable. Such classes were held during the 1938-1939 in seven schools for both adults and out-of-school girls.

In addition to the standard homemaking courses provided for adults by the Division of Vocational Education, housewives may enroll for studies given through the Division of Adult Education. Close cooperation between the two divisions enables women to pursue Adult Education courses useful as homemaking aids but which cannot be given by the Vocational Education division.

Further promotion of home economics education is given impetus by the State Supervisor and her aides through cooperation with State organizations, private as well as governmental, concerned with the improvement of family life. Such organizations, in addition to

divisions of the school system, include the Delaware Citizens Association (outgrowth of the old Service Citizens of Delaware), the Parent-Teacher Association, the State Vocational Association, the State Home Economics Association, the Delaware State Federation of Women's Clubs, the Delaware State Health Council, and the Young Women's Christian Association, particularly its work with Girl Reserves.

All of the State's homemaking education offically under the Delaware Plan stems from the office, in Dover, of the State Supervisor of Vocational Home Economics, who with her aides exercises general supervision. Like supervisors of other education divisions operating under the State Board for Vocational Education, she must make stipulated progress reports to the State Director for Vocational Education, at present the University of Delaware's Professor of Vocational Agriculture.

Equalling any other State in the Union are the high standards set by Delaware for basing appointments to supervisory, teaching, and teacher training posts in the Division of Home Economics. Specific qualifications are written into the school code in strict adherence to provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act and

subsequent Federal legislation accepted by the State. In the weighing of applicants, as much importance is attached to their practical background as homemakers and their aptitude in teaching household arts and sciences as to their educational background. It is required, however, that all appointees be graduates of the home economics department of a degree granting institution approved by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Teacher training in vocational homemaking is provided by the State at the Women's College, University of Delaware (for white students), and at the State College for Colored Students. Although no bar exists against graduates of schools outside of Delaware, the majority of the State's homemaking instructors for the 1938-1939 term were educated for their jobs in its two institutions of higher learning.

Certifications to teach are issued to applicants only upon recommendation of the State Supervisor of Vocational Home Economics with the approval of the State Director for Vocational Education.

Qualifications for the post of State Supervisor, as stipulated by the Delaware Plan, are followed rigidly in filling this office. Educational background must include a bachelor of science degree in home economics granted by a standard four-year college, where the

candidate must have included in her course closely correlated professional, pedagogical, and cultural academic subjects. Her practical background must not only have consisted of at least two years' actual experience in homemaking, part of it acquired in direct management of a home, but she must have had at least three years' successful teaching experience in vocational schools, and at least two years' of work in a supervisory or administrative capacity. In addition, she must exhibit unmistakable proof of maturity and qualities of leadership.

Among the major responsibilities of the State Supervisor is the improvement of teachers in service, promoted through educational conferences in cooperation with the teacher training departments of the State colleges. Instructors are encouraged to attend collegiate summer school sessions. The teachers are aided individually through visits of the supervisor who follows her conferences by letters summarizing observations, recommendations, and commendations. State-wide conferences of all homemaking educators, both white and Negro, are arranged at the discretion of the supervisor, as well as evening group meetings for discussion of home project work and evaluation of teaching. Personal contact with all instructors under her jurisdiction is maintained by the supervisor by professional correspondence giving specific advice on classroom problems. Books and other professional reading matter are loaned to teachers from the supervisor's office.

Another important duty of the supervisor relates to inspection of work according to high standards set by law. Upon her reports is based the degree of financial and other aid to be accorded to individual centers for homemaking instruction.

Promotional duties of the State Supervisor encompass: (1) organization of all vocational homemaking classes; (2) recommendation of individuals for teaching posts; (3) preparation and approval of

instruction courses; (4) preparation of plans to advance home economics education; (5) cooperation with women's organizations in the preparation of State printed matter on homemaking education, and (6) the making of special studies, surveys, and investigations in the homemaking field deemed needed and desirable.

Delaware's two teacher training centers, the University of Delaware and the State College for Colored Students, function in close cooperation with the State Supervisor of Vocational Home Economics, and the requirements for teacher trainers are comparable to those for instructors in the secondary field.

Basic qualifications for teacher trainers require that all staff appointees be graduates of a standard four-year home economics course in degree granting institutions approved under the Delaware Plan, and that the professional education subjects studied must have stressed their application to all phases of homemaking. Strictly enforced are the requirements as to length and type of experience--two years of successful homemaking, part of which must have been acquired in the actual operation of a home; three years of teaching in vocational schools, including both day and evening classes, and two years of service in some type of supervisory or administrative capacity.

The training of teachers follows a tested program calculated to prepare students for the most effective service possible through utilization of the latest methods and materials in household arts and sciences. Newest developments in home economics always find Delaware's vocational educators in the vanguard, as attested by national comparative reports from the several States. The course of study outlined for prospective teachers is designed to provide a well-rounded

education; a broad preparation for service is achieved through correlation in effective proportion of three types of studies, the purely professional, the cultural academic, and the pedagogical.

Qualifications for homemaking instructors in the State schools are high, both as to educational background and practical experience. For admission to teacher training courses, the young woman planning to teach in Delaware's homemaking departments must have been certified by an accredited secondary school or college. Four years is the length of the course in both State colleges for those desiring to obtain posts in the day-schools, with the School of Home Economics of either college granting the degree of bachelor of science in home economics upon completion. For teachers of homemaking in the evening schools, a minimum of two years of training of college rank is required. Actual homemaking experience is a prerequisite for both college entrance and graduation. It is not enough that the applicant for entrance be a secondary school graduate or have done work in another college, but she must have completed at least two years of practical homemaking work prior to entrance or must acquire it during her course in either of Delaware's colleges. In addition to practical homemaking experience, the student must, before graduation or certification, pursue prescribed studies in English, chemistry, physics, bacteriology, physiology, fine arts, sociology, history, economics, physical training, and the purely homemaking courses, both professional and pedagogical. Under supervision, she must complete a prescribed period of residence in the college home management house, where all phases of home life and its problems are studied under conditions that might prevail were the practice house an actual off-campus household.

Practice teaching and observation in schools near the campus

are prerequisites to graduation--or certification in the case of two-year students. This work must be undertaken at the direction of the teacher trainers who set the actual number of hours required.

Certification to teach is made only after recommendation by the State Supervisor of Vocational Home Economics with the advice of the teacher trainers and the approval of the State Director for Vocational Education. Recertification depends upon clear evidence during the probationary period of successful teaching and professional spirit.

Homemaking is included in the curricula of all secondary schools of the State, with courses offered in both junior and senior high schools from the seventh to twelfth grades inclusive. Although evening classes are becoming increasingly popular and are being expanded yearly to meet the demand, instruction in the day-schools receives the greater emphasis.

Day-school classes in home economics lay particular stress on the practical application of homemaking principles in general management, cooking, laundering, housewifery, care of clothing, home nursing, and child care and training. The courses are so organized that the girl will get experience in developing skill in all phases of homemaking. During the entire course, all non-homemaking studies are arranged in such a manner that correlation with home economics courses is achieved. In this way, the student acquires not only proficiency in homemaking but a broad cultural background designed to make of her a well-rounded individual.

Supervised home projects constitute a part of the student's homemaking education as important as her classroom studies. Under the Delaware Plan, the direction given to these home projects is

based on the particular needs of the individual and the community in which she makes her home. Among widely conducted home work are included: Improvement, arrangement, care, furnishing, and equipment in housing; selection, care, and construction of wearing apparel; laundering and dyeing; provision of food for the family; consumer-buying; care and guidance of children; home management; individual health and home care of the sick; family and social relations; gardening; home entertainment, and preserving of fruits and vegetables. During the 1938-1939 term, more than 2,500 home projects were completed by pupils through grades nine to twelve.

Home visits by teachers to all pupils enrolled in the home economics departments form a definite part of the instruction program. Teachers, employed for time beyond the regular classroom schedule, call at the girls' homes where they supervise projects and give advice to both pupils and parents. Each home visit is reported in writing to the superintendent or principal of the school and the State Supervisor. Particular care is given in the preparation of these reports in order that they will not only contain routine data but thoughtful analyses of the students' problems relative to projects undertaken. As a service for the guidance of 'teen-age girls, the promotion of the home project program has proved to be of great practical value in quickening understanding of homemaking values.

Methods of homemaking instruction, therefore, lay particular stress upon manipulative skill in mastering specific home projects, but sight is not lost of the fact that classroom studies, demonstrations, and discussions form important preliminary bases for such home projects. In both day and evening classes, the courses are not separated into separate recitation and laboratory exercises and are organized into units covering problem solving from every viewpoint of the home.

Statistical yearly reports of the State Board for Vocational Education indicate that impetus has been given to progressive development of homemaking instruction through the whole-hearted cooperation of pupils, teachers, parents, and administrators. This cooperation is best exemplified in the steady growth of practical home projects and their ideal correlation with both vocational and cultural classroom studies.

Constant improvement of teachers in service is responsible, in large part, for the extent to which usefulness of home economics training has expanded. Not only are the instructors kept on a high level of proficiency by systematic contacts with the supervisory staff, but their professional advancement is assured through regular educational conferences and summer sessions at the colleges.

At the head of Delaware's vocational training system stand naturally her institutions of higher learning. At both the Women's College of the University of Delaware and at the State College for Colored Students, improvements in instruction and facilities for supervised teaching have been added periodically and transmitted consequently throughout the State's public school system.

In the School of Home Economics at the Women's College, the aim of its curricula is twofold--to lay the foundation for a liberal cultural education, and to prepare the students for a life vocation in homemaking. To achieve these ends, four courses are offered, namely: (1) Technical Home Economics, vocational in nature; (2) Professional Home Economics, required for certification to teach in the secondary schools; (3) related Arts and Science subjects needed by the liberal arts student for development and her understanding of homemaking, and (4) general homemaking subjects fundamental in

the education of any individual in whatever school of the college she may be working toward her degree. Courses in home economics are two and four years in length, but only those courses having as the aim the preparation of young women for teaching posts in the State's vocational homemaking classes receive Federal financial aid.

Similar courses are offered for Negroes at the State College for Colored Students.

No Home Economics clubs or other organizations are sponsored in the State for high school pupils comparable to the farm youth organizations--the Future Farmers of America (white) and the New Farmers of America (Negro)--which function in cooperation with the Supervisor of Vocational Agriculture. Home economics students are aided materially, however, through association with the 4-H Clubs, the Girl Scouts, and the Girl Reserves of the Young Women's Christian Association. At the Women's College, there exists no student organization fostered specifically for home economics students, but at the State College for Colored Students girls in the homemaking classes are encouraged to take part in the activities of the Home Economics Club.

The Home Economics Club for Negroes provides social training, develops personality, self-reliance, initiative, social poise, and professional interests, stimulates interest in hobbies and the wise use of leisure time, and trains for leadership in homemaking through integration of club work into the curriculum.

Vocational home economics holds a definite place in Delaware's secondary education through helping young women and girls to develop, through practical training, into happy, useful, and understanding homemakers and community-minded members in a cooperative society.

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Part II - Section 4

Vocational Trades and Industries

A--Scope of Training

Education for economic efficiency is the primary aim of all vocational training within the framework of Delaware's public school system. Particularly is this true of those highly specialized courses designed to prepare students for gainful employment in both the long-established trades and industrial pursuits and in those newer technical vocations born of inventive genius and the needs of economic progress. Practical application is the keynote; theoretical studies are relegated to positions of minor importance. Under Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education in the trades and industries, the specific job is the thing that's stressed. Cultural subjects, however, are not foreign to these trade courses, but the academic studies are so correlated to the primary aim that their mastery bears always peculiar social significance to the calling in which the student is already engaged or is destined.

Although still largely in the experimental stage, Delaware's program of industrial education has made appreciable advances since acceptance by the State, in 1917, of Federal financial assistance under the Smith-Hughes Act. Advances, however, have been slow, far slower than the progress made in either the State's vocational program in home economics or in agriculture. This variance is due in large part, both educators and economists agree, to the inexorable law of supply and demand affected drastically by depression and by the inescapable fact that Delaware is predominantly an agricultural community.

Of paramount importance, however, to urban and rural Delaware alike is her slowly but steadily expanding position in the industrial world. This importance has grown despite more than a decade of widespread unemployment that has left heavy casualties in the ranks of labor. Economic pressure has forced many industries to the wall; others have survived only through adherence to policies of stringent retrenchment and the search for more economical methods of production. With keener competition has come the natural demand for better prepared workmen, and, in spite of persistent unemployment, the demand for highly skilled artisans has increased perceptibly since the economic crash of 1929. It is significant, therefore, that the trend in Delaware's vocational trade courses has been influenced wholly by the direction industry itself has taken.

Effectiveness of the State's vocational training depends entirely on the solidity of its contact with the fields for which it prepares; consequently, Delaware's educational program has been developed in close harmony with industrial trends, and the purpose, equipment, methods of instruction, and the very atmosphere of the courses have been vital factors in furthering their practical value to industry. Demands of industry have forced narrow specialization in trade training, and, as a result, Delaware's vocational courses have been shaped according to local industry's demand for particular types of trained artisans.

In Delaware, as elsewhere in the country, specific vocational training for the trades and industries has been developed as an integral part of public education only within the past twenty-three years. Before 1917, when Congress enacted the Smiths-Hughes vocational education law, organized trade-training

classes were confined for the most part to a few schools in widely scattered industrial cities. Some of those poorly equipped training centers were part of the public school systems of their respective States, but the majority were conducted as privately operated institutions. Delaware maintained no trade school for the technical vocations before 1917. It is true that some of her high schools, mainly within the Wilmington metropolitan area, provided instruction in manual arts and conducted commercial courses comprising bookkeeping, shorthand, and other essentials of business office practice. But aside from a few private business schools, no other specifically vocational training for productive labor in the industrial world had existed in the State. Entrance into the technical trades had been effected wholly through long apprenticeships under skilled artisans.

Under Delaware's Plan, a concerted effort is being made, with gratifying results, to readjust the age-old apprenticeship system of training to modern conditions of manufacture. The long-established trades have not eliminated, by any means, their apprenticeship requirements, but the quickening pace of production has made apprenticeship alone ineffective as a means of supplying industry with highly skilled workmen, and as a consequence the value of organized trade school instruction has resulted in ever-increasing cooperation between the old and new schools of thought.

The primary purpose of all vocational trade and industrial training under the Delaware system is to prepare present and prospective artisans for proficiency in their respective callings in order that they may become effective producers for the mutual benefit of industry, themselves, and the community at large.

The major objectives of public instruction in trade and industrial pursuits point to the development of specific abilities in individuals in order that they may: (1) become firmly established in a specific technical vocation; (2) be able through manipulative skill to produce better products; (3) acquire under the most favorable conditions and in the least time practicable the technical knowledge needed to keep abreast of progressive trends in their respective callings; (4) maintain mechanical and other equipment peculiar to their individual jobs in the highest state of perfection; (5) develop initiative in the organization of technical knowledge of practical use in more efficiently handling their jobs; (6) be alertly conscious of responsibility and take pride in thorough workmanship; (7) develop any latent leadership qualities for future advancement, either to supervisory positions as wage-earners or in the operation of their own enterprises; (8) appreciate the social as well as the economic value of their jobs as essential cogs in the machinery of a democratic community, and (9) develop habits conducive to the promotion of economic efficiency, and thereby the happiness of themselves and their associates.

Although economic efficiency has been the immediate goal of the State in its trade and industrial courses, the ultimate goal envisions a dual purpose whereby the task has been set to correlate instruction so that the student will not only receive specific vocational education but will absorb those broadly cultural and civic elements which the exponents of general education rightfully believe to be basically essential in a democracy. Imbued with this ideal, Delaware's vocational educators have endeavored consistently to shape their technical courses since the

inauguration in 1917 of its system for vocational education. Application of this ideal is beginning to bear fruit, although its success in the trade and industrial courses has not been as great as in either the homemaking or agricultural fields. These facts are attested through comparisons of the yearly statistics published by the Department of Public Instruction from reports submitted through the State Board for Vocational Education.

From the office in Wilmington of the State Supervisor of Vocational Trades and Industries is governed all technical vocational education in the public schools of less than college grade. Inasmuch as the bulk of the State's trade instruction centers in Wilmington, Delaware's sole city of metropolitan rank, the State Supervisor serves also as the City Supervisor of Vocational Trades and Industries. His chief aides, who in practice head virtually independent divisions of vocational education, are the Assistant State Supervisor of Distributive Occupations and the Assistant State Supervisor of Vocational Rehabilitation.

Delaware's technical trade courses seek to reach three distinct groups, namely: (1) those persons, both male and female, already employed in the trades or industries, in commercial office pursuits, or in merchandising occupations; (2) those who are still in school and are preparing for jobs in these fields, and (3) persons injured in industry and who may receive special retraining under a plan of vocational rehabilitation being perfected (1940) by the State.

With stress on the practical application of instruction, the State's classes in trade and technical subjects are of three kinds: (1) for pupils in all-day classes of high school rank; (2) for men and women, over 16 years of age, in evening classes, including foremanship training, and (3) for youth and adults,

with minimum age set at 14, in part-time or trade extension classes.

Although industrial arts courses, commercial subjects, and shop practice form important parts of the curricula of secondary schools throughout the State, it is only in the city of Wilmington where there is maintained a high school organized exclusively for all-day vocational instruction. This school, which like some others includes also part-time and evening classes, is the H. Fletcher Brown Vocational High School. Strategically located in Delaware's sole highly concentrated industrial area, this vocational high school is available to boys and girls from any part of the State. Only white students may be enrolled in the Fletcher Brown School, but facilities in a limited degree are provided for Negro youth in Wilmington's Howard High School and in the high school department of the State College for Colored Students, at Dover.

The State's only purely vocational high school is one of the newest and most significant development in Delaware's educational progress. It has been in operation only since the fall of 1938, when it replaced the old Wilmington Trade School, the quarters of which, in the antiquated Public School No. 1, continued in service as a center for the National Youth Administration and Division of Adult Education. The H. Fletcher Brown Vocational High School, in its all-day and part-time classes, offered training for fourteen different trades and other industrial occupations during the 1938-1939 term, while the evening classes for the same period taught twenty different vocations. Of the State's total enrollment of 2,338 in vocational trade and industrial courses, the greatest percentage was concentrated at the Fletcher Brown School where the facilities for a maximum of

850 pupils were taxed almost to the limit in both day and evening sessions.

At the Fletcher Brown School, instruction is provided for three major occupational levels, namely: (1) the sub-managerial and junior engineering levels, in technical courses; (2) the skilled trades levels, in trade courses, and (3) the distributive occupations levels, in merchandising courses. In the first group, more stress is laid upon the related technical instruction and less upon the practical shop work; in the second, the reverse is the rule, while in the third group, the stress depends upon the nature of the subject, although the greater number of distributive occupational subjects involve immediate practical demonstration.

The majority of the day-school courses are three years in length, while a few take two years to complete, with the final year on the cooperative part-time plan whereby the student spends a portion of the time in class and the rest on the specific job for which he is improving himself.

Although preparation for gainful employment is the main purpose of the vocational school, the student may enter a degree-granting institution upon completion of the technical course at Fletcher Brown. The trade division and merchandising courses, however, do not prepare for college entrance.

Applicants for admission to the vocational school are selected only after careful examination of their scholastic records and appraisals of their special abilities in the fields they have chosen. The student must decide early during his vocational training whether he plans to prepare for immediate employment or to continue his education at an advanced trade school or

technical institution of college rank, in order that his training may be properly arranged. Liberal provisions are made for transfer from one course to another, if not delayed for such a long period that such change would be impracticable.

Statistics disclose that an ever-increasing spirit of cooperation between industry and the school system is proving the practical worth of the vocational training courses. As a consequence of this cooperation, periodic surveys are conducted to determine the number of skilled workers who may be absorbed into any particular field, and the findings of these surveys determine the kinds of courses to be offered, their subject matter, and, to a large extent, the number of enrollees.

Fletcher Brown's technical program, in all-day and part-time instruction, includes, in addition to shop and laboratory work, a sound basic training in English, science, mathematics, and related technical subjects. The major occupational fields for which studies in this division prepare the student embrace manufacturing, building construction, transportation, and communication. The program includes specific courses in building construction, industrial chemistry, machine designing, mechanical maintenance, electrical maintenance, radio maintenance, gas engine service for airplane, auto, marine, and Diesel types, and a general course which includes information in several fields. Of particular interest to young women is the course in beauty culture which has been developed considerably during the past few years.

Within the scope of the school's technical training comes preparation for such technical jobs as inspectors, designers, supervisors, assistant foremen, draftsmen, estimators, checkers,

laboratory technicians, plant control operators, and beauty shop operators and specialists. Those students desiring to enter the newer industrial fields, such as refrigeration, radio engineering, air-conditioning, and oil burner maintenance, may equip themselves through study in this division.

Fundamental training in the skilled trades is provided in the school's trade program, in both day and part-time classes. Less "book work" and more specific skills are required than in the technical courses. The foundation work in school is so planned that in obtaining subsequent practical experience on the job such experience will be more easily and speedily transmuted into productive efficiency than in the case of the raw apprentice without that background. While in school, approximately one-half of the time is devoted to practical shop assignments on useful and productive bases, while the remainder is reserved for related trade instruction, English, and social sciences. In general, the plan of instruction for those preparing for the trades requires full time in school for two years followed by a third year which may be either full time in school or partly spent in classroom and industry. A high school diploma is awarded to students after completion of requirements, and they then enter employment with the rating of advanced apprentices. From one to three years more, however, must be served in apprenticeship after formal schooling is finished before graduates become full-fledged journeymen in their respective trades. In addition to the diploma, an apprenticeship certificate is awarded after the trade experience requirements have been fulfilled.

The day and part-time trade program comprises instruction in auto mechanics, machine shop practice, woodworking, welding, printing, carpentry, sheet metal working, and in the electrical, plumb-

ing and heating, and radio trades, for boys and young men. For girls and young women, instruction is provided principally in the needle and food trades. These courses include tea room and cafeteria operation, with stress on cooking, service, and business management, needle art, including sewing, dressmaking, alteration of clothing, and the operation of power sewing machines.

In the merchandising program, a distinct sub-division in Fletcher Brown's technical program, the curriculum aims to prepare students for productive service in the retail distributive fields under guidance from the Assistant State Supervisor of Distributive Occupations who is responsible to the State Supervisor of Vocational Trades and Industries. The merchandising program includes instruction in salesmanship, commercial art, advertising, display, show card writing, and business methods. Length of these courses is set at two years, and is of interest to both sexes. Work in this type of instruction is confined largely to part-time and evening classes.

Night courses at Fletcher Brown are designed to extend the vocational skill and knowledge of both men and women already engaged in the trades or technical pursuits. Extension of evening school opportunities has been made possible during recent years by increases in financial outlay through operation of provisions under the Federal George-Dean Act, and the addition of facilities has resulted in increased enrollment.

Among the evening courses, with two sessions weekly devoted to each subject, at the Fletcher Brown School, are auto mechanics, automobile operation, bricklaying, carpentry, printing, electricity, machine shop practice, sheet metal shop practice, foundry technology, painting and decorating, plumbing and steamfitting, gas engine operation and maintenance, chemical

theory and mathematics, industrial chemistry, chemistry for nurses, commercial design, architectural drafting, blueprint reading and estimating, mechanical drafting, sheet metal pattern-making, radio technology, steam boilers and engines, show card writing, sewing, window trimming and store display, salesmanship, beauty culture, welding, and journalistic writing and editing. Other courses may be added or some may be dropped from time to time according to demands.

Delaware's industrial education for Negroes in schools of less than college grade centers chiefly in the vocational trades and industries courses contained in the curriculum of Wilmington's Howard High School and, in lesser degree, in the industrial arts courses of the high school division of Dover's State College for Colored Students.

At Howard School, the occupational courses are organized along the same lines and conducted upon the same bases as those in the curriculum of the Fletcher Brown School. As at the white vocational school, Howard offers day, part-time, and evening courses under supervision of officials responsible to the State Board for Vocational Education. Technical and trade courses at Howard are in addition to the regular secondary academic courses and commercial office studies, as Howard, unlike Fletcher Brown, is not devoted exclusively to vocational education. Technical and trade courses included in the day and part-time curricula are sheet metal working, electricity, machine shop practice, woodworking, mechanical drawing, building engineering, automobile maintenance and operation, beauty culture, tea room and cafeteria operation, and courses that will prepare the student for employment as a chef. As at Fletcher Brown, Howard's trade and technical programs stress the purely vocational studies but cultural

subjects are not entirely neglected.

Vocational evening classes at Howard High School include instruction in auto mechanics, automobile operation, industrial chemistry, machine shop practice, commercial sewing, salesmanship, and beauty culture.

Industrial arts training at the State College for Colored Students, although not as comprehensive as to the number of specific trades and technical vocations included in the Howard School curricula, is designed definitely to prepare students in the high school division for useful employment for wages. Work is organized along shop practice lines. General fundamentals form the bases for the first and second years, while the third and fourth years are devoted to specialization.

Secondary students at State College, in their third year, may select either woodworking or metal working for specialization in the shops, and they may, at the beginning of their fourth year, specialize in building construction. Taught also are mechanical drawing technique, shop management, and chemistry, physics and other sciences pertinent to an understanding of the particular vocation the student chooses for a life work. Unlike State College's secondary courses in vocational agriculture and vocational home economics, its secondary industrial arts courses, although laying the bases for gainful employment, do not come within the jurisdiction of the State Board for Vocational Education, under provisions of the Federal Smith-Hughes Act. All these courses are full-time day school electives in the general course; no evening or part-time industrial arts courses are included in the institution's curricula.

Aside from the evening vocational courses offered at the Fletcher Brown and Howard High schools in trade and industrial subjects, night classes under jurisdiction of the Wilmington Vocational Evening Schools are offered also in commercial, academic, and homemaking courses subjects. In addition to the trade, technical, and distributive occupational courses heretofore mentioned, only the commercial courses are conducted under guidance of the State Supervisor of Vocational Trades and Industries. Evening commercial courses, given at Wilmington High School for whites, include bookkeeping, typewriting, filing, shorthand, business economics, business English, and business spelling and rapid calculation. Commercial evening courses at Howard High School consist of bookkeeping and typewriting. Homemaking evening courses, under guidance of the State Supervisor of Vocational Home Economics, are given at Wilmington High School in cookery and interior decoration; only cookery is given at Howard. Academic subjects are taught also in the Vocational Evening Schools, with white students being offered instruction in English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, mathematics, American history, and public speaking, at Wilmington High, while at Howard only courses in English and mathematics are given.

Evening school forms the largest group of trade and industrial classes in Delaware, comprising nearly one-half of the total enrollment, and is virtually the only type of vocational trade and industrial education given outside of the city of Wilmington. In addition to those offered under guidance of the Division of Vocational Education, such evening classes in subjects for which Federal aid is not given and no apprenticeship arrangement exists are conducted by the Division of Adult Education.

Public industrial education, however, still is centered largely in Wilmington, and provisions exist whereby students from all parts of Delaware may enroll in the city school system's vocational classes. The majority of industrial arts classes in high schools outside of Wilmington are confined, in the main, to old-type manual arts types, although progress has been made toward making this shop instruction more practicable. Vocational educators at present (1940) are endeavoring to find a solution for this situation, following a survey of rural Delaware conducted during the 1938-1939 school term to determine the need for skilled workers in various districts. Based on survey figures, only three high school districts were found to have sufficient populations to support trade and industrial classes. Definite plans for action have not been taken in this matter, but it is agreed that the most feasible plan would be for the State Board of Education to allow one dollar a day, in liew of transportation, for each pupil desiring to attend vocational classes outside their own districts.

Apprenticeship training in the State's vocational day classes is conducted jointly with industries for the most part on the cooperative part-time plan, although some employers prefer to hire their apprentices after they have completed their full-time trade courses rather than on part-time bases during the third year of schooling. The majority of the trade and industrial courses are three years in length, thereby making cooperative training a simple procedure provided employers continue cooperation and any drastic industrial upset does not intervene to disturb the balance class enrollment restrictions strive to maintain between the law of supply and demand. Should students fail to find apprenticeship part-time employment at the end of their second year,

however, the plan is flexible enough to continue them on a full-time basis at their studies for the third year. Conferences between school officials and industrial employers on effect of the Federal wage-hour law reveal that only a few employers will sign apprentice contracts but most of them indicate willingness to pay apprentices the minimum wages required under the law after they have finished two to three years of training in vocational classes. Through a coordinator, the student or apprentice is helped to obtain employment and make adjustments to jobs.

Foremanship training was instituted under the State's vocational education set-up only a few years ago, and has been enlarged in scope largely because of increased demands for this type of instruction from the employers themselves. The work is in the form of conferences between groups of foremen and the school's instructors, and are held in various industrial plants, mainly in Wilmington's metropolitan area. Not only of value to the foremen themselves have these conferences been, but they have been influential in interesting other workers in evening and trade extension courses. Practical psychology in the handling of men, analysis of particular jobs, and methods of more effectively coordinating human and material elements for the basis of foremanship training.

Vocational training for volunteer fire fighters has been in operation for several years, with practical assistance given through aides of the State Supervisor of Vocational Trades and Industries. Effective work is being accomplished along this line with full cooperation of the Delaware State Volunteer Firemen's Association, comprising forty-four companies in as many communities, who took the initiative several years since in requesting educational assistance. These fire fighting

organizations have a membership of approximately 5,000 men, and it is to the interests of their respective communities that they have personnels trained for effective operation. During the scholastic year 1933-1934, this phase of vocational estension work was inaugurated by selecting a group of the best qualified firemen from various sections of the State for enrollment in a teacher training course. This course covered job analysis, organization of subject matter, and methods of teaching. The following year, the first firefighting classes were organized in various communities by these trained conference leaders. That method of instruction is now followed in communities where a sufficient number of volunteer firemen warrants the organization of a class. The fire fighting course consists of forty-eight lessons spread over four years' work of twelve lessons annually. Equipment is furnished by the State firemen's organization for instructional purposes. In addition to those enrolled in regular classes, the volunteers generally join in demonstration conferences, customarily held twice each year in each center.

Police training is a comparatively recent development in the State's vocational education program, having been in operation only since the beginning of the 1937-1938 school term. This type of training is confined, at present, to two classes in the city of Wilmington, but it is hoped that means will be found soon to expand opportunities to the entire State. Procedure is similar to that for the firemen, with teacher training being given to a selected group of police officers. The Department of Public Safety conducts the evening classes open to candidates for appointments to the force.

Commercial office training, open to both boys and girls, is conducted in senior high schools throughout the State and in evening classes in Wilmington. Employers cooperate in placing high school commercial students in jobs on a part-time plan whereby a portion of the worker's time is spent on the job and the rest in class-room instruction. A coordinator assists in the adjustment of part-time students to their work and in the determination of the type of instruction best suited to individual needs. Federal financial aid is given only to schools for the part-time commercial classes and none for full-time evening instruction. Business education courses, for white and Negro pupils, include stenography, typewriting, filing, shorthand, bookkeeping, office practice and management, business methods, and general clerical studies.

The value of Delaware's vocational training program is attested by practical cooperation voluntarily offered school authorities by business and industrial executives. Latest development along this line is the plan of the Krebs Pigment and Color Corporation to aid its employees in preparing themselves for wider opportunities through further training at the Fletcher Brown School. The company purposes to bear the cost of Saturday morning classes in welding. This practice of aiding ambitious employees, although not general, has been followed with success in other parts of the country, and its application in Delaware by Krebs may serve, vocational educators believe, as a practical guide to other local concerns.

To summarize the extent of vocational training in the trades and industries--only public school classes entitled to receive Federal cash for vocational instruction of less than college grade are included under the Delaware Plan. Such all-day,

evening, and part-time classes under the State Supervisor of Vocational Trades and Industries embrace instruction in the skilled trades, technical pursuits, merchandising vocations, and commercial office jobs. All of the State corrective institutions and welfare agencies for the handicapped provide vocational training of some type, but such training is given independently of the Division of Vocational Education that governs similar programs in the public schools, although leadership instruction in Civilian Conservation Corps camps and some phases of the rehabilitation of physically handicapped employables come within jurisdiction of the State Supervisor of Vocational Trades and Industries. This Supervisor cooperates also with the Division of Adult Education. Many private schools within the State meet the requirements of the Delaware Plan, but are not Federally aided.

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Part II - Section 4

Vocational Trades and Industries

B--Methods and Materials of Training

Practicability of Delaware's program for vocational training is rooted definitely in specific instructional methods and materials keyed constantly to the ever-shifting demands of a mechanized society. Since advent of the twentieth century, the pace of mechanization has increased in ever-quickening tempo, accelerated largely by the cataclysmic impact of world-wide social and industrial revolution, by more frequent armed conflict between nations of major commercial importance, and the consequent dislocations of market channels. The State's educational leaders, therefore, charged with the task of preparing skilled artisans for economic efficiency, are attuned in thought and practice to industrial trends, and the entire occupational training program is correlated closely to the needs of industry no longer static. (R) (F)

Based on the practical concept that the primary purpose of all training for trade and technical occupations is to equip present and prospective artisans for economic proficiency in their respective callings, Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education provides for flexible methods of instruction. This flexibility enables educators to shift instruction emphasis quickly to meet constantly changing demands of industry due to alterations in

methods of production or distribution. In short, Delaware's trade and industrial education is influenced wholly by the direction industry itself takes. Under this influence, the State's vocational classes maintain close cooperative contact with manufacturing and distributing establishments. (R)

In light of the vast social and economic upheavals of the past two decades, drastically altering the long-established patterns of life, the State's Department of Public Instruction has been compelled to make radical adjustments in secondary school curricula. Most far-reaching of these changes has been the Division of Vocational Education, created with acceptance, in 1917, of Federal financial benefits under the Smith-Hughes Act. Inauguration of this division's work concretely reflected the altered needs and temper of the times. Hitherto, educational stress had been laid upon cultural subjects; training for specific wage-earning jobs had been virtually neglected in the secondary schools, save for comparatively feeble courses in bookkeeping and other "commercial" subjects. Under the stimuli of the Smith-Hughes and subsequent Federal legislation, definite trade training which stresses practical application of learning has developed steadily in importance. (R)

Purpose, equipment, methods of instruction, and, in fact, the whole environment of the State's multiple occupational courses are all vital elements correlated for training the individual to be of practical value to a particular industry. Instruction is shaped primarily for the objective of transforming the student into an educated producer. With this goal always in the foreground, all trade and technical instructors seek to organize their courses

along lines which will most effectively develop skills and technique for vocational competency. The methods and materials used in Delaware's program of vocational instruction tend to: (1) conserve human effort; (2) conserve human resources; (3) save wear and tear on tools, machinery, and other equipment; (4) increase skill; (5) stimulate trade interest; (6) provide for increased opportunity for continuous employment; (7) increase trade knowledge; and (8) raise standards of living. (R) (F)

Like the instruction in agriculture and home economics, the State's vocational training in all trade and technical classes lays particular stress upon shop and laboratory practice. In the three types of classes--part-time, day, and evening--students learn by doing. All tools, machinery, and other equipment used at instructional centers are kept up-to-date at all times and are counterparts of equipment used in the specific industrial field for which the potential workman is preparing or in which the cooperative part-time student, the apprentice, is engaged already. Only experts thoroughly familiar with the maintenance and operation of such equipment serve as instructors in these trade and technical courses. Educational theorists have no place in Delaware's vocational training set-up; practical instruction--or more specifically, realistic training--is the keynote. (F) (G) (H)

Expansion in the trade and technical program, although not as rapid or extensive as in the homemaking or farming vocations, has been accelerated considerably by the release of additional Federal funds through the George-Dean Act and the subsequent addition to Wilmington's public school system of the H. Fletcher Brown Vocational High School, in operation since the fall of 1938. Until erection of this school--in reality, a complete

machine shop and laboratory--facilities for effectively training young men and young women for industrial and commercial jobs were limited largely to the inadequate equipment provided at the old Wilmington Trade School which was superseded by Brown. (H) (I) (J)

The H. Fletcher Brown Vocational High School, Delaware's sole secondary school devoted exclusively to occupational training, serves as the training center for white students from all points in the State; Wilmington's Howard High School, primarily an academic institution, provides vocational courses for Negroes. The $750,000 Brown school, of which the equipment alone is valued at more than $150,000, contains twelve shops, a like number of classrooms, and seven special training rooms, in addition to a combination gymnasium and auditorium, a cafeteria, and various service rooms. During the school term, 1938-1939, thorough training facilities were provided for twenty different vocations in evening classes; training was given in fourteen occupations in the full day and part-time schools. The school's equipment includes a carpentry shop, welding shop, foundry, trowel trades shop, needle trades shop, food trades shop, beauty culture shop, mechanical and architectural drafting quarters, automotive repair shop, industrial chemistry laboratory, gas engine shop, printing plant, general metals shop, plumbing shop, electrical laboratory, and quarters for merchandising practice. (H) (J)

Equipment at Howard High School makes possible occupational training for Negro young men and young women in diversified fields, although such educational opportunities do not cover as wide a range of choice as the program for white students. The same high

degree of thoroughness, however, characterizes instruction and maintenance of equipment in Negro and white centers, and for both races only thoroughly experienced vocational instructors are authorized to conduct training courses. Shops and laboratories at the Howard school provide expert training in auto mechanics, sheet metal working, electrical maintenance, beauty culture, tearoom and cafeteria operation, cookery, business practice, and in the building engineering trades, including painting, plumbing, woodworking, home mechanics, concrete working and masonry, and the care of grounds. (J)

In these two schools--Brown and Howard--is carried the bulk of the State's distinctly vocational training for the trades and technical fields. Outside of Wilmington, Delaware's commercial and manufacturing hub, industrial arts training in the senior high schools is handicapped largely by absence of adequate equipment and the small number of enrollees for any particular trade course. Extent of vocational training in homemaking and farming far exceeds that for the trades and industries in lower Delaware, the larger part of which is farm land or wooded areas, with no settlement of much more than 6,000 inhabitants. The rural complexion of Delaware, outside of Wilmington, the sole municipality of metropolitan aspect, therefore is the determining factor of the particular kinds of vocational training feasible for the area. Important manufacturing enterprises do thrive in this rural area and in adjacent Maryland territory, but the demand for large numbers of skilled technicians to man posts in these establishments does not warrant industrial training centers of the size and scope that are supported by the public school system of Wilmington. (J) (S)

Industrial arts courses of a limited nature are pursued,

however, in down-State senior high schools, with shop and laboratory practice in the elementals of a few occupations linked closely to farm and small town life of the Del-mar-va Peninsula. For Negroes, the high school division of the State College for Colored Students, at Dover, offers the most advanced training in industrial arts. But, in the main, non-Wilmington boys and girls ambitious for a complete preparatory training in a specific technical occupation must attend classes in Brown or Howard which are, in effect, State-wide training centers for the industrial trades. (I) (J)

Commercial courses, however, are well organized in all of Wilmington's academic high schools and in the majority of public secondary schools in rural Delaware. These courses are of a practical vocational nature, with adequate equipment for training in typewriting, stenography, bookkeeping, and other business practice subjects. (H) (I) (J)

Teacher training for vocational classes in trades and technical fields, unlike that for either agriculture or home economics, is not centered at the University of Delaware and the State College for Colored Students. The duty of preparing such instructors comes within the province of the State Supervisor of Trade and Industrial Education, a post held ex-officio by Wilmington's City Supervisor of Trade and Industrial Education. His teacher training work is done principally with in-service instructors through group meetings of those from the staffs of evening, all-day, and part-time classes, and through individual conferences. (F) (I) (J)

Prerequisites for appointment to the State supervisory post in industrial education are equally as rigid as those for similar posts in the other fields of occupational training. He must be trained thoroughly in the supervision and administration of trade

and industrial schools, and, having been graduated from an approved technical school, or its equivalent, he must have acquired specified trade, teaching, and supervisory experience as required under Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education. (F)

The State Supervisor's educational background, in addition to graduation from an approved technical school, or its equivalent, must have included the following professional studies: (1) philosophy of vocational education; (2) supervision and administration of trade and industrial schools; (3) the compilation and utilization of occupation analyses for training trade teachers; (4) methods of training instructors of technical subjects, and (5) organization of the content of training courses. (F)

The State Supervisor's practical background must have been acquired through actual experience, namely: (1) in teaching--wherein he is required to have spent at least two years as an instructor of approved trade preparatory or trade extension classes; (2) in trade--wherein he must have completed at least three years' of practical working experience as a wage earner in a specific trade or in a technical industrial field, and (3) in supervisory post--wherein he must have acquired at least three years' experience in a responsible supervisory or administrative capacity in the field of trade and industrial education of vocational grade. (F)

Qualifications of any assistant or local supervisors who may be appointed to the staff are similar to those required for the State Supervisor, save that no previous supervisory experience is necessary, and the requirement as to length of professional

background is modified to be shorter period of study. (F)

Major responsibilities of the State Supervisor fall into three categories: Promotional, inspectional, and instructional. His promotional duties include: (1) the formation of all classes; (2) the arrangement of all specific classes as to study content and correlation of shop with classroom work; (3) the organization and approval of all courses of training; (4) the compilation of annual schedules of work; (5) the recommendation of all persons for certification as instructors in specific trade or technical fields; (6) the preparation of special studies, surveys, and investigations deemed necessary to advance the progress of vocational programs, and (7) cooperation with manufacturing plants, merchandising establishments, labor organizations, and commercial associations further to correlate occupational training with the needs of industry. (F)

The inspectional duties of the State Supervisor consist of: (1) approval after careful analysis of the right of all trade or industrial classes to receive Federal financial aid, in whole or in part, under provisions of the Smith-Hughes and subsequent legislation; (2) general supervision and inspection of all work being pursued in his department of the State's Division of Vocational Education; (3) individual conferences with all of his instructors, whether in the all-day, part-time, or evening classes; (4) maintenance of close contact with all classes conducted in manufacturing plants or elsewhere apart from those organized in the regular training centers of the State Board of Education. (F) (S) (J)

The instructional duties of the State Supervisor comprise:

(1) individual assistance to his technical instructors in the various fields for which training is offered through personal visits to classrooms, shops, laboratories, and other points; (2) visits to projects on which pupils are working, either at the schools or elsewhere; (3) individual aid to his instructors through correspondence, giving advice by means of personal letters and printed material pertinent to the training being conducted; (4) individual and group conferences with his corps of instructors, and (5) organization of special teacher training classes for in-service instructors and for conference leaders destined to assist in foremanship training. (F) (S) (J)

Duties of any assistant or local supervisor on the trade and industrial education staff deal largely with the professional improvement of teachers in service, in discovering and remedying points in which these teachers need help, and in establishing additional vocational classes, particularly for part-time cooperative and evening schools. Such aides to the State Supervisor serve, in short, as teacher trainers for the department. (F) (S) (J)

In the teaching of trade and industrial subjects, on the secondary school level, Delaware has progressed steadily although more slowly than other areas more highly industrialized. The high standards set for the certification of instructors compare favorably, however, with any other State in the Federal Union. Vocational educators have been successful in maintaining a high degree of proficiency in the Delaware program by consistently keeping pace with the practical and progressive trends in occupational training demanded by industry. (F) (J)

Qualifications governing training and appointment of instructors in the technical fields are determined, in large measure, by stipulations for Government assistance contained in the Smith-Hughes and subsequent Federal legislation and incorporated in Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education. (F) (J) (I)

For shop instructors, entrance requirements for the teacher training course include practical job experience of not less than three years in the specific occupation the aspirant purposes to teach and a top-notch rating as a skilled mechanic in such occupation. The length of the course for full-time teaching is much greater than for evening class instruction. The course of instruction, organized on an itinerant short unit basis, comprises: (1) the choosing and classifying of subject matter in relation to the importance to a specific vocation; (2) methods of teaching, with stress on procedure as applied separately to full-time, part-time cooperative, and evening classes, and (3) the principles, practices, and policies of vocational education. Supervised practice teaching is performed mainly in the instructor training classes, although prospective teachers observe teaching methods in the type of class for which they are preparing. (F) (J) (I)

Graduation and appointment to the teaching staff as a shop instructor depend upon: (1) completion of the prescribed course of training; (2) a thorough analysis of one or more units of a specific trade with preparation of lesson plans illustrating how the methods of teaching are applied; (3) proof of not less than three years' practical experience of journeyman grade in the calling for which he has prepared to teach, and (4) evidence that the pros-

pective teacher plans to apply himself assiduously to improvement while in the teaching service. Shop teachers' certificates are renewable yearly on evidence of professional advancement. (F) (J) (I)

For related subjects teachers, entrance requirements for the teacher training course are the same as those for shop teachers, save that they must have not less than two years' experience on the job in the trade associated with their related subject matter; and the equivalent of two years in a technical school with proved ability to impart their knowledge is required before certification to teach. The course of instruction required is similar to that for the shop instructors. Supervised practice teaching and observation likewise are prerequisites to appointments to teaching jobs. (F) (G) (H) (J)

For part-time instructors, the teacher training course admission requirements are the same as for the shop and related subject instructors, except that such prospective teachers, in addition, must have completed an approved course in a college or technical school, or its equivalent, and must have had two years of successful teaching experience. (F)

Training of conference leaders to promote foremanship training is undertaken as a branch of the State Supervisor's teacher training activities. From each of a number of diversified industries, one man is chosen to be trained as conference leader, then sent back to his industry to promote forman training conferences among ambitious workmen. (F) (J) (S)

In cooperation with the Delaware State Volunteer Firemen's Association, the same method is employed in training conference

leaders to organize firemen's training classes among the membership of individual fire fighting units throughout the State. Police departments which care to cooperate may select members of the force for training in the methods and principles of teaching. The men thus trained are then utilized as instructors in the regular police work classes of their respective departments. (F) (J) (S)

Teachers of commercial office practice subjects must be thoroughly grounded in the particular subjects they purpose to teach, must be graduates of approved commercial training schools, must have received instructor training with emphasis laid upon business subjects, and must have had practical experience in office practice. A coordinator is employed to assist in the adjustment of part-time students who divide their time between regular industrial jobs and the classroom. (J) (I)

A large part of the State Supervisor's time and that of his aides is devoted to the training of teachers in service. To receive special training of the department, the matriculants must be employed in some phase of the Division of Vocational Education's work, in full-day school or in part-time or evening classes. The course of study, organized along itinerant short unit lines, comprises: (1) instruction by the supervisor and specialists in the latest advances in industrial education; (2) appreciation and coordination of various local trends and needs in particular technical occupations, and (3) the most advanced methods of presenting subject matter after careful job analysis and lesson planning. Each student-teacher must give talks to the rest of the class on his own specific

instruction job. Each student-teacher, also, is given opportunities to observe teaching methods and to demonstrate his own particular methods of presenting his subject matter to a class. (F) (J) (I)

To summarize Delaware's stringent requirements for instructors and teacher trainers alike--great stress is placed upon practical experience in both the trades as skilled journeymen and in the teaching of those technical vocations, as well as upon a broad professional education. (J)

As much individual instruction as possible, with emphasis laid upon practical application of knowledge, forms the keystone in the methods of training used for each occupation in the curricula of the State's vocational trade and industrial program. Students learn by doing, performing their training assignments in shops or laboratories with modern equipment and under conditions which approximate as closely as practicable the conditions which prevail in industry. Is it practical? That is the question which precedes the acceptance or junking of any new method proposed for inclusion in the scheme of training young men and young women for niches in the highly specialized industrial world of wage-earners. (F) (H) (I) (J)

Strict correlation of related subjects and industrial work is followed in the training scheme of the technical vocation instruction, but very little, other than English and civics, of the academic studies are pursued. These correlated studies follow closely the business type of English, industrial civics, and history. (F) (J) (G) (H)

Of profound importance to Delaware's Division of Vocational Education in correlating its technical and trade courses to the needs of industry is the State Vocational Advisory Committee and its cooperating sub-divisions, the Trade Advisory Committees for each occupation represented in the trades and industries educational program. Conferences are held by this general committee and the various trade groups with the object of pooling advice and organizing the support of the various manufacturing plants and trade associations in the development of present training facilities or the inauguration of new cooperative training projects. (G) (H) (J)

Each year the progress of the work being done in vocational trades and industries points the way to newer needs and possibilities toward which the program aspire. One of the most recent developments is the impetus given to vocational training in the merchandising occupations which, although under general guidance of the State Supervisor of Trades and Industries, has progressed to such an extent since further financial aid from Washington under provisions of the George-Dean Act that it is operated as a separate vocational training unit. An analysis of this field forms the contents of the section immediately following this treatment of trade and industrial education as a whole. (F) (J)

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C.W.E.
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Part II - Section 5

Vocational Distributive Occupations

Development of vocational training in the merchandising field, although not as extensive or far-reaching in results as those highly specialized programs in the long-established trades, has exceeded expectations of Delaware's pioneers in occupational education. All courses concerned with the merchandising field deal exclusively with practical methods of selling goods, directly or indirectly, to middleman or consumer; in all other phases of vocational trade and industrial education, the courses are concerned with developing skills and technique in the production of goods rather than for their distribution. (F) (G)

Under the Smith-Hughes Act, passed by the Congress in 1917, the States and Territories were provided with Federal financial aid for the promotion of vocational training of less than college grade in agriculture, in home economics, in commerce, and in the trades and industries. Emphasis of this occupational training law was placed primarily, almost exclusively, upon the production vocations --the training of young men and young women in the manipulative skills necessary for economic proficiency in earning livelihoods through their services in the creative industries. (A) (B)

With emphasis of the State's vocational program on the production training fields, training in the distributive field had been largely of an experimental nature until passage by Congress of the George-Dean Act, on June 8, 1936, when specially earmarked

United States funds provided impetus for extensive development of vocational training in the distributive occupations. The act set aside $1,200,000 in Federal funds to be apportioned among the several States and Territories for work in courses designed to train persons for livelihoods in vocations connected with merchandising. Allotments for this type of education in classes of less than college grade were designated for use as salaries and traveling expenses of educators, the maintenance of teacher training in merchandising subjects, and the organization of classes for training in specific lines of work involving the sale of goods. The appropriation to the State from these Federal funds must be matched by the State in the proportion that the total population bears to the entire population of the United States and its Territories. (Q)

Aside from the specific money set aside through the George-Dean Act for distributive occupational training, this legislation, supplementary in effect to the Smith-Hughes law, released several millions of dollars in Government funds to be increased periodically for the further promotion of vocational training in general. This general fund, dependent upon matching appropriations by the States, aided materially in providing vital facilities for the hitherto handicapped development of the merchandising occupations. These facilities were provided by the H. Fletcher Brown Vocational High School, which superseded Wilmington's antiquated Trade School. The prime factor in obtaining support for building of the Brown school was passage of the George-Dean Act. The Brown school admits only white students; for Negroes, training in distributive occupations is offered in Wilmington's Howard High School.(Q)

All phases of selling, direct and indirect, are covered in Delaware's program of training for the distributive, or merchandising, occupations, and encompass salesmanship, practical merchan-

dising, retail advertising, sales promotion, show card writing, window trimming, store display, and store organization. (G) (H) (J).

Public training in vocational merchandising, a partially independent sub-division of the Division of Vocational Education's department of trades and industries, stems from the office, in Wilmington, of the Assistant State Supervisor of Distributive Occupations and his aides to training units throughout the State. The chief of vocational work in distributive occupations is styled the Assistant State Supervisor, but he is, in effect if not by name, a full-fledged supervisor. He is styled the Assistant Supervisor because the vocational training division, distributive occupations, of which he is the head, although virtually independent in respect to program organization, is a part of the department under jurisdiction of the State Supervisor of Trade and Industrial Education. Like the State Supervisor who, ipso jure, is the individual who holds the post of City Supervisor of Trade and Industrial Education for Wilmington, the Assistant Supervisor for the State's program of distributive occupations likewise is the city's executive head for merchandising education. These officers of Wilmington's Board of Public Education serve in these dual capacities because the overwhelming percentage of the State's training is centered logically within the metropolitan area of Wilmington, hub of the State's merchandising activities, both retail and wholesale. (H) (J)

Instruction in the field of distributive occupations is organized along lines for three distinct kinds of classes, namely:

(1) all-day classes for high school students and post-graduates; (2) part-time day classes on a cooperative basis whereby the employed person spends portions of his time with his employer and the school, and (3) evening classes composed of general groups interested in the same type problems or highly specialized groups interested in specific problems. (G) (H) (J)

The keynote of all instruction given in merchandising problems under the Delaware Plan for Vocational Education, a printed guide on policies revised every five years, is practicability of application. With this keynote in view at all times, the scope of training encompasses, according to the type of class and degree of cooperation between school and merchant; (1) classroom instruction and exercises; (2) cooperative application of training in the mercantile establishment wherein the student is employed, and (3) "shop" work in the school, where the student solves merchandising problems under conditions that might prevail in the business for which he is training or in which he is engaged already. (F) (G)(H) (J).

Educators in the distributive occupations field are imbued with the practical idealism, similar to the convictions held by the training staffs in all other vocational units of instruction, that merchandising is a public service as well as a way of earning a livelihood. To this end, courses are organized in such a manner that their coordination will develop abilities in individuals in order that they may: (1) become established firmly in a particular line of merchandising; (2)

understand thoroughly the nature of the products they purpose to handle for distribution; (3) manage effectively all transactions leading to profitable transfer of goods; (4) direct with efficiency a unit of business concerned with putting goods into the hands of consumers; (5) maintain store stock and furnishings in such a manner that will promote the best interests of both the business and the buying public; (6) organize a business for the highest degree of productiveness; (7) adjust themselves readily to changing trends that may affect merchandising, and (8) exercise initiative and recognize and follow leadership. (F) (A) (B)(G) (H) (J)

Although classes in distributive occupations are not as numerous in the State's secondary schools as those for either vocational agriculture or homemaking, the number of schools fostering this type of commercial education have increased greatly since financial means were made available under the George-Dean Act. While the greater percentage of work in the merchandising field is centered in Wilmington, schools not only in rural New Castle County but in the two lower counties of the State now conduct distributive trades courses. Emphasis, outside of Wilmington, is placed upon part-time and evening school programs. During the 1938-1939 school term, 742 persons were enrolled in all classes. In addition to the all-day classes conducted at the H. Fletcher Brown Vocational High School and at Howard High School, twenty-four part-time and evening groups completed courses in centers throughout the State. A total of 595 persons were enrolled in evening and part-time classes. The 1938-1939 term was marked by such an upsurge in interest in distributive trades training that expansion in this field has necessitated organization of additional teacher

training programs to supply instructors for courses which include general merchandising, grocery merchandising and sales promotion, meat merchandising and meat cutting, department store work, electric refrigeration salesmanship, wholesale hardware principles, life insurance writing, and for persons preparing for or engaged in work dealing with women's-ready-to-wear stores, novelty shops, general stores, laundry routes, waitress service, and salesmanaging. (G) (H) (J)

Preparation of instructors for Delaware's distributive trade classes falls within the province of the Assistant State Supervisor of Distributive Occupations. He and his teacher training aides conduct intensive courses embodying: (1) selection and classification of subject matter; (2) methods of teaching, including the mastery of the conference method, and (3) practices and policies of vocational education, with particular stress on those revolving about training for the merchandising occupations. Practical experience in merchandising jobs for prospective instructors is stressed particularly in considering applicants for grants of certificates. The State has maintained consistently high standards for the professional and practical background required of its supervisors, teachers and teacher trainers, and from this course it has not deviated in formulating a program for merchandising, although the work in this field still is largely (1940) in the experimental stage. (F) (G) (H) (J).

Requirements that must be satisfied before appointment to the supervisory post in distributive education are as rigid as those for the State Supervisor of Trade and Industrial Education,

save that no previous supervisory experience is necessary, and the requirement as to length of professional background is modified to a shorter period of study. Although the chief of the merchandising section of vocational training is designated as Assistant, his responsibilities compare in scope to those of his titular chief, and, therefore, he must be trained thoroughly in the administration and supervision of trade and industrial schools. He must have received his education at an approved technical school, or its equivalent, and he must have acquired trade and teaching experience. (F) (G) (H) (J)

The required educational background of the Assistant Supervisor, in addition to training at an approved technical school, or its equivalent, must have included the following professional studies: (1) the philosophy of vocational education; (2) the supervision and administration of trade and industrial schools; (3) occupational analyses for trade and industrial school work, including compilation and utilization; (4) the methods of training instructors for trade and technical subjects, and (5) the organization of the content of training courses. (F) (H) (J).

The required practical background of the Assistant Supervisor must have been acquired through actual experience, namely: (1) in teaching--wherein he must have completed at least two years of successful work as an instructor of approved trade preparatory or trade extension classes which meet the standards of the Delaware Plan for Vocational Education; and (2) in trade--wherein he must have had at least three years of practical experience as a wage earner in a trade or industrial occupation of the kind he is expected to supervise. Although the aspirant for the

Assistant Supervisor's post must have had at least two years of work in an approved college or technical school, or the equivalent, he is not required, as in the case of the State Supervisor, to have had experience in any supervisory or administrative post. (F) (H) (J)

The principal duties of the Assistant Supervisor of Distributive Occupations fall into three categories: Promotional, inspectional, and instructional. His promotional responsibilities comprise: (1) the planning of courses of study in the distributive field; (2) the organization of all classes in the various divisions of merchandising education; (3) the selection of all teachers on the job for special training; (4) the arrangement of study programs for both occupational and teacher training classes in the merchandising field; (5) the preparation of surveys, studies, and investigations considered vital for advancing the program of education in the distributive occupational field; (6) the compilation of yearly schedules of work, and (7) cooperation with mercantile establishments, labor organizations, and civic associations to correlate further the work of his department with the needs of business. (F) (H) (J)

The inspectional responsibilities of the Assistant Supervisor comprise: (1) assisting the State Supervisor in general supervision and inspection of the work of teachers and students in the distributive trades classes; (2) conducting of individual and group conferences with all teachers in his department, whether in the all-day, part-time, or evening classes; (3) discovering those points on which his teachers need assistance, and (4) maintenance of close contact with classes throughout the State, whether conducted in public educational centers or in mercantile establishments. (F)(H)(J)

The instructional responsibilities of the Assistant Supervisor consist of: (1) organization of special in-service teacher training classes; (2) specific aid to teachers in training their students for particular niches in the merchandising field; (3) visits to classes in order to devise means for improving instruction; (4) individual assistance to his teachers through correspondence, giving advice by means of personal letters or printed instructions designed to promote improvement in specific training, and (5) professional improvement of his teachers through group conferences. (F) (G) (H) (J)

Of paramount importance in the training of merchandising instructors is this department's intensive course designed to provide adequately prepared conference leaders. The plan underlying the training of conference leaders envisages placement of these specially trained workers in educational guidance posts in their own mercantile establishments where they will be incharge of worker-students. In charge of this leaders' corps is the State Conference Leader who is responsible for general supervision and whose particular duty it is to give individual assistance to conference groups. All conference leaders (1940), in addition to having received thorough instruction in teaching methods for their particular occupations, had at least four years' practical experience in store work. The teacher training course for conference leaders includes instruction in methods of conducting group conferences of worker-students, job analyses, methods of teaching merchandising subjects under the cooperative part-time plan, and the effective organization of subject matter. The State Conference Leader is directly responsible to the Assistant Supervisor of Dis-

tributive Occupations for the efficient functioning of these store conference groups, and acts as the liaison officer between the cooperating employers and the public schools' vocational officials. (G) (J) (N)(T) (U) (H).

Teacher training methods in the distributive trades department, like those for all other divisions of vocational education under the Delaware Plan, subordinate theory to practice. Practice teaching is done "on the job" and under supervision of the teacher trainers. All teacher trainers, whether in the all-day, the evening, or the cooperative part-time classes, are persons trained thoroughly for their particular jobs through both schooling and practical experience. Rigid requirements of the Division of Vocational Education as to background and in-service improvement are met by all teacher trainers in the distributive occupations department. Particular emphasis is placed upon practical experience in both merchandising and teaching, as well as upon professional pedagogical and technical education in the selection of teacher trainers. As the Assistant State Supervisor of Distributive Occupations serves as the department's chief teacher trainer, the qualifications of his aides are much the same. (F) (G) (H) (J)

The qualifications governing training and appointment of instructors in the merchandising field are determined, in large part, by stipulations for Federal aid set forth in the George-Dean Act and its predecessor, the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act, which are the bases of Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education. (Q) (A) (B) (G) (H) (J).

In addition to conference leaders who conduct cooperative part-time classes in mercantile establishments, merchandising instructors

conduct courses in all-day and evening classes in centers regularly operated by the city or State boards of public instruction. All evening school instructors are required to have had at least six years of trade experience and at least twenty hours of organized instruction in: (1) job analysis; (2) organization of subject matter; (3) methods of teaching evening school work. Instructors in the all-day classes, none of the teachers (1940) has less than six years' trade experience and two years of college training in addition to six years of teaching experience. In-service training during each year of staff work is required of all instructors, no matter what type of instruction they may give under the Assistant Supervisor of Distributive Occupations or his aides. (F) (G) (H) (J).

In-service training of merchandising instructors constitutes a large part of the time of the Assistant Supervisor of Distributive Occupations and his aides. The courses of study, organized along the itinerant short unit line, comprise: (1) instruction by the supervisor and specialists in the most up-to-the-minute methods in merchandising training; (2) coordination of various local and sectional trends and needs in particular mercantile fields; (3) the latest most practicable ways of presenting subject matter to the student after careful job analyses and planning of lessons. Talks to the rest of the class on a specific subject connected with merchandising are required of all student-teachers. (F) (G) (H) (J).

Methods of training students for effective work in distributive occupations are rooted primarily in the tested procedure that the best results are obtained through individual instruction, with stress placed upon practical application of knowledge. Students

are required to learn by doing, carrying out their training assignments, as far as practicable, "on the job". In short, practical application supersedes theoretical instruction--the procedure followed in all State classes of a vocational nature. (B) (F) (G) (H) (J).

Cooperation of mercantile houses and associations of public-spirited business men and women has been of inestimable service to the school authorities in promoting the practical contributions of merchandising education to commercial progress. Encouraging support has been forthcoming (1940) from local chambers of commerce, civic associations, luncheon service clubs, and individual merchants who have cooperated through vocational training officials and conference leaders in the organization of classes in educational centers and in stores. (T) (U) (G) (H) (J).

The possibilities of vocational training for improvement of business are being impressed steadily each year upon the minds of business leaders whose personnel records in comparison with balance sheets disclose indisputable facts that employees who have been properly trained for their jobs have exceeded by far those workers not so trained in the amount of business attracted and the efficiency of their work. (T) (U) (G) (H) (J).

An unlimited opportunity for retraining is contained in the program followed by educators in the merchandising field. This retraining makes it possible for persons who have had retail selling experience to transfer into other fields. A concrete example of the effectiveness of this type of re-education is found in the records of the Division of Vocational Education, A group of twenty young women who were insufficiently trained for retail store work in the

capacity of salesgirls on the floor were placed as waitresses after being retrained. (G) (H) (J).

Progress of education in the merchandising field has been accelerated since the release of funds through operation of the George-Dean law. Until then, work in this branch of trades and industrial training was handicapped, and lagged far behind vocational education in other fields. Concrete efforts to interest mercantile leaders in the organization of distributive trade classes began during the school term of 1935-1936, when a "Shoppers' Bureau" was instituted by the Wilmington vocational education officials in cooperation with the Mercantile Section of the Chamber of Commerce and the Works Progress Administration, now designated as the Work Projects Administration. Part-time classes had been held in a few stores where salespeople met once a week for discussions of their problems, but institution of the "Shoppers' Bureau" gave impetus to serious development of merchandising education. Trained shoppers were employed by the merchants and used in checking the sales and service efforts of their salespersons. These reports brought forth requests for conferences on means to organize merchandising classes. (T) (U)

In correlating its merchandising courses to the needs of the retail mercantile field, the distributive trades department of the Division of Vocational Education has been aided materially not only by the chambers of commerce and other business groups but through the timely counsel of the State Vocational Advisory Committee. (G) (H) (J).

During the school term of 1937-1938, a survey, conducted through a group of National Youth Administration enrollees who were juniors

at the University of Delaware, was completed to determine how the work of retail salespeople could be improved. This survey has been used as the basis for much of the store training work since pursued in the training program of Delaware's vocational education officials. (G) (H) (J).

During the school term of 1937-1938, a survey, conducted through a group of National Youth Administration enrollees who were juniors at the University of Delaware, was completed to determine how the work of retail salespeople could be improved. This survey has been used as the basis for much of the store training work since pursued in the training program of Delaware's vocational education officials. (G) (H) (J).

Opportunities for employment in the selling field, in comparison for placements in other lines of work, have been found through exhaustive investigations to exceed those for most other occupations. It has been found further that most persons dislike direct selling work because of the heavy resistance, but that a large percentage will succeed in the work with proper training. Opportunities still exceed the supply of trained workers in the merchandising field despite the growing demand for skilled technicians accelerated by the passage (1940) of Federal legislation stepping up industries directly or closely allied to the needs of national defense. (G) (H) (J).

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Part II - Section 6

Vocational Rehabilitation

Only since the spring of 1939 has Delaware been committed to a full program of occupational training--or retraining--for its physically handicapped citizens unable to earn livelihoods through their customary vocations. When, in April of that year, the State's legislature accepted provisions of the Federal Government for financial aid in promoting public rehabilitation classes, Delaware launched such a humanitarian program, which many of its sister States had instituted nearly twenty years earlier. It was in 1920 that the Congress enacted a statute, supplementary to the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act of 1917, whereby disabled civilians were given the opportunity of becoming economically useful members of society, but Delaware, first in many other progressive activities, was the last State in the Union to cooperate with Washington in rehabilitation of the handicapped. (V., W.)

Although Delaware's educational neglect of the physically handicapped received legislative correction little more than a year ago, the achievements to date (August 1940) of the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation have gone beyond the expectations of its administrator, with comparative statistics revealing that rapid progress is placing Delaware toward the forefront of States in the number of "graduates" successfully readjusted and placed.

Delaware's vocational rehabilitation law was approved by the General Assembly in April 1939, and became effective the following July 1, although actual operation did not commence until August 1 after selection of administrative personnel, approval of a State-wide plan of training, and the opening of the bureau's central office in Wilmington's Delaware Trust Building. (J., W.)

Incorporated into Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education, which undergoes revision every five years, the department for training of disabled civilians is under direction of the State Supervisor of Vocational Rehabilitation responsible, as are the supervisors of agricultural, homemaking, merchandising, and trade and industrial education, to the State Director for Vocational Education. Although the bureau is under control of the State Board for Vocational Education, this particular unit of the Department of Public Instruction's Division of Vocational Education works in close cooperation with the State's Industrial Accident Board and informally with all other agencies concerned with the peculiar problems of the physically handicapped. The mentally handicapped do not come within the jurisdiction of these vocational rehabilitation officials. Such persons receive assistance through other State and local agencies. (V., W., X.)

In reference to specific help for the handicapped, Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education states that "It is the purpose of vocational rehabilitation to render physically handicapped persons fit to engage in occupations which will make them self-supporting, thereby creating happiness and

contentment among those individuals and families affected. It is definitely part of our education program, in conjunction with grammar schools, vocational schools, colleges, and universities. Delaware is a part of the national program instituted in 1920, offering special training to physically handicapped persons, so that they may take their proper place in the community and fulfill their duties of citizenship with others." (V., W., X., Y., A2)

The Delaware law provides educational opportunities for the handicapped regardless of sex or race and for both children and adults. Such special aid is offered in academic as well as vocational classes. The law requires reporting to the school authorities of all handicapped children in each district on or before the fifteenth day of October of each year, and orders the State Board of Education to maintain classes with special facilities wherever possible to supply the needs of all children physically handicapped. Instruction for such children, however, is concerned with academic subjects, in the main, and comes within the province of the Division of Special Education and Hygiene rather than the Division of Vocational Education. (V., W., Y., Z.)

In strict conformity to the cooperative Federal-State plan, financing of the rehabilitation program is shared equally by Delaware and the Washington government, with the total annual funds for the work now set at $10,000. The

Supervisor employs his office staff help, but no special teachers are employed by the bureau; existing agencies qualified to give special training are used for the rehabilitation work. (V., W., Y., Z)

Services of the rehabilitation bureau are open free of charge to all physically handicapped persons who present reasonable prospects of becoming employable after proper training and treatment of physical defects. Applicants for aid may be totally or partially disabled, but the disabilities must be of such nature that they hamper seriously the abilities of individuals in earning their livelihoods through occupations for which they had prepared themselves by education and subsequent experience. Disabilities may be congenital or they may have been caused by accident or disease. All applicants for special vocational training must be at least sixteen years of age. Persons who apply for this special assistance must have incurred their disabilities while residents of Delaware. (V., W., Y., Z)

When, in 1920, The Federal Congress passed rehabilitation legislation supplementary to the then three-years-old Smith-Hughes Vocational Act, it incorporated into the law stringent regulations governing conditions under which the individual States and Territories would be granted financial assistance for training of the physically handicapped. To receive such Federal funds, the State must adhere closely to the law's stipulations regarding the earmarking and use of funds for rehabilitation work, the creation and administration of a vocational rehabilitation bureau, and the types of

instruction and other services given rehabilitation enrollees, whose admission to courses of training must be determined by rules not at variance with the Federal stipulations. (V., W., Y., Z., X)

Prerequisites for State participation in the Federal program follow closely those of the original Smith-Hughes Act, namely: (1) each State must accept by legislative act the provisions of the rehabilitation law; (2) it must set up its own State-wide administrative agency to oversee the work of the instructors and keep close contact with students, and (3) it must give authority to the State Board for Vocational Education to draft a plan which meets with the approval of the Federal Office of Education officials charged with promotion of special vocational training for the handicapped. House Bill 46, enacted into law by the 1939 legislature, at Dover, covered these points, and the Division of Vocational Education's program for the training of disabled civilians was approved by the Federal authorities and incorporated in Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education. (V., W., X)

Provisions of the Federal rehabilitation law, the Smith-Bankhead Act, are stringent, but offer a wide latitute on organization plans because of varying local conditions. The Federal legislation recognizes that a general plan for the entire Nation would be impractical and that, therefore, each State should devise its own specific plan to cover its particular needs. State plans may be altered by mutual consent of the

State and Federal officials should changing local situations warrant. (V., W., X, Z)

Financing of Delaware's program, like those of other States, is shared equally by the national and State governments. Although the General Assembly has not provided State funds, thus far, (August 1940) to carry on rehabilitation work, the legislative act of 1939 creating Delaware's vocational rehabilitation bureau authorizes the State Board for Vocational Education to receive financial donations unconditionally offered to maintain this branch of educational effort. The Federal law stipulates, however, that such financial contributions must not be accepted on behalf of a particular individual but must come from private agencies. (J., V., W., X., Y)

Funds earmarked for vocational rehabilitation must be used only for the specific purposes enumerated in the Federal act. This money may be expended to defray administrative expenses, including salaries of the staff, the purchase of office supplies, rental of office, travel, communication (postage, telephone, telegraph, or messenger services), for publicity, for the expenses of research, and for obtaining reference materials. (W.)

Such funds may be used also for legitimate expenses directly connected with the training of handicapped students. Necessary expenses in this connection cover the purchase of supplies essential to the training courses and the tuition of students. Access to the funds is authorized for the purchase of bodily appliances vital for the well-being of the students.

Such appliances for the handicapped includes such devices as braces and artificial limbs when they cannot be obtained through other public or private agencies. It is legal, too, to use such money to defray the cost of transportation of the bureau's clients to the nearest point where they can receive instruction. The only other purpose for which money from these funds may be employed is for the medical examinations required for the proper handling of cases. (V., W.)

The Federal law expressly forbids the use of these rehabilitation funds for buying, leasing, or the maintenance of land, buildings, or administrative equipment; for medical treatment or for surgical services or for the care of students in hospitals or clinics; for the students' living expenses, or for the basis of capital stock to establish any of the students in business. (V.,W.)

Individualized service is the keynote of all instruction and other assistance given physically handicapped persons through Delaware's vocational rehabilitation bureau. The supervisor, or any aide he may assign as his agent, must keep constantly in touch with his client from the time the handicapped student matriculates in a vocational class, through the period of adjustment and training to placement in a wage-earning job. Even when his client has been placed successfully in private employment, the supervisor must continue to follow his case and be ready at all times to offer counsel and give such other practical assistance that will guide the graduate through the difficult period of readjustment in a pursuit different from his former mode of life. (V., W., X)

Under no circumstances are handicapped students segregated from the physically fit in any of the public school classes under the Division of Vocational Education. Separate schools, of course, are operated by the State for Negroes and white students. But, for psychological as well as for fund-conserving reasons, physically handicapped persons receive their instruction in the regularly established State centers for vocational training. No special teachers are employed by the rehabilitation bureau; its clients receive instruction under the men and women regularly assigned to the teaching staffs of the State's vocational schools. Day classes, part-time instruction, and evening vocational training are available for the handicapped on as near a basis of equality with other students as possible. (W., Y)

The Delaware State Plan for Vocational Education states that

> "In the operation of the program, it will be the policy of the State Board to provide a rehabilitation service for individuals from all groups of the physically handicapped; to maintain a reasonable distribution of cases with regrad to age, race, sex, education, and origin and nature of disability; and to maintain a reasonable geographical distribution of cases throughout the State." (A2)

The Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, organized as a definite part of the Division of Vocational Education, assumes the attitude that the training or retraining of the handicapped is a social, economic, and educational activity in the same sense as are education through the customary public school system, public health, and other activities which have the public welfare at heart. The work of this rehabilitation service is by no means a charity, it is emphasized, but is as legitimate a part of the public educational system as the city or district elementary or high school. (A2)

Qualifications specified by law for Delaware's State Supervisor of Vocational Rehabilitation and his aides are similar, in general, to those required for the supervising heads and assistants of the other bureaus of vocational training. Their educational and practical background in regard to trade, teaching, supervisory, and professional work are set at the same high standards as those required for the State's vocational supervisors and assistants in agriculture, home economics, merchandising, and trades and industries. The personalities of the supervisor and his aides are of prime importance, because all agents who deal with the handicapped must be able to instill confidence and get cooperation both from the disabled persons with whom they come in contact and the prospective employers of these persons who are the clients of the vocational bureau. Tact, wisdom, patience, and tenacity are prerequisites to success. But, while a sympathetic approach to the problems of the disabled is necessary, the agents must assume, at no time, maudlin attitudes toward their handicapped students, for obvious psychological reasons. (V., W.)

The rehabilitation supervisor must have had thorough educational grounding in the theories of sociology, psychology, vocational guidance, and methods of research. Practical experennce in vocational guidance, training, and placement of the

physically handicapped must have supplemented his classroom education; he must have been in actual contact, on the job, with disabled persons and must have had first-hand contact of a practical nature with industrial practices in the section of the country where he is assigned to labor for the State. (V., W)

Duties of the State Supervisor of Vocational Rehabilitation are manifold. These responsibilities, like those of the supervisory chiefs for other State vocational bureaus, are divided into three categories: Promotional, inspectional, and instructional. A large portion of the rehabilitation chief's time is devoted to promotional work, including: Organization of classes; placing of the students under instructors particularly fitted to give those kinds of training, in whole or in part, specifically needed in individual cases; preparation and approval of individual programs of training; preparation of State reports on rehabilitation education, studies, surveys, and investigations, and establishment and maintenance of contacts with industrial leaders to acquaint them with the work and possibilities of the rehabilitation program. (V., W., X., Y.)

The rehabilitation supervisor must keep in more intimate touch with the students under his department than must the heads of the other branches of the State's vocational education set-up. The very nature of his work makes this

continuously close contact between the supervisor and his clients imperative to assure success. Maintenance of these individual contacts is the rehabilitation chief's main inspectional responsibility. (V., W., X., Y.)

The supervisor's instructional duties are linked closely to his inspectional responsibilities. But, unlike the supervisors for agriculture, merchandising, homemaking, and trades and industries, the Supervisor of Vocational Rehabilitation is not directly responsible for the improvement of teachers in service or for instructor training. His instructional duties are concerned, in the main, with the disabled persons he places for instruction under teachers accountable to the supervisory heads of the other vocational units. (V., W., X., Y., Z.)

In view of the highly personalized functions of the rehabilitation bureau, the supervisor must be prepared to conduct a complete survey of the underlying facts of each individual case, then make provisions for whatever physical repair and vocational training is necessary for each of his clients, give individual aid in selection of jobs and placement, and finally, keep contact with the graduates to make sure that adjustments to the jobs are complete. In his dealings with both client and potential employer, the supervisor must exercise tact and understanding. In short, he must be thoroughly capable of coping with the natural sensitiveness of the handicapped student and the peculiar attitudes held by many of these disabled persons. The supervisor's

knowledge must include complete data concerning all types of jobs available, in his area of operation, to handicapped persons. He must be conversant with the compensation laws of Delaware, and must be capable of assisting his clients to arrange their financial affairs, including personal budgets, during their entire period of vocational training and adjustment. (V., W., X., Y., Z.)

The supervisor's information about the technical and personal requirements of each job must be of such an extent that he will be able, within reason, to place the right person in the position for which he is best fitted. Of prime importance, too, is the responsibility of the rehabilitation chief to protect his clients at all times against the possibility of some employers attempting to exploit workmen because of their physical handicaps. It is the duty of the supervisor to impress his clients with the fact that they must receive adequate financial recompense for work given, and that they must, under no circumstances, consider that their pay constitutes charity hand-outs for which they are required to merely go through the motions of performing their jobs. (V., W., X., Y., Z.)

A minutely personalized survey of each individual by the supervisor, or his aides, must be conducted to provide a clear picture of the individual's interests, abilities, and

limitations, upon which to base a practical process of restoration to economic proficiency. This examination must determine the client's physical, mental, and psychological status, taking into account: (1) the extent of physical disability and the degree to which correction is possible; (2) the extent of his formal education; (3) the advance of his educational level since leaving school, achieved through study and contact with practical problems; (4) the acquirement of specific skills through job experience; (5) any special abilities acquired through avocational pursuits, or the basic potentialities for vocational development existing by reason of such hobbies; (6) his intelligence level, comprising the three main categories of (a) ability to comprehend abstract symbols, (b) ability to deal with other persons, and (c) ability to manipulate objects; the degree in which he is able to coordinate these three mental abilities for practical use, and the dominant mental bias; (7) his personality traits, including morale and attitudes, and (8) his vocational interests. (V., W.)

Although a record of each client's age, sex, and race is a routine procedure, the bearing of these three items on training and potential placement is important. The United States law specifies no minimum age for extending the benefits of vocational rehabilitation, but Delaware requires a student to be at least sixteen years old when applying for assistance. No maximum age limit exists; anyone who may be reasonably certain of employment after rehabilitation will be accepted for physical correction and vocational training. During the physical and

mental survey, however, care is taken by the supervisor, or other examiners, to bar from the rolls all mental defectives or persons who would need custodial care regardless of any vocational training given to them. In addition to mental defectives, epileptics, the irremedial helpless due to physical defects, and those suffering from speech defects, congenital or acquired, are barred by Federal law from receiving the benefits of the vocational rehabilitation program. (V., W.)

Practical psychology--applied coomon-sense--plays one of the most important roles in the education and placement of disabled civilians. Upon the proper use of psychology depends the outcome of each individual case. It is obvious that if an intelligent disabled person is placed in a position below his mental level he will tend to be ashamed of it, consciously or subconsciously, and this attitude, as a consequence, will cause him to fail or endanger seriously his chances for success. That situation holds true in the cases of physically normal persons; it is accentuated among those who already suffer from one handicap--that of being physically inferior to one's fellows. To place a person of superior intelligence and training in a job beneath his abilities and providing financial returns not commensurate with the worker's capacities is psychologically unfair and unwise for both worker and employer. The far-reaching ill-effects of such a situation are recognized officially in the vocational rehabilitation program, and educators in charge of the program strive to prevent such senseless waste from the initial individual survey, through every educative step, to final placement. The bureau recognizes, also,

that social satisfaction is equally as important as job satisfaction. To this end, the rehabilitation agents endeavor to place their clients in positions which will bring them in contact with others of the social level to which they are accustomed. In short, the vocational educators recognize the fundamental truth that any radical change socially, either up or down, is bad pyschologically, and hence vocationally, applied psychology saves money. (V., W., Z.)

The psychological angle is considered also when the client's financial affairs are studied and aid given in their arrangement by the bureau, as it is obvious that a program of personal physical and vocational rehabilitation would be useless in face of an individual's possible mental harassment due to money worries. Before allowing the individual to embark on a training schedule, the bureau, therefore, assists him in putting his financial house in order through making provision for taking care of dependents as well as himself during his period of job preparation. (V., W., Z.)

After completeon of this detailed individual survey to determine eligibility and point the way to a specific program, the supervisor's first consideration in relation to his client is to correct any physical defects through artificial appliances or surgery that medical advisors may suggest. (V., W.)

Selection of a vocational goal is largely left to the individual to be trained. The supervisor guides but does not compel his client in the selection of a job, but, of course, the rehabilitation chief will not permit a disabled person to pick a vocation for which he would not be able to qualify irrespective of any course he might enter. Should a client

select such a vocational goal impossible of attainment, the supervisor is able usually to lead him to make another choice, a related substitute, which will meet the client's interests, abilities, and limitations. It is the duty of the supervisor to explain in detail all lines of activity in which the disabled person might earn his livelihood if given adequate training based on his abilities and potential capabilities. (W.)

When the enrollee, with the guidance of the supervisor, has made a satisfactory choice of his vocational goal, the specific methods of attaining that objective are considered carefully by the bureau's head. The procedure to be followed in mapping an individual course of training depends largely upon the kind of work the client has selected, but no matter what the choice has been the methods of training must adhere to the principle set forth in the rehabilitation program that preparation must give the greatest results in the least possible time. (W., X.)

As the rehabilitation bureau employs no special teachers of its own, training of its clients is given usually under the same instructors and in the same classes organized for physically normal students. These classes are part of the State's public school system and are conducted either in school buildings devoted exclusively to vocational training, as Wilmington's H. Fletcher Brown Vocational High School, or in other secondary schools with special equipment for occupational instruction. Like the

classes maintained for normal vocational students, those for the disabled are offered in all-day courses, in evening school, and in cooperative part-time instruction. It is explicitly stipulated by law, however, that no segregation of the disabled shall be made in any of these classes, for psychological as well as money conservation reasons. Preparation of the disabled students may be conducted, also, through apprentice training in industrial establishments. The law provides, too, for the use of correspondence courses or tutoring, when no other facilities are available, but these two methods are far from satisfactory. The average training period for a student taking work under the rehabilitation is nine months, although it may be only a few days on the job as an apprentice. Four-year university courses may be given under the vocational rehabilitation law. (W., X.)

Persons need not be totally disabled to receive assistance under the terms of the rehabilitation act. Few cases, according to official records, are handled by the rehabilitation officials without correction of physical handicaps and the subsequent vocational training courses. Cases do exist, however, where the applicant for assistance requires merely advice in adjusting himself to a difficult position, possibly through conferences with his employer. Instances exist, too, where advice is given to a handicapped person on launching a business for himself, but under no circumstances will the law permit the use of funds, allotted for vocational rehabilitation, as capital by a client. His business financing must come from sources other than that reserved exclusively for the organization and

maintenance of vocational training facilities for the physically handicapped. (W., X., Y.)

The job of the rehabilitation supervisor does not end with completion of the training course by his student. He must help him to select his specific niche in the industrial world and take steps to obtain a job for him. Placement is the hardest part of the supervisor's tasks, as he must overcome the prejudice of many employers toward the hiring of physically handicapped persons irrespective of their intelligence and trained skills for the jobs in question. It is not the least important of the supervisor's responsibilities to establish cordial contacts with potential employers of handicapped persons, break down prejudices against employment of physically abnormal workers, and pave the way for his future graduates toward quicker absorption by industry. The rehabilitation chief must be conversant with employment conditions throughout the entire area where his students might be placed in jobs. Failure faces any vocational rehabilitation program should any wide-spread employer prejudice against the handicapped not be broken down. (W.)

After placement of the graduate in a job of the type for which he has received specific training, the responsibility of the supervisor, even at this point, does not end. He must continue his contact with the case until he is satisfied that the adjustment of his client to his job is complete. To this end, the supervisor arranges for conferences with both the employee and his employer to devise the most practical means for correcting any maladjustments that still may exist. (W., V.)

In recapitulating the procedure of the State's rehabilitation plan, it should be noted that particular emphasis is laid upon individualized service. Delaware's plan for rehabilitating disabled persons for useful work, based on the Federal Smith-Bankhead Act, stipulates in the first place that the intermediaries between the rehabilitation bureau's clients and all other individuals and agencies contacted during the restoration program shall be tactful and well-informed. These intermediaries, who comprise the supervisor and his agents, if any, must keep and continuously evaluate a record of each individual client in regard to his background, his capabilities and limitations, and his progress toward restoration to economic efficiency. The supervisor and his agents must be equipped thoroughly to supervise the training schedule for the disabled student's rehabilitation, and must be prepared to act as employment agency to place him in industry when he has completed his training period. Finally, they must be able to check the progress of the client in his new job until they are satisfied that the adjustment of the man to the job has been effective. (V., W., X.)

Although Delaware was the last of the forty-eight States to accept the benefits of the Federal Civilian Industrial Rehabilitation Law, popularly known as the Smith-Bankhead Act, the State's progress in this field compares favorably with restoration programs in other parts of the Nation. The Federal law, passed by the Congress on June 2, 1920, became operative in Delaware on July 1, 1939, after having been approved by the General Assembly the preceding April 12. Delaware's Plan for Administration of Vocational Rehabilitation is the basis

upon which the work of the rehabilitation bureau is fostered. This plan, like Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education, is drafted to cover a five-year period, and must be revised for approval of the Federal Office of Education periodically. The plan under which the bureau now operated (1940) covers the period between July 1, 1937, and June 30, 1942, the period running concurrently with Delaware's Plan for Vocational Education, although actual operation of the law for the education of Delaware's disabled civilians did not go into force until July 1, 1939. (W., J.)

The Industrial Accident Board works in close harmony with the State Board for Vocational Education in the vocational rehabilitation program. (W., J.)

Greatest of the difficulties to be overcome by the State Supervisor and his aides, that of obtaining the full-hearted cooperation of industrial employers in placement of physically handicapped persons after retraining, is meeting with success far beyond the expectations of educational leaders. Pioneers in this field of the State's educational endeavors express encouragement over the outlook for restoring to useful industrial service Delaware's many citizens vocationally handicapped after proper guidance and retraining. (X., W.)

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Folder: Education 381 Colored

Survey of Vocational Education and Guidance of Negroes: Reese Hammond, State Supervisor of National Survey of Vocational Education and Guidance of Negroes.

8/26/36

The precarious status of the Negro on the fringe of economic security has caused leaders to search for a means of improvement.

Until recently no definite effort has been made to ascertain the relation between the economic position of the Negro and his opportunity to prepare himself for a vocation. Now several government agencies have coordinately sponsored surveys of various nature to gather data to determine such position.

The key survey of this movement has been the Survey of Vocational Education and Guidance of Negroes conducted by the United States Office of Education, Department of The Interior with the co-operation of the Works Progress Administration of the various States.

Educationally, the Negro of Delaware enjoys the privilege of attending schools better than those of any other state ~~of borderline~~ border status. Whether his economic opportunities are equal to his educational advantages will only be known upon publication of the findings of the surveys.

The Survey of Vocational Education and Guidance of Negroes of Delaware was conducted by an all-Negro staff gathered through the interest and co-operation of Miss Jeannette Eckman, Director of Women's and Professional Projects and Bankson T. Holcomb, State Works Progress Administrator in conjunction with

central and regional staff officers outside of the State.

The fine degree of co-operation exemplified by Works Progress officials in Delaware was a typical example of the sympathetic interest among several Delaware white groups in racial problems. In view of sinister and subtle barriers erected to prevent the functioning of this project in many states, the administrative staff of Dr. Ambrose Caliver, director; Harold L. Trigg, associate director, and Walter R. Chivers, regional director, is deeply grateful to its white friends in Delaware.

The purpose of the survey was to find how many vocational courses are available for Negroes, what provisions exist for vocational guidance and placement, how many prepared teachers are in service and the extent of preparation; the amount of adequate equipment available for training purposes, and to learn of the training, home background and vocational aspirations of the students themselves. The study was also intended to learn the number of Negroes who have achieved success without vocational training or guidance.

The statistics of the survey were gathered by a corps of investigators who made personal contact with selected cases and transcribed data from institution records, where available.

An example of one phase of the survey is the census of high school graduates and "dropouts," taken from school records and a subsequent follow-up of the person identified by the census card and the completion of a

schedule at the residence of the person.

This procedure is expected to provide a history of the person through his high school career, whether graduate or not, into the field of economic endeavor. Thus a tabulation of the findings in cases studied will allow very certain conclusion as to the benefits or shortcomings of vocational training and guidance. This procedure will also allow educators to estimate the vocational needs of the future student in accordance with the opportunities in his locality for work.

From the beginning of the survey certain glaring discrepancies in the present vocational training system were evident. Perhaps the most regretable of these was the absence of data on student enrollment cards and the total lack of any knowledge of the student other than his academic standing.

The failure to follow up or advise the student in matters pertaining to placement left many aspiring students in a difficult situation. Here schedules revealed that guidance counselling would have been an asset to a number of students.

Several cases of over-zealous instructors who lacked the rudiments of good guidance procedure were counselling students in a manner detrimental to the future of the recipient were found. This lack of preparation of the teacher in vocational educational and guidance annually sends a number of persons into fields for which they have no qualifications. The finished survey will undoubtedly recommend

new methods and standards for teachers of courses in vocational education and guidance.

The survey also served to show the amount, condition, and type of machinery available for students in courses of vocational nature. Inspection for age and performance of equipment uncovered the use of type and model not currently used in industry. This lack of proper equipment has made the task of counselling students a difficult problem.

Housing facilities were in many instances inadequate for the type and amount of training to be offered. ~~Oftimes~~ Often more than one type of work was offered in the same building at the same time, and lack of concentration on the part of the student resulted from this congested state of affairs. In cases of this type, the student was allowed to shift for himself and consequently worked according to his initative or desire.

Administrative heads of several schools found with this condition realized the dis-advantages and had appealed to their superiors for funds with which to remedy the situation.

Perhaps an interesting sidelight to the survey was the discovery that the high "repeat load" of the academic department in one of the schools resulted in a program to enlarge the scope of pre-vocational and vocational training offered. This was evidenced by a building program with the aid of funds from the Public Works Administration.

To indicate the degree of interest manifested by educators brought in contact with the survey, the school above had designated the new building as one primarily to house pre-vocational and vocational training courses. Included in the new curricula of this annex will be courses never before offered the Negro student of Delaware. These will consist of barbering, shoe repairing, tailoring, and printing. Already, teachers have been selected to lay out intensive courses in each of the new vocations to be taught.

From the beginning it might be possible to construe hastily that Delaware is far behind other States in what it has offered vocationally for the Negro. This could not be a fair conclusion until the study has been published and the findings in the various States compared. And on the contrary much worth-while work has been done in Delaware with a modicum of facilities and a secondary interest in vocational education and guidance.

The personal follow-up of the census of high school graduates and "drop-outs" shows that in the State a large number of persons are earning their livelihood by means of the small amount of vocational training received in the schools of the State. Some are engaged in business ventures of their own that return them fair incomes; others are employed in the industries of the State. These persons are pointed to with pride by the instructors as examples of what could be done with adequate vocational training facilities.

Much good has been done for the adult who failed to secure an education during his earlier years. Especially

well have the females of the group been afforded the opportunity of earning their way by vocational training.

Citing specifically, the field of beauty culture has a number of well equipped shops that afford the owners incomes of no mean proportions. These resulted from vocational training, for many of the owners have less than secondary academic preparation.

Beauty Culture is now an accredited course in several schools. In these institutions the students are prepared according to the requirements of State Board of Beauticians Examiners.

The trend in the forthcoming years will be to place vocational education upon a plane of parity with academic preparation if the interest currently being manifested can be taken as a criterion. In conversing with educators of the State, this is found to be their opinion and some advocates of vocational training argue that this type of training properly taught is the solution to the Negro's economic problem in Delaware. The crux of their argument is that in times of normalcy industry offers employment to the properly prepared person.

In view of the handicaps encountered by vocational education and guidance in Delaware in past years the findings of the survey are expected to show encouraging results. The awakening to the possibilities of vocational education as a corrective for the economic ills of the Negro is expected to cause a decided swing to this type of education.

The findings of the survey will be published and are expected to be a compilation of facts for future use of persons interested in vocational education and guidance of Negroes.

The population figures of 1930 show the Negroes ~~xxxforming~~ standing at 32,602, or 13.7 per cent of the total of 238,380. In 1920, the percentage was 13.6, and in 1910, 15.4. 12,380 of these were in Wilmington; the total urban negro population was 15,037 as compared to 11,157 in 1910.

The Negro rural population was 17,565 as compared to 17,343 in 1920 and 20,024 in 1910. ~~8,755xofxthexfirstxnumberxwerexlivedxinxonxfarmsx withinxlimitsx~~ The first number is 15.2 per cent of the rural population as compared to 19 per cent in 1910. Negroes form 12.2 per cent of the ~~U~~ urban population as compared to 11.5 per cent in 1910.

Agriculture.

17565
2
25130

3.

while urban
123,146
White Rural - 97,651
whites for ~~87.4~~ 87.7%
urban pop
and 84.7% for farm pop.

Vocational High School Bulletin

Wilmington, Delaware

## GENERAL INFORMATION

The specific aim of all vocational courses is preparation for gainful employment. One half of the school day will be spent in the shops and laboratories and the other half day in Related Science, Mathematics, Drawing, English and Social Studies. Practical application will be made in these fields. There will be guidance and placement service in connection with the school. Opportunities will be given pupils to participate in extra curricular activities, such as, music, art, athletics, etc.

## ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS

The satisfactory completion of the ninth grade of the Delaware Public Schools or the equivalent education is required for admission, except in Beauty Culture and Distributive Trades where a pupil must have completed the tenth year or must be sixteen years of age.

The applicant must be physically qualified to do the work of the occupation selected.

The mental and physical qualifications of the applicant are determined by (1) his school record (2) the recommendations of the principal of the last school attended (3) the ratings of standard tests or examinations (4) personal interview.

## TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION

The primary purpose of the technical courses is to prepare for employment in the larger occupational fields of industry. In addition to shop and laboratory work a good basic training is included in English, Science, Mathematics and related technical subjects. By proper selection of subjects it will be possible for graduates to enter certain colleges and higher technical schools should they care to do so. The major occupational fields in which graduates will find employment are: manufacturing, building construction, transportation, communication, and merchandising. Within these fields are such technical jobs for employment as inspectors, designers, supervisors, assistant foreman, draftsmen, estimators, checkers, laboratory technicians, plant control operators, salesman and service work of a large variety. Those wishing to enter some of the newer services, such as, air-conditioning, refrigeration, oil burner or radio service, will find in these courses the technical information necessary to equip them for this work.

## TRADE INSTRUCTION

These courses will provide a fundamental training in the skilled trades. There is less "book work" and more specific skills required than in the technical courses. The foundation work is secured in school and the practical experience in employment. About one-half of the school time is devoted to shop work on a useful and productive basis, while the other half time is devoted to related trade instruction, English and social science.

In general the plan of instruction requires full time in school for two years followed by a third year which may be either full time in school, or part time in school and industry. Upon completion of this instruction, the pupil receives a high school diploma and enters employment as an advanced apprentice, the time required to complete the apprenticeship being from one to three years more, depending upon the occupation.

In addition to the diploma an apprenticeship certificate is awarded when the "trade experience" requirements have been met, showing one's standing as a journeyman in the craft.

Indicate your first and second choice by figure "1" and "2" before the Technical or Trade Courses you select among the following:

Trade Courses

___Auto Mechanics---3 years
___Machine Shop---3 years
___Carpentry---3 years
___Cabinet Making and Millwork---3 years
___Plumbing and Heating---3 years
___Printing---3 years
___Welding---2 years
___Tea Room and Cafeteria---2 years
___Needle Trades---2 or 3 years

Technical Courses

___Mechanical Maintenance---3 years
___Building Design and Construction---3 years
___Industrial Chemistry---3 years
___Electrical Maintenance---3 years
___Gas Engine Service (airplane, auto, marine, Diesel)---3 years
___Distributive Occupations (Selling, Advertising, Display, Business Methods 2 years
___Beauty Culture---2 years

R 391

LOCATION - - Wilmington

File W-657

Submitted by Ellen Samworth,

Date July 13,1936.

Wilmington's Gardens

Wilmington and its vicinities have some beautiful gardens and some famous garden clubs which hold their garden day with a paid admission that adds to the coffers of some well known charity. But not all the gardener's joy comes from my ladies' garden. Fifty feet square is a standard size for a child's garden and for fifty thousand children in Wilmington, a standard garden may be planned in almost any home here.

What do we know about the back yard gardens and their garden day? Have you been to a flower show? that comes from the back yard gardens? If not , mark the dates in September next, and see what Julia O'Grady as well as the colonel's lady brings to her flower show.

Gardens require work, much work and in many yards where a small garden might grow there is only ash heaps and garbage cans. To encourage the creation of beauty spots in hidden places is worth while aim; In a crowded section where no beauty was in sight in the yards around, the teacher rallied her pupil help, and removed the brick pavement from a three foot wide stretch the length of each yard on both sides of the high division fence. Sure of the children's interest in growing things the planting began. What a joy at the end of summer to see a riot of color on one side the fence, and a mass of cool green grass on the other side.

Seeds and slips were exchanged and the back yards that had

contained only ash heaps began to have flower beds. One school after another copied the limited school yard gardens, one home after another imitated the flower growers.

In one of the old time schools that served for fifty six years with its small yard the teachers and children dug up the unpromising looking soil that the feet of little children had packed in forty or more years of play and laid out the space in tiny plots where small hands planted and watered radishes and lettuce and blooming things, and had the joy of reaping where they had sowed. The bunches of red radishes were as much joy to the small farmers as wagon loads of grain were to the husbandman. They had learned the age old lesson that he who sows shall also reap, and they carried the love and knowledge of the garden plot into the neglected home yard. What was the outcome? A garden show of course!

One day the teacher said, We will have a flower show on Thursday, September - - You may bring any thing you have grown in your own garden at home, or school, or anything your own family folks have helped you to grow, or have grown in the home garden. Prizes will be given for flowers, plants, vegetables, or seeds gathered tied and properly labelled in five classes as follows:-

1. Specimen blooms, not more than three in container,
2. Flower arrangement.
3. Speciman plant for decorative use.
4. Vegetables,
5. Seeds properly packaged and labelled.

In one Wilmington School in 1926 a flower show was held from neighboring back and side yard gardens that rivalled professional shows.

A small boy from the kindergarten brought a berry basket of potatoes from a small potato he picked from the dump on his way home from school on a May day. A group of sixth grade boys and girls entered a flower arrangement contest choosing container from a loan collection brought from the community homes, and flowers from baskets of blossoms contributed from the gardens of the neighborhood. Prizes(ribbons only) were awarded for suitability of container, color harmony and general arrangement and fitness for purpose desired.

Time of arrangement 15 minutes. Work done in full view of auditorium filled with guests among whom were well known members of the Wilmington Garden Club.

In this school(one of the new ones) a group of children's gardens were laid out. There were forty 4 x 12 plots with a center garden containing a rockery with lily-pool in center. A surrounding border was maintained with adult care. The gardens were in such demand that the pupils drew lots for them, signed a formal contract, specifying definite terms of tenant as formal as if they were renting a hundred acre farm and paid a deposit for a set of garden tools which deposit was returned at the end of the season upon the return of the tools.

The group of school gardens was maintained as long as the building was an elementary school.

In twelve Wilmington schools in 1932 equally good flower

shows were held with ribbon awards for excellence.

In small premises all over the city in homes of black and white citizens small home yards full of garden beauty are to be found, but room, alas, for much addition of beautiful in other yards.

To encourage Out of school interest in gardening the Brandywine Garden Club have organized a movement among children for home gardening. They furnish seeds, small garden tools, and, under the supervision of the Nature Study Supervisor of the Wilmington Public Schools, this sytem of home gardening is carried on year after year. The gardens are visited regularly during the growing season, the care noted, and in the autumn rewards are given by the Club for the best gardening and the best results.

Many children participate in this garden project and through it one of the most important measures of conservation is carried on:

"A garden is a lovesome plot, God wot,
Rose plot
Fringed pool
Ferned grot,
The veriest school
of peace: and yet the fool
Contends that God is not-
Not God! in gardens; when the eve is cool?
Nay, but I have a sign;
'Tis very sure God walks in mine."

Titles of Educational Articles
Written by Miss Samworth.

## State

Folder: Inclusive Articles -

Early Education in Delaware - March 25, '36(Rev. from Dec. 16, '35

Education in Delaware - July 8, '36

Brief Review of Delaware Education - July 9, '36

Education - May 6, '36

Brief Chronology of Education Progress in Del. during Pre-Rev. Period. - May 11, '37

Private Schools in Delaware Hundreds.-June 3, '37

Beginning of Education in Del. (Extracts from Educ. authors)

Notable Schools of Pre-Revolutionary Days - Aug. 20, '36

Folder: Special Articles - Academy, College, Colored -

Delaware College - August 3, '36

Negro Education in Delaware - June 17, '36 (Dup. copy in Negro folder).

Folder: Negroes.

Negro Education in Delaware - June 17, '36

Howard High School

Extract from R. Herbst Letter re colored schools

## Wilmington

Folder: Parochial

Private Parochial Schools - March 26, '36

Folder: Private -

Friends' School - July 16, '36

Salesianum - July 16, '36

Ursuline Academy - July 16, '36

Folder: Public Schools -

Development of Education in the Twentieth Century - Oct.13,'36
Chronology of Wilmington Schools - June 1, '37
Pierre S. du Pont School - April 20, '36.

Abstract of

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN DELAWARE: A REPORT TO THE PUBLIC SCHOOL COMMISSION OF DELAWARE

This report was submitted to thegovernor in 1918 by a committee created he legislature to study educational conditions in the state and make mmendations to the Legislature of 1919. It is the work of Dr.Abraham Flexner Dr. Frank P.Bachman,prepared under the supervision of theGeneral Education rd of New York,which was selected by the Commission to make the survey.

The report is made under thefollowing headings:

Introduction

I DELAWARE:IT'S PEOPLE AND INDUSTRIES

II PRESENT SCHOOL SYSTEM

III STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION AND COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION

IV COUNTY SCHOOL COMMISSIONS AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

V DISTRICT SCHOOL COMMISSIONS AND BOARDS OF EDUCATION

VI THE TEACHERS

VII THE SCHOOLS AND THEIR WORK

VIII ENROLLMENT AND ATTENDANCE

IX FINANCING THE SCHOOLS

X CONCLUSIONS

XI APPENDIX

Delaware, according to thecensus of 1910 had apopulation of202,322.Except Wilmington ,where therehas been considerable growth since ,the population been static.It is largely rural;85% white,15% colored.Of the white ulation 75% are native born of native parentage;15% one or both parent eign born;10% foreign born. Outside Wilmington ,96% are native ;only 4% eign.----The negro population (31,181)increasing,though slowly, having gained s than 3000 since 1890"-p4-5. Wilmington is an industrial city producing a

f varied industrial avtivity; the rest of the state is engaged in diversi-
fied agriculture and allied industries.

This report is concerned with scools outside Wilmington only. They serve
homogeneous, stable, American population, distinctly rural in character. p.5

Control of the system is in three boards: the state Board of Education,
the county school commission, and the district school committee or board of
education.

The state board of seven members appointed by the governor, is supposed
to systematize the work of the various schools and raise the standards of
instruction. It has power to plan courses of study, select textbooks, and
prescribe rules for teacher certification, sanitary inspection, and school
equipment. It may require records of the districts, investigate school conditions
recommend legislation to the governor, and hire needed employes, Legally it
has blanket powers. Actually, its scope is very limited. The State Commissioner
of Education is its secretary and executive officer.

County school commission of 3 members appointed by
the Governor. Theoretically has jurisdiction over all schools in
county. It is supposed to supervise instruction, sanitation,
districting, mediation of complaints, etc. County supt., also
an appointive office, is its agent. He advises the commission
on improvements and appointments, the teachers on
organization, instruction and discipline. He examines
teachers, holds the county institute, and directs study for
renewal of certificates.

Separate local boards have supervision of white and
8 of colored schools. They are "so far as local support goes,
separately financed - the white schools enjoying all local

EDUCATION IN DELAWARE

I The Educational Tradition in Delaware

II- Schools of theEarly Colonization

III- Religious Influence on Education in the Middle and later colonial periods

IV- Outstanding Private Schools,Institutes,and Academies

V-Early School Funds and Legislative Enactments-1734-1796

VI- First School Law,1829,and Amendments

VII- Law of 1875, andits Operation until 1890

VIII-Negro Education in Post -Civil War Period,to 1890

IX- Educational Awakening-1890-1917

Reflected in legal changes; reflected in changes in curricula and practice; reflected in changes in school plant;reflected in public ppinion and participation of influential citizens;reflected in private and parochial school developement.

X-~~Modern Primary and Secondary Education~~
X-Summary of Conditions existing,1917-1921,in regard to curricula, methods, personnel,and plant in all schools,public and private

XI-Modern Primaryand Secondary Educational System-1921

A-Brief Chronology of Significant Changes in educational facilities and practice since 1921

B-State Public Schools,1930-1938

Plant: new building ,reno vation,changes in amount and qual ity of supplemental equipment

Program of Studies: Standard practices in curriculum and method; significant variation in the the direction of excep tionally good or poor practice

Peesonnel: faculty-supervisors,classroom teachers,special clerical and maintenance employes; students--assorted statistics on enrollment,age-grade placement,retardation health,nationality,

C-Wilmington Public Schools--General Setup

Plant-Personnel,as above; Old curriculum in elementary and secondary schools.

D-New Curriculum in Wilmington

History; Educational philosophy underlying the program; Summaries of revisions completed or in progress in 1938-39; Experience to date with new curriculum.

E-Private and Parochial Schools of the State andWilmington

Survey as detailed above for public institutions

F-Negro Schools: Notes on Differences between them and White

Scools of Corresponding Grade and Location

XII- Higher Education in Delaware

University of Delaware,Women's College,State Agricultural

College,Delaware State College for Colored Students: for

each listhistory, plant, program, personnel,rating,

recent or prospective changes,and influence upon

community

XIII- Special Education on All Levels for the Handicapped

Blind; deaf; crippled;tubercular;retarded and mentally

defective

XIV-Programs of Adult Education

Americanization;Evening schools of the Wilmington Board of Ed.

Adult education programs under school auspices throughout the

state;WPA Educational projects ;Community projects not under

government supervision;private educational institutions for

mature students

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