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ABSTRACT

The characteristics of one-room rural schools in Barbour County, West Virginia, are representative of one-room rural school characteristics in general. These include building design and problems; teacher' lives and duties, certification, salaries, and training; scheduling and curriculum; games; punishments; and hot lunch programs. Since one-room schools no longer operate in Barbour County, data included personal communications with people who had taught in or attended the schools. A historical background discusses state school laws from 1642 to 1936. A literature review details general characteristics of rural one-room schools: design, construction, and facilities; restrictions on teachers' private lives; teachers' instructional and extracurricular duties; use of the school as an agency for community change; teacher certification requirements and salaries; establishment of normal schools in West Virginia for teacher training; inservice education; daily scheduling and curriculum in the schoolhouse; games played; undesirable and appropriate punishments; early hot lunch programs; and facility lighting, heating, and ventilation problems. Drawing on personal anecdotes, characteristics of Barbour County's one-room schools are discussed in relation to prevailing characteristics nationwide. Identified benefits of small-scale schooling include: (1) feasibility of democratic practices; (2) accountability of faculty performance; (3) individualized attention to student needs; (4) safe and orderly learning environments; (5) parental access to school leadership, and (6) development of a high-quality curriculum. Contains 35 references. (SAS)

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ED 421 325

The Characteristics of Rural One-Room Schools in Barbour County, West Virginia, that Represent Characteristics of Rural One-Room Schools in General

A Thesis

Presented to

The Faculty of the Master of Arts Degree Program

Salem-Teikyo University

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts in Education

by

Linda Hepler

April, 1998

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This thesis submitted by Linda Hepler has been approved meeting the research requirements for the Master of Arts Degree.

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Contents

Abstract

Chapter I Introduction 1

Chapter 2 Literature Review 3

Chapter 3 Historical Background for Rural One-Room Schools 7

Chapter 4 General Characteristics of Rural One-Room Schools 15

Design of rural one-room school buildings 15

Teachers' lives and duties 16

Teacher certification and salaries 26

Teacher training 29

Scheduling and curriculum 31

Games played in rural one-room schools 34

Punishments used in rural one-room schools 35

Hot lunch programs in rural one-room schools 36

Problems relating to building design 37

Chapter 5 Characteristics of One-Room Schools in Barbour County, West Virginia 40

Historical backgroung 40

Building design 42

Building construction 44

Problems associated with building design 44

Teachers' lives and duties 47

Hot lunch programs in rural one-room schools in Barbour County, West Virginia 58

Scheduling and curriculum 60

Punishments 64

Traditions and holidays 66

Teacher certification and training 68

Chapter 6 Implications for the Future 70

Bibliography 75

ABSTRACT

Several characteristics of rural one-room schools in Barbour County, West Virginia, are representative of characteristics of rural one-room schools in general. These characteristics grew out of a common historical background and developed along similar lines. The historical background information and general information was obtained through previously published accounts. Information regarding rural one-room schools in Barbour County, West Virginia is based largely on personal communications from those persons who participated in these schools. These small rural schools may provide a pattern for schools of the future.

Assistant Professor, Salem-Teikyo University

Chapter 1 Introduction

The development of the characteristics of one-room rural schools in Barbour County, West Virginia, represents the development of one-room rural school characteristics in general. The development of these characteristics is based on a broad historical background. The characteristics discussed in this paper are (a) similarities in building design that resulted in similar problems relating to that structure, (b) generally accepted social mores that dictated the behavior of female teachers, (c) rules that governed teachers' duties in school and in the community, (d) curriculum and daily scheduling, (e) certification and salaries, and (f) teacher training.

One-room rural schools are no longer in operation in Barbour County. As a result, information regarding the characteristics of these schools is based largely on personal communications of people who taught in and/or attended the schools. References to personal communications from persons attending one-room rural schools in other areas illustrate the developmental pattern of these schools.

Prior to 1950, the United States Census Bureau defined the term rural to include people who lived in open country or in villages and towns of less than 2,500 population. In 1950 the definition was changed to exclude suburban communities where the population was less than 2,500. All towns of 2,500 or more were considered urban. Some towns of 10,000 or

more were basically rural. A school in a town where children from the town attend school with children from the farms was considered a rural school (Archer, 1958).

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Historically, the country one-room school was a result of a broad educational development (Carlton, 1965; Fisk, 1897; Hinsdale, 1898; Martin, 1893; Perrin, 1896; Report of Commissioner of Education, 1892-1893; State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904). This educational structure resulted in rural one-room schools sharing similar patterns in the following areas: (a) building structure and problems relating to the building structure, (b) teachers' lives, (c) teachers' duties, (d) certification and salaries, (e) training, (f) scheduling and curriculum (Gulliford, 1984).

Specific problems emerged regarding the physical structure of the buildings. These problems were (a) lighting, (b) heating and ventilation, (c) drinking water, and (d) building maintence (Carney, 1912). These problems were common in rural one-room schools in general and rural one-room schools in Barbour County (personal communications). The training and supervision of teachers became standardized.

Teachers, both male and female, often had to board in the community where they taught (Gulliford, 1984; Slacks, 1938; Trent, 1960). They were expected to be upstanding members of the community (Gulliford, 1984). Social standards dictated behavior, apparel and marital status of female teachers (Gulliford, 1984; Meadows, 1990; Slacks, 1938).

The teacher's non-teaching duties at school included the following: (a) doing janitorial work (Hilton, 1949; Slacks, 1938), (b) maintaining playground equipment (Hilton, 1949), (c) personal communications (C. C. Evans and C. L. Wilson), (d) estimating cost of repairs to the building (Slacks, 1938), (e) instituting health practices (Carney, 1919; Gulliford, 1984; Hilton, 1949; W. K. Kellogg Foundation, 1942), (f) providing a safe school environment (National Safety Council, Inc., 1939), (g) supervising playground activities (Slacks, 1938), (h) raising money for books and supplies (Gulliford, 1984; Slacks, 1938), supervising any library that might exist in the school (Slacks, 1938), and making reports to the superintendent (Slacks, 1938). The teacher's non-teaching duties included expanding the role of the school in the community (Carney, 1912 and Hilton, 1949).

By the 1880s, state laws required that teachers be certified (Gulliford, 1984). Salaries were based on certification (West Virginia School Law, 1931). Normal schools and county institutes were establised for teacher training (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904 and Trent, 1960). Uniform schools terms were established (Trent, 1960).

Opening exercises and daily schedules were standard in rural one-room schools (Lutz, Fall 1996; Slacks, 1939; Tennessee State Department of Education, 1943). Basic

courses of study were common to the schools (Lutz, Fall 1996; Slacks, 1939; Tennessee State Department of Education, 1943; Trent, 1960). Textbooks were standard (Trent, 1960). Teacher certification, salaries, training, scheduling and curriculum, responsibilities in the classroom, and responsibilities in the community were outlined (Gulliford, 1984; Slacks, 1938; Trent, 1960).

A suggested schedule for informal one-room teacher schools was outlined (E. Hilton, 1949). Instructional materials, health and safety concerns, and school housekeeping were discussed. Johnny Appleseed's Quill Penn (Aug.6, 1986) One-Room School home page refers to the importance of the study of mathematics in one-room schools. B. Kreitlow (1954) discusses the socio-economic, historical backgrounds, and educational backgrounds of the rural community and the rural school. Eventually, the responsibilities and goals of rural education were expanded to further involvement in the community (C. P. Archer, 1958).

In West Virginia counties, the unit system was adopted and a school lunch program instituted (W. W. Trent, 1960). Development of a school lunch program was reflected in a rural one-room school in Wayne County, West Virginia (P. F. Lutz, Fall 1996).

G. Shingleton (1980) gives a background of early

education in Barbour County, West Virginia. Personal communications of persons who have attended and/or taught in Barbour County rural one-room schools provide information regarding the characterstics of these schools (Personal communications, 1990-1991). The Outline Map of Barbour County, West Virginia (1923) lists the one-room schools in Barker District. The Barbour County Calendar and Directory, January 1 to December 31, 1929, lists the one-room schools in Cove, Elk, Glade, Philippi, Pleasant, Union, and Valley Districts.

Characteristics of rural one-room schools can be the pattern for schools of the future. (K. Cotton, 1996; W. J. Fowler & H. J. Walberg, 1991; W. E. Fuller, 1994; D. C. Gottfredson, 1985; T. Gregory, 1992; C. B. Howley, 1994; C. B. Howley & J. Eckman, 1996); C. Roellke, 1996; R. A. Rutter, 1988; J. Stockard & M. Mayberry, 1992; D. T. Williams, 1990.

Chapter 3 Historical Background for Rural One-Room Schools

The first law regarding education was passed in Massachusetts in 1642 (Carlton, 1965). This law declared that the state had the right and the duty to see that each child was educated. The Act granted to select men the power to investigate the training of all children under their jurisdiction. This law made education compulsory but did not provide for the schools or teachers. The teachers were the parents or private tutors. The primary purpose of education was to provide religious and moral training. During this period, elementary education was in the handicraft or household stage of development (Carlton, 1965).

With the passage of the second Massachusetts law in 1647, an outline of a system for public education was enacted. Three items of this law were: (a) The school system was to be organized around religious interests, (b) public taxation for school support was optional with the local administrative units, and (c) the town rather than the parents was responsible for executing the provisions of the act (Report of Commissioner of Education, 1892-93).

In Rhode Island the development of the public schools was delayed because of opposition to the influence of the clergy in the public school system (Perrin, 1896). In the

South, a system of tax-supported schools was not anticipated because of the distance between plantations and the lack of community feeling between people on the plantations (Fiske, 1897). A class of indentured servants and slaves precluded the development of a free tax-supported education and the free school system (Carlton, 1965).

In the early Colonial period, schools were town schools, but as the population increased and was no longer centered around the church and one school building, a change took place in the management of educational affairs (Carlton, 1965). As a result, a school would be conducted first in one part of the town and then in another part with the time spent in each location varying as circumstances dictated (Hinsdale, 1898).

This "traveling school" arrangement eventually led to the establishment of several school districts within a town. The "traveling school" arrengement also led to the organization of a district system of school management. By 1827 the district system was strong and had only two limitations placed upon the administrators - the raising and apportionment of taxes and the qualification of teachers (Martin, 1893).

> "The first frontiersmen established schools for their children. This was especially true in 1750 when, under Presbyterian influence, they experienced a spiritual revival, which made for improvement in intellectual

standards. This was followed by a long period during which fighting and politics occupied chief attention and resulted in neglect of formal education. The complete absence regarding schools in such writings as Notes on the Settlement and Indian Wars by Doddridge and Chronicles of Border Warfare by Withers is significant" (Shingleton, 1976).

An early reference to a schoolhouse in West Virginia was noted by George Washington in a journal on August 18, 1747, when he was surveying lands on the Upper Potomac and the South Branch, Cacapon and Patterson Creek Valleys. He noted the tract as beginning at a station in `the School House Old Field.' This precise location cannot be determined, but it is generally believed to be far up the South Branch Valley in Hardy County at what is known as the Indian Old Fields. The first documented reference to a school in the South Branch Valley in Hampshire County is to a school held in a cabin in Romney in 1753 (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

Virginia's constitution, adopted in June, 1776, did not refer to education. Parish Schools were common in Virginia east of the Blue Ridge and in the Upper Shenandoah Valley, but were almost non-existent in what is now West Virginia. The old Frederick Parish included early settlements in what became Hampshire, Hardy, Berkeley, Morgan and Jefferson

Counties, but little evidence of parish schools in this area can be found (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

Charity Schools had little existence west of the Blue Ridge although a few were opened in Berkeley and Hampshire Counties and the more western counties that existed at the time. Charity Schools were supported by individuals for the education of the very poor. In 1817, the General Assembly provided that all money acquired by any county or corporation from the sale of donated lands should be used for the education of poor children. This act was operative for the most part in the eastern section of Virginia (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

Subscription schools were based on an agreement between an individual teacher (master) and the supporters of the school. An agreement made in 1845 for a subscription school of a sixty-five day term with four patrons and fourteen students included the following details: The teacher agreed to keep regular hours and show no partiality. The patrons agreed to pay the teacher one dollar and seventy-five cents per student and to board the teacher for the subscribed number of weeks. "Any kind of trade would be taken - corn at 37 and 1/2 cents per bushel, flaxseed janes at 75 cents per yard, linsey 37 and 1/2 cents, linen according to quality." (G. Shingleton, 1976).

On December 26, 1796, The General Assembly enacted the first Virginia School Law which was called the Aldermanic

School Law. At that time, ten of the present West Virginia counties were in existence: Hampshire, Berkeley, Monongalia, Ohio, Greenbrier, Harrison, Hardy, Randolph, Pendleton, and Kanawha. These counties covered the entire area of what is now West Virginia (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

This act provided that each county should elect annually three men to serve as aldermen. They were to meet annually on the second Monday in May at their respective courthouse. They had the power to divide the county into sections and to determine the size of these sections. The size of a section was based on the number of children in the area needed to constitute a school. Each district was to be given a name which would be filed with the clerk of the county court (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

It then became the duty of the householders in the districts to meet on the first Monday in September and select a site for erecting a building. If a tie resulted, then aldermen living outside the district cast the deciding votes regarding location (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

After a site was chosen, the aldermen had to have a building erected and maintained. The next duty of the aldermen was to select a teacher. One of the aldermen had to visit the school(s) at least twice a year to give examinations to the pupils and to supervise the conduct of

the teacher in everything relative to the school (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904). This Public School Law of 1796 stated:

> "There shall be taught reading, writing, and common arithmetic and all free children, male and female, resident within the respective sections, shall be entitled to receive tuition gratis for the term of three years, and as much longer at private expense of parents, guardians, or friends shall think proper" (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

Teachers' salaries and building costs were paid by the county citizens through county levies. These monies were collected by the sheriff who gave them to the aldermen. (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

Joseph Martin's Gazeteer of Virginia published in 1833, shows that common schools and academies existed generally throughout the state. Revenues of the Literary Fund, created for the education of poor children and amounting to more than a million and one-half dollars in 1833, were being used for the education of poor children. Common Primary Schools were also referred to as Old Field Schools, a term designating location (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

Compulsory attendance legislation, enacted in all states between 1852 and 1918, marked a change in attitude. Prior to this time, education had been viewed as a solely

parental concern. In 1936 when Newton Edwards book, Equal Education Opportunity for Youth was published, statistics showed that approximately two-thirds of the states required attendance until sixteen years of age, six states required attendance until seventeen years of age, and five states required attendance until eighteen years of age. During 1936, thirty-four states required nine or more years of education (Edwards, 1936).

On March 5, 1846, the General Assembly passed `An Act Amending the Present Primary School System.' This Act made the county courts responsible for determining the districts within a county. Once appointed, these persons constituted the Board of School Commissioners for the county. They would elect a superintendent who would execute a bond payable to the directors of the Literary Fund. This Board of Commissioners conducted the business of the schools. This system was in effect until the Civil War (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

In 1846, the State of Virginia offered the Free School System to the western counties. Each county voted on the adoption of this system in 1847. By 1860, three counties west of the mountains had Free Schools (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

West Virginia became a state on June 20, 1863, and by June 1, 1864, the first school law of the state known as Chapter CXXVII of the Acts of 1863 was entitled An Act

Providing for the Establishment of a System of Free Schools. This act was passed by the joint vote of both branches of the legislature. This law provided for the election of a State Superintendent of Free Schools (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

In rural communities, teachers were employed by three trustees from each district. These trustees were appointed by magisterial board members elected by district voters (Trent, 1960).

Chapter 4 General Characteristics of Rural One-Room Schools

Design of rural one-room school buildings

A building typical of an early construction is described as being approximately 16x18 feet in size. The walls were built of hewn or round logs measuring eight to twelve inches in diameter. The interstices were chinked with sticks and stones and daubed with clay. The clapboard roof was held in place by weight poles. Slab doors were hung on wooden hinges. The floor was either dirt or made of hewn puncheons split from large trees. A fireplace and chimney covered over half of one end of the structure. Seats were made of split logs that had legs inserted on the rounded side. Pins with a broad, sloping slab were inserted along the wall and used as writing desks. Above the desk, a section of log was chopped out and a long frame inserted for holding a single row of panes of glass. If glass were not available, greased paper was used for admitting light (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904).

In Wayne County, West Virginia, one-room schools were generally constructed with rough cut frames covered with lap-siding made of poplar. These schools might have three large windows on each side or possibly four to six windows on a single side. Prior to World War II, most schools had a

wood or coal burning stove in the center of the room. The front of the room had sections of slate blackboard. The one-seat or two-seat desks had fold-up seats and an inkwell in the upper right hand corners (Lutz, Fall 1996).

The school that W. W. Trent attended as a student was a log house constructed with only four small windows and no weatherboarding or ceiling. The furnishings consisted of a teacher's desk, home-made benches, a painted blackboard and an elongated wood-burning stove. There were no supplementary books, teacher's supplies, or library. This school was typical of other rural schools of that time period (Trent, 1960).

Some school sites had hand-pump wells. If no well existed on the school grounds, students carried water in buckets from the nearest residence. A bucket or a crock held the drinking water, and another pan or bucket held water for hand washing. In some schools children may have drunk from a common dipper. In other situations, children either had their own tin cup or made a cup out of paper (P. Lutz, Fall 1996).

Each school had two outside toilets, one in an area for the girls and one in a separate area for the boys. These toilets were located a distance from the school building and were initially supplied with Sears-Roebuck catalogs (P. Lutz, Fall 1996).

Teachers' Lives and Duties

One-room schools and the communities they served were often in remote areas, accessible by foot or horseback. The community where W. W. Trent taught for the first time was reached via a horse path from Grassy Creek, a community three miles away. The nearest post office and store were five miles away (W. W. Trent, 1960). A teacher's pay often included room and board. The teacher would live with families in the community, sometimes sharing a room with some of the children (A. Gulliford, 1984).

J. R. Slacks in his book, The Rural Teacher's Work, suggested that it would be advantage us to the teacher to board in a place where there were no children who attended the school, thus avoiding problems of jealousy and competition among community families. He also advised that the teacher not isolate herself from the family, but occasionally help with household chores (J. R. Slacks, 1938).

Often times the room had inadequate heating or sanitation (A. Gulliford, 1991). A Nebraska teacher, Phoebe Nater, recorded that the door to her room lacked four inches closing at the top which resulted in the door being hung with heavy frost and icicles during the winter. She slept in a flannel robe, pajamas, coat and socks. Her breath created a thin layer of ice on the pillow and covers that she had pulled over her head (P. Nater, personal communication,

1972).

Julia Hall, a retired teacher in South Dakota, recalled that her bedroom was an unfinished attic room whose outside stairway was sometimes slick with ice and snow. Her bed was sometimes covered with snow. The room was heated by a small wood and coal stove and lighted with a kerosene lamp (R. Morgan, personal communication, 1976).

In 1896, W. W. Trent, State Superintendent of Free Schools from December, 1932 until January, 1957, began his first teaching assignment on a second grade certificate in a one-room school on Big Laurel near Saxman, West Virginia. His salary for the five month school year was twenty-two dollars a month. The cost of room and board was five dollars and twenty-five cents, the twenty-five cents being for laundry (W. W. Trent, 1960). Moore School near Canvass, West Virginia, where Mr. Trent taught for two years on a First Grade Certificate, had forty-five students in attendance, five or six of whom were older than he (W. W. Trent, 1960).

The teacher had no private life (A. Gulliford, 1984). The teacher could not entertain friends or engage in any activities that might annoy the family. She could not board with any one family for more than one term. She was watched closely for any infraction of social standards and was subject to dismissal if these mores were violated (A. Gulliford, 1984).

Eulala Bourne, a teacher in a one-room school in

Flagstaff, Arizona, was fired from her her position when a member of the school board observed her dancing to the ragtime hit "Too Much Mustard." Within the year, Miss Bourne was asked to teach the dance steps to the children of the same board member. She was not rehired (Bourne, personal communication, 1974).

A recommendation for a teaching position could address the female teacher's character and not address her teaching ability. One such reference letter written in 1923, refers to a teacher as being a Christian knowledgeable in the scriptures, a community leader, a sociable person, and a person of high moral conduct (Sikkink, clerk of Dempster School, District No.1 in Hamlin County, South Dakota).

In 1915 a teacher's magazine listed rules for conduct of teachers. This list was presented on November 7, 1990, to the West Virginia State Board of Education by WVEA President Kayetta Meadows and was later printed in the Charleston Gazette. The rules were: (a)) You will not marry during the term of your contract. (b) You are not to keep company with men. (c) You may not loiter downtown in any of the ice cream stores. (d) You may not travel beyond the city limits unless you have permission of the chairman of the board. (e) You may not smoke. (f) You may not dress in bright colors. (g) You may under no circumstances dye your hair. (h) Your dresses must not be any shorter than two inches above your ankle.

Teachers had to be upstanding members of the community who could set an example for their students. The moral training of students was the teacher's duty. Among the traits of character to be developed were obedience, loyalty and patriotism, helpfulness and service, and courtesy (Slacks, 1938). Teachers were considered the intellectual and social leaders of the communities (West Texas Historical Association Yearbook, 1981).

Some school boards included clauses in the contract that governed the female teacher's behavior. In one case, the prospective teacher had to promise to donate her time, money and service to Sunday School work, to abstain from dancing, immodest dressing, and any other behavior unbecoming a teacher and a lady, not to go out with young men unless done so in the fulfilling of her Sunday School work, not to fall in love, become engaged, or get married, and not to encourage or tolerate familiarity with male students (Slacks, 1938).

She promised to eat properly, sleep at least eight hours each night, and keep in good spirits. Also, she promised to remember the duty and respect owed the townspeople, the school board and the superintendent, and to cooperate with them in any movement directed at the town, the pupils or the schools (Slacks, 1938).

In 1938, according to J. R. Slacks, proper dress for the female teacher was a neat, well-fitting dress in good

repair. Calico was appropriate but silk and satin were not. Extremes in dress were considered a disturbing influence on the students (Gulliford, 1984; Slacks, 1938).

Female teachers could not be married and hold a teaching position. Marriage resulted in immediate forfeiture of her job. Only one family member was expected to earn a living. A lack of male teachers in rural areas during World War II created a crisis. In order to fill these vacancies, married women who had not taught for years were issued emergency certificates (A. Gulliford, 1984).

The duties of the teacher in a one-room school included janitorial work. On winter mornings, the teacher arrived early to get the fire started. This work was sometimes delegated to students. The teacher often had to clean the school building, make notes of any repairs, and inform the director of needed supplies and the cost associated with the repairs and supplies. Many times the teacher had to assume the cost of supplies and materials herself (Slacks, 1938).

Housekeeping duties varied with schools, but might include sweeping, dusting, inspecting the desks, caring for the stove, caring for the plants, emptying wastebaskets, cleaning blackboards and erasers, raising and lower windows and blinds, keeping the playground neat, raising and lowering the flag, checking and cleaning the toilets, and caring for the play equipment and materials (Gulliford, 1984; Hilton, 1949). Marie Asbury taught at Locust Knob in

Wayne County, West Virginia.

> "We had to be the proverbial jack-of-all-trades. We were the teacher, principal, guidance counselor, janitor, nurse, and more all rolled into one."(M. Asbury, personal communication, Fall 1996).

Health problems were the responsibility of the teacher. At school the teacher had to practice rudimentary medicine. This practice included sewing up cuts and tending to snake bites (A. Gulliford, 1984). Teachers had to institute health practices to combat head lice, impetago, pink eye and scabies. Every teacher was expected to have an eye chart which could be obtained free from physicians or oculists, and to test the children for nearsightedness or farsightedness. The teacher then had to inform the parents of the results (Carney, 1919).

The control of communicable and infectious disease was a school health problem that the teacher had to address by promoting immunization programs. The public health officer was in charge of the immunization programs. Notifying the parents, securing permission slips, and preparing the children psychologically was the teacher's responsibility (Hilton, 1949). No organized health program existed. (S. Leftwich, former state supervisor of rural schools in Colorado, personal communication, 1984).

A suggested method of hand washing required a pail of

water, an empty pail, an empty pail for waste paper, liquid soap, soap container, and paper towels. Each child would hold his hands over the empty pail while a cup of water was poured over his hands. Then a squirt of liquid soap was put in his hands followed by another cup of water for rinsing (C. L. Wilson and C. C. Evans, 1945). Outdoor toilets presented a health hazard, and even if built according to Federal public health specifications, they were sanitary only when they were new (W. K. Kellogg Foundation, 1942).

It was the teacher's responsibility to make the school a safe place for the students. Some of the safety issues that she was concerned with were repair of playground equipment, protection against fire, testing of the water supply, creating a healthy school environment through good housekeeping habits, monitoring ventilation, and providing instruction regarding safety in the neighborhood or community (National Safety Council, Inc., Educational Division, 1939). Teachers were expected to be on the playground with the children, either participating in the games or acting as judge or umpire. The teacher's presence on the playground was considered important in studying the children's personalities, forestalling trouble, and maintaining the children's safety (Slacks, 1938).

Teachers had little if any money to spend on books and supplies, and they were expected to hold socials to raise money. A single box social might raise enough money to buy a

globe, books, extra desks or an encyclopedia. Organizing these socials was the responsibility of the teacher (Gulliford, 1984). Money raised through socials and school entertainment was not considered part of the school fund, but the teacher was expected to tell the school board the amount raised and the items to be purchased (Slacks, 1938).

Libraries were supposed to include books of two kinds. One kind was for reading pleasure and the other for information. During the time when school was in session, the library was to be placed in the schoolhouse under the supervision of the teacher (Slacks, 1938). Most states had laws providing for raising money to purchase library books. The money could be expended by the school board, the county superintendent, or a county board of education. This practice varied from state to state (J. R. Slacks, 1938).

In Wayne County, West Virginia, teachers received from the school board each fall five boxes of chalk and two buckets, one bucket for coal and one for water. Because of such meager supplies, teachers often spent their own money to buy books and supplies for students whose families could not provide these items. (E. Adkins, personal communication, Fall 1996). Salaries were not always paid on schedule. During the Depression, teachers often went two or three months without receiving a pay check due to slow tax collection (P. Lutz, Fall 1996).

In Wayne County, West Virginia, politics played a part

in the teacher's life. "Before you could even be considered for a job," said Mr. Ed Viers, "you had to contribute fifty dollars annually to the Wayne County Democratic Party campaign fund." Mr. Ed Viers contributed to this fund for several years, but in 1941 he refused. As a result, the following year he was assigned to a school at Horse Creek where he had to pay room and board. This practice of forced political contributions was eventually discontinued. The remote locations of one-room schools often required the teacher to ride horseback or board in the community. (P. Lutz, Fall 1996).

It was the teacher's duty to report violations of the compulsory attendance laws of the state (Slacks, 1938). The teacher had to report any emergencies to the director and familiarize herself with the rules governing early dismissal as these laws varied from district to district (Slacks, 1938). Keeping an attendance register and an up-to-date course of study were part of the teacher's responsibility. These records would be reviewed by the county superintendent when he visited the school (Slacks, 1938).

Mabel Carney, in her book, Country Life and the Country School, published in 1912, expanded the role of the school in the community. It was the teacher's responsibility to make the school a center for redirected education and community building by (1) spiritualizing and improving the school's physical environment, (2) socializing the school

and making it a center for community service, (3) vitalizing and enriching the curriculum, and (4) improving the school's administration and advocating consolidation. (Carney, 1912).

Systematic study of the community was considered essential if the teacher was to be an effective citizen within that community. Six general procedures were suggested for making the school an effective agency of community improvement and for strengthening school and community relationships. These procedures were: (a) The teacher should establish herself as an influential person in the community. (b) School routine should include possibilities for strengthening home and school relationships. (c) Community resources should be used in the classroom. (d) Opportunities should be provided for excursions into the community. (e) The school should share in and cooperate with community activities. (f) Community projects should be stimulated in the classroom (Hilton, 1949).

Teacher Certification and Salaries

Prior to state certification requirements which were established by the 1880s, a person applying for a teaching position had only to pass the eighth-grade comprehensive examination (Slacks, 1938). Almost anyone who could read and write could be considered as a teacher. Propective teachers

were expected to take an oral examination as a prerequisite to teaching. Initially, this examination was conducted by a local school committee composed of a minister and one or two other men of the community (Slacks, 1938).

Eventually this method of establishing certification was considered unreliable. When state laws required certification, candidates had to take an all-day test at their county courthouse on a date and time set by the county superintendent. The examinations were conducted by a county school commissioner or county superintendent of schools. A passing score qualified a person to teach (Gulliford, 1984; Slacks, 1938; Trent, 1960). Supervised practice teaching was not part of teacher training (Gulliford, 1984). There was no uniform grading system from county to county for obtaining certificates (Slacks, 1938).

By 1938, many states rather than counties directed the examinations and issued the certificates. In some cases individual states issued certificates on the basis of training in approved teacher-training institutions rather than on examinations (Slacks, 1938). State requirements varied for the renewal of certificates.

Typically, seventy-five credits were required. These credits were earned through attendance at county institutes, summer school, at city, county, or state teachers' meetings, and reading circles. Credits could be earned by reading educational magazines, working in the county, and

demonstrating outstanding work in the schoolroom (Slacks, 1938). In most states, five levels of certification were open to persons sixteen years of age or older and of "good moral character." (Gulliford, 1984).

Persons who had been graduated from the eighth grade and had passed the third-grade teaching examination were awarded a third-grade certificate. This certificate allowed them to teach between six months and a year without re-examination (Guillford, 1984). Those who held a third-grade certificate, had one year of teaching experience, and had passed the second-grade examination, received a second-grade certificate. This certificate was valid for one year and could be renewed for up to one year (Guillford, 1984).

A first-grade certificate was awarded to persons who had three to four years teaching experience, had attended summer teachers' training institutes, and had passed the first-grade examination. This certificate was valid for two years and could be renewed two or more times with special permission from the county superintendent (A. Gulliford, 1984). Teachers with three years teaching experience were eligible for a five year certificate. Graduates of state normal schools or other post-eighth-grade two year programs, could receive a five-year certificate without taking an examination. Persons completing a four-year college program earned a lifetime diploma (Gulliford, 1984).

In 1896, the salary for a First Grade Certificate was

twenty-five dollars a month, and the salary for a Second Grade Certificate was twenty-two dollars a month (West Virginia Code, 1899). By 1932, the legal minimum salaries were: Third Grade Certificate, fifty dollars a month; Second Grade Certificate, sixty-five dollars per month; First Grade Certificate, eighty-five dollars per month; Short Normal, ninety dollars per month; First Class Certificate based on graduation from an approved institution, one-hundred-and-ten dollars per month. Monthly increments for experience were: second term, three dollars; third term, five dollars; fourth term, seven dollars; fifth term, ten dollars; sixth term, fifteen dollars; eleven or more terms, twenty dollars (West Virginia School Law, 1931, Chapter 18, Article 7).

Teacher Training

The teachers in rural schools were not as well trained as teachers in urban areas. In-service education addressed this problem. Rural educators faced distinctive problems in the areas of school finance, school organization, educational facilities and curriculum, and teacher training (Archer, 1958).

Normal schools were established for the training of teachers. The first three of these schools in West Virginia were established in 1867. One was at West Liberty, a second at Fairmont and a third in Guyandotte (Huntington). Three more were established in 1872 - one at Shepherdstown, one at

Glenville and another at Concord (Athens) (State Superintendent of Free Schools, 1904). p.52.

The first county institute was held in Pocahontas County in 1912. These institutes addressed teaching methods and fundamentals of teaching. The institutes served social, spiritual and patriotic values. Each session opened with prayer and Bible readings. A song leader used books donated by the State Department of Education. In 1919, the motto on the front page of book used was "All of West Virginia 100% American" and included such songs as "The Star Spangled Banner," "Blue Bells of Scotland," and "Nearer My God to Thee" (Trent, 1960).

The county unit system was adopted in 1934. (W. W. Trent, 1960). At the end of the first year of the county system, all schools in the state had a term of nine months, and salaries and taxes for current expenses were uniform within each county (W. W. Trent, 1960). County boards of education were elected for the first time at the general election in November, 1934 (Trent, 1960). The county system had been considered by a code commission of the legislature as early as 1918.

The school terms were not uniform within the counties when W. W. Trent started school in 1885 in a one-room school one mile from his home. In that community, the school term was three months. He would later walk four miles to a

neighboring community where the school term began earlier (W. W. Trent, 1960).

Scheduling and curriculum

A daily program for more formal one-room teacher schools suggested by the Tennessee State Department of Education in 1943 is as follows:

8:30 to 8:45 - Opening period: Flag salute, Bible reading, singing, health inspection, recognition of special days, attendance check, and plans for the day.

8:45 to 10:00 - Language Arts: reading practice, practice in written and oral expression.

10:00 to 10:30 - Physical Education: directed games and free play.

10:30 to 12:00 - Social Science: geography, history, health, conservation, and science.

12:00 to 1:00 - Lunch and rest

1:00 to 2:00 - Arithmetic

2:00 to 2:15 - Supervised play: games, excursions to nature or bird sanctuary.

2:15 to 3:15 - Co-operative Activities: This period could be used in a variety of ways with a focus on democratic group living.

Instruction and practice in saluting the flag were a weekly if not daily event. Reading the Bible was in some

states a cause for discussion. Generally, the teacher could read the Bible but without comment, and a student could not be compelled to read the Bible if the parents objected (Slacks, 1938).

In one-room schools in Wayne County, West Virginia, opening exercises consisted of roll call, the Lord's Prayer, Pledge of Allegiance, and one or two patriotic songs. Reading and arithmetic were taught in the morning, followed by a period of individual recitation. Other subjects such as spelling, music, and geography were taught in the afternoon. The more advanced students acted as teacher aides by tutoring other students. A twenty minute recess in the morning, a one hour lunch, and a twenty minute recess in the afternoon were times for playing games (P. Lutz, Fall 1996).

The most important components of the rural school curriculum were reading, grammar, and spelling (Gulliford, 1984). The primer combined all three subjects in one volume. Students advanced from primers to readers. Before the 1870s, students could advance to the reading level of McGuffey's Third Eclectic Reader. After the 1870s the education standards in the United States were raised to eight grade levels. Students completing the eighth grade were expected to finish McGuffey's fourth or fifth reader or a book of comparable difficulty. During the 1890s and early 1900s, literature collections were used in conjunction with the

readers (Gulliford, 1984).

Grammar was taught through parsing or diagramming. Spelling lessons were based on Noah Webster's The Elementary Spelling Book (1855) commonly known as the Blue-Black Speller (Gulliford, 1984). Daily spelling recitations in the classroom and monthly spelldowns with rival districts were part of the schedule. Penmanship was required. By the end of the 19th century the Palmer Method of penmanship had replaced the Spencer handwriting style. Arithmetic had the most practical application of all the subjects taught in the county school. Students had to calculate percentages, interest rates, square roots, cube roots and times tables.

The study of state histories was popular, although broader history was seldom taught in country schools until after the 1870s. By the late 1880s, most counties had study courses for physiology and hygiene which stressed the dangers of alcohol consumption (Gulliford, 1984). Recitation and elocution were important parts of the curriculum because of the lack of textbooks and because of the 19th century educational philosoply that the mind was exercised through memorization (Gulliford, 1984).

The major subjects in these schools were reading, writing, English grammar, and arithmetic. Other subjects were legally approved for students who attended the schools for nine or ten years. Some of the subjects were physiology, United States history, West Virginia State history, general

and state geography, single entry bookkeeping, civil government, theory and art of teaching, and in conjunction with other subjects, instruction on the effects of alcohol on the human body (W. W. Trent, 1960). Textbooks used with the major subjects were Ray's Practical Arithmetic, Harvey's Grammar, Montgomery's United States History, Mitchell's Geography, and McGuffey's Readers McGuffey's Spellers (W. W. Trent, 1960).

A student's advancement was indicated by the grade of the reader he/she had completed. Students worked in each subject at their own pace and with very little instruction or attention from the teacher (Trent, 1960). Students memorized long passages and answers. Spelling bees were held on Friday afternoons.

Games played in rural one-room schools

Games were played at recess and at the noon hour. General games were: leapfrog, racing, jumping, wrestling, skating, baseball, stilt walking, acrobatic stunts, volley-ball, croquet and marbles. Outdoor games considered suitable for the rural school were: one old cat, long ball, playground ball, volley ball, duck on the rock, all-up relay, pass the hoop, black and white, corner ball, overhead relay, huckle-buckle-beanstalk (hide-and-seek), dare-base, snap-the-whip, steal-the-bacon, kick-the-can, and andy-over (Gulliford, 1984; Slacks, 1938).

Indoor games considered suitable were: automobile race, partner tag, blackboard tag, relay tag, buzz, ducks fly, do-this-do-that, passing-object relay, and prince of Paris (Slacks, 1938). A list of games that were played in Wetzel County, West Virginia include Andy Over (or Ante Over) and Base (Scarbro, 1992).

Losers of the above games were sometimes required to perform some feat as a penalty. Some of the stunts were: Chinese getup, pull up, pick me up, pick up and push up, pray do, tantalus, sitting on a jug, the affirmative, a cordial greeting, airplane ride, haystack, hottentot tackle, lunch counter, and the zoo (Slacks, 1938).

Punishments

Undesirable punishments often used by a teacher included threatening and nagging, sarcasm and ridicule, name calling, personal indignities such as hair pulling, washing out a student's mouth, requiring a young student to repeat an undesirable behavior until the behavior became unpleasant to the child, assigning academic work for unrelated offenses, making a boy sit with the girls, having a child stand with his/her nose in a circle that was drawn on the board, having a small child whip the teacher instead of being whipped, and lowering an academic grade (Slacks, 1938). Appropriate punishments included private reproof, isolation, loss of privileges, detention, marking a

deportment grade, corporal punishment, suspension, and expulsion (Slacks, 1938).

Hot lunch programs

There were four basic components to a hot lunch program: equipment, providing the food supplies, planning a menu, and organizing the program (Wyoming State Department of Public Instruction, 1944). One way of providing a hot lunch at school was to have each child bring some cooked food from home in a pint jar with a tight fitting cover. A large pan or rack containing a few inches of water would be placed on the stove and the jars put in the pan. The covers on the jars had to be loosened before the jars were heated. Several types of food were suitable for this type of hot lunch: vegetable and meat stew, soup, a milk drink, mixed vegetables, and cereal cooked in milk (Wyoming State Department of Public Instruction, 1944).

In West Virginia during the early twenties, the first hot school lunch program was of the "washboiler" type. Children brought their food in jars and warmed the jars in a washboiler or kettle that was placed on the stove during the morning session. Women's clubs and parent-teacher associations sponsored this type of lunch program (Trent, 1960).

The school lunch program in West Virginia was a result of the depression (Trent, 1960). In the late twenties and early thirties, the Quakers established community school lunch programs for the undernourished in several West Virginia counties. These counties included Logan, Monogalia, and Preston. These lunch programs expanded with the aid from Food Distribution Administration and supervision in 1935 by the Works Progress Administration. (Trent, 1960). In some communities, food was donated, and mothers assisted in the preparation of the food (Trent, 1960).

Problems Resulting from Building Design

It was recorded in the Biennial Report of 1942-44 that the majority of West Virginia schools were not constructed with the facilities to provide hot lunches. Kitchens were set up in the corners of one-room schools or in nearby buildings. In some communities, kitchens were constructed and equipped with borrowed stoves and kitchen utensils (Trent, 1960). Most school buildings constructed between 1946 and 1956 were built with a kitchen (Trent, 1960).

Windows on both sides of the room were considered a defect because they resulted in cross lighting. The following principles were to be considered when providing proper lighting: (a) The light should come from the ceiling and be diffused evenly. (b) No glare should exist from reflected light. (c) The entire room should be lighted. (d)

There should be no cross light. (e) Light should be admitted from the left side only. (f) Window space should be equal to one-sixth to one-fourth of the floor space. Having windows on only the left side of the schoolhouse was considered the most effective remedy for this problem (M. Carney, 1912).

The school buildings were often used for community gatherings. Gasoline fixtures were used for lighting these evening meetings. Alcohol lamps and oil lamps were an alternate source of light (M. Carney, 1912).

The problems of improper heating and poor ventilation were a result of a poor heating system. The ordinary open stove heated only the immediate area and made no provision for the circulation of fresh air that would provide every child with the needed 2,000 cubic feet of pure air per hour. In the absence of a furnace, the stove should be jacketed, a window partially opened, or the door opened frequently (Carney, 1912).

The seriousness of proper ventilation was addressed by Mr. U.J. Hoffman of the Illinois Department of Education. He recommended that a hot air register be installed which would regulate the amount of fresh air admitted, and that the stove should be surrounded by a five foot, galvanized iron jacket.

The seating of children at double desks constituted a problem. Large boys did not fit comfortably in these seats, and small children could barely see over the top. Seats did

not fit properly if the floor was graded unevenly. The height of the desk top was not adjustable, and therefore did not provide for holding a book at different levels. These defects could cause health problems: (a) Improper height adjustment caused small children to swing their feet which caused injury to the spinal column. (b) Improper height caused poor adjustment to the arms. (c) A slant in the wrong direction along the back allowed no freedom of movement for the hips when writing (M. Carney, 1912).

Chapter 5 Characteristics of One-room Schools in Barbour County, West Virginia

The rural one-room schools in Barbour County have not functioned as part of the county educational system since the phase-out of these schools was completed in 1972 (A. Serefin, Personal Communications, 1992).The development and characteristics of Barbour County rural one-room schools is based largely on personal communications of those persons who taught in and/or attended these schools.

Historical Background

On July 31, 1863, The West Virginia Legislature passed an act providing for the beginning of free schools (Barbour County Historical Society, 1979). The men named in Barbour County to carry out the duties outlined in this law were David Zinn, Henry Martin, Johnson Ward, Jesse Teter and Enoch Sayers (Shingleton, 1976). Seven magisterial districts were made at this time: Cove, Elk, Pleasant, Philippi, Union, Glade and Barker. Valley District was added later by the division of Barker District making a total of eight

magisterial districts...These districts were divided into sub-districts with a school in each (Shingleton, 1976). Two independent districts for the cities of Philippi and Belington that were incorporated, made a total of ten districts each with its own school board (G. Poling, personal communication, Spring 1991).

The following one-room schools were in Barker District: Corley, East Bend, Laurel Bend, Laurel Hill, Pleasant Hill, Point Pleasant, Shockey, Stringtown, and Tighe View (1923 Outline Map of Barbour County, West Virginia).

The following one-room schools were in Cove District: Chestnut Grove, Garner Valley, Hoffman, Liberty, Locust Grove, Middle Hill, Moatsville, Mt.Morris, Mt.View, Nestorville, Phelps, and Union (Barbour County Calendar and Directory, January 1 - December 31, 1929).

The following one-room schools were in Elk District: Brushy Fork (Upper and Lower), Ebenezer, Overfield, Spawlick, and Stewarts Run (Barbour County Calendar and Directory, January 1 - December 31, 1929).

The following one-room schools were in Glade District: Corinth, Digman, Harris, Meadowville, Mud Run, Normal, Pleasant Hill, Rockford, Sand Ridge, Sand Run, Tacy, and White Oak (Barbour County Calendar and Directory, January 1 - December 31, 1929).

The following one-room schools were in Philippi District: Bartlett, Boyles, Croston, Felton, Flat Woods,

Ford Run, Hacker, Hanging Rock, Independence, Lillian, Lower Indian Fork, Minard, Mt.Liberty, Norris, Shooks Run, Silent Grove, Sutton, Union and Valley Dell (Barbour County Calendar and Directory, January 1 - December 31, 1929).

The following one-room schools were in Pleasant District: Adaland, Barbour Corner, Carlin, Center Hill, Clemtown, Corder, Galloway, Lick Run, Lowe, Midland, Mt.Beulah, Mt.Vernon, Pleasant Creek, Pritchard, Riversdale, Taylor's Drain, and West Arden (Barbour County Calendar and Directory, January 1 - December 31, 1929).

The following one-room schools were in Union District: Campbell, Crites, Gawthrop, Hall, Mt.Hebron, Peel Tree, Upper Indian Fork, and Wood (Barbour County Calendar and Directory, January 1 - December 31, 1929).

The following one-room schools were in Valley District: Chestnut Flat, Goff, Kerr, Laurel Point, Pleasant Creek, River, Sipe (Valley Normal), Steerman, Stone Coal, Teter, Ware, Water Camp (McCauley), and Zebbs Creek (Barbour County Calendar and Directory, January 1 - December 31, 1929).

At one time there were ninety one-room schools in the county. They were located approximately two miles apart (D. Nestor, former Superintendent of Barbour County Schools, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Design of Country One-Room School Buildings

Mouse Run School in Barbour County is considered a typical 19th Century School. "The Mouse Run School is a 17 x 30-foot-long log school built around 1840 . It is made of poplar logs and wooden pins and originally had a roof of oak shingles. It operated as a free school. It was purchased by the G. W. Holbert family in 1863 and subsequently by the Everson family." (H. Thacker, personal communication, Spring 1991)

The Mt. Morris School in Cove District dates from 1839 and was held in a church building constructed of logs (Shingleton, 1976). A schoolhouse was built around 1869. The time frame of the 1939 school suggests that the school was a subscription school. Such schools were held in barns, lofts, churches, or a room in private residences (Shingleton, 1976).

Water Camp School was originally a log building (L. B. Smith, personal communication, Winter, 1990). In 1941 the building had weatherboards nailed over it and was painted white.

> "The only modern thing about it was that it had electricity. There was no equipment except for books and paper. I had no money to buy supplies, not even five dollars. There was no teacher's desk, only an unfinished table made out of rough boards. A friend of mine said he could get me an old desk from the bus garage. I had been there about six weeks when here came

a truck with a desk. They had cleaned it up, and it looked nice. The students admired it. As far as I know that was the first teacher's desk in that school" (L. B. Smith, personal communictions, Fall 1990).

Building Construction

Many of the one-room schools in Barbour County were similar in construction and interior arrangment.

"There was a potbellied stove in the middle of the room. Along the back walls were two benches, one on either side of the door, with little coat hangers or nails on the wall above the benches. You hung your coat on the nails or hooks and put your boots under the benches. Up front on the wall behind the teacher's desk was usually a portrait of George Washington or a picture of George Washington crossing the Delaware. There were other pictures such as Ruth and Naomi from the Bible. There were strips with the alphabet over the black board. In one corner in the back was a water cooler on a shelf. In the early days there was actually a galvanized bucket with a dipper, and everyone drank out of the same dipper. After the coolers were put in, everyone had to bring his own cup." (G. Poling, personal communications, Spring 1991).

Problems associated with building construction

Heat provided by a pot-bellied stove was unevenly distibuted and resulted in poor ventilation (G. Findley, personal communication, Winter 1991; L. S. Smith, personal communication, Winter 1991; R. Wagner, personal communication, Winter 1990). These stoves were a potential fire hazard. "One day our hot burnside stove fell over. We all ran outside. One boy ran for his father, and soon the stove was back in place. School went on." (G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991).

> "One cold winter day, the county superintendent visited the school I was teaching in. He gave an eloquent speech on the importance of fresh air. He said that some windows should be opened. Had he looked around, he would have seen a window pane out and a hole in the floor." (G. Findley, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Soot and ashes produced by the coal burning stove created a health hazard and a house cleaning problem.

> "The coal stove kept just one part of the room warm so those who sat far from the stove had to wear their coats and overshoes. Just when we would be busy with our lessons, someone would have to fix the fire, add more coal, or rebuild the fire. Sometimes we would forget and let it go out. Then we always had to wipe

the ashes off of everything, and someone had to empty the ashes. Most of the time they didn't go far enough out the school door, and the wind would blow the ashes back inside on us." (L.S. Smith, personal communication, Winter 1991; R. Wagner, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Country one-room school buildings had no inside plumbing. Toilets were outside and drinking water had to be brought into the building from other sources.

"There were no restrooms in the school. If you asked for permission to leave the room, you were really asking to leave the building, cross the school yard, and go down an embankment to the outhouse or privy. Usually there was the boys' privy on one side and girls' privy on the other." (L. S. Smith, personal communiction, Spring 1991).

Wells were the source of drinking water. If there was no well on the school grounds, water had to be carried in buckets from a neighbor's well.

"We had a well on the school grounds, but it had soap stone in it, so the water was the color of milk. A neighbor had a well where we could get water, but for some reason she didn't want us to get water there. We had to talk her into it practically every day. Her

house was a quarter mile back from the school." (V. Allen, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Windows located on opposite walls were considered a problem because they resulted in cross lighting.

"Originally, there were windows on both sides of the building, but in the thirties the windows on one side were boarded up and the stove moved to the back in a corner." (G. Poling, personal communication, Spring, 1991); R. Wagner, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Teachers' lives

In Barbour County during the early part of the century female teachers were held to a strict dress and behavior code (A. Cleavenger, personal communication, Spring 1991).

"When I went to school in the early 1900s, women teachers had to wear long dresses or skirts, at least to the middle of the calf of the leg. They couldn't go out during the week. There wasn't any place to go except to the box socials." (A. M. Cleavenger, personal communication, Spring 1991).

To get to school, teachers rode horses, walked, rode

buses, or boarded in the communities where they taught. (G. Dickenson, personal communication, Spring 1991; P. Pitzer, personal communication, Winter 1991; L. B. Smith, personal communication, Fall 1990; E. Stalnaker, personal communication, Spring 1991).

> "At one school, I had to ride a horse to get there. I never could ride sidesaddle, so I wore an old pair of men's pants and rode astride like they do now. My pay was about eighty dollars a month."(P. Pitzer, personal communication, Winter 1991).

> "I had to walk two and a half or three miles to get to school and carry fresh milk the whole way. Since there was no hot lunch program in those early days, students would bring soup in a can and heat it on top of the stove. If they brought potatoes, I would bake them in the ashes of the coal stove. I arrived at seven and left at five. This was in 1929."(E. Stalnaker, personal communication, Spring 1991).

> "I had quite a trip from Philippi to Water Camp School in 1941. I rode the school bus to Belington and across the bridge and eight or nine miles along the River Road. Then I walked through the Talbott Church cemetery, down a bank, through a fence, over another bank to a mud road. I walked a mile and a tenth along

that road to the school. I carried a geography books, arithmetic books and my shoes. I always took off my muddy boots at school and when I returned to town. I wouldn't wear muddy boots in town. I had a heavy load every day." (L. B. Smith, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Only one family member at a time was allowed to teach. "I didn't teach for two years because my sister wanted to teach." (E. Stalnaker, personal communication, Spring, 1991). Female teachers were not allowed to teach if they were married (A. Haller, personal communication, Fall 1990). "I kept my marriage a secret for thirteen years."

Teachers often had to walk to school, ride a horse, ride a school bus, or drive. "I rode a bus, and then I had to walk about a mile from the highway to the school." (V. Allen, personal communication, Winter, 1990).

"I started teaching in 1948," said Pat True. "They told me my first job would be at Arden School, but I didn't want to go there because no bus ran there, and I didn't have a car. I would have had to stay there. The superintendent said that when it was about time for school to start that he would find me a place to stay. I didn't want to do that. When I heard that Hacker Creek School was open, I went to see a member of the school board who suggested I ask permission of the

superintendent for that school. I got the position, and I got it. I got on the bus at 6:00 and got off the bus at 5:00." (P. True, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Mr. Delmar Nestor started teaching in 1934 at Digman School which was four miles from his home.

"The school was up an unpaved country road. I walked each way, a total of eight miles a day. I had sixteen students, most of whom walked with me both morning and evening. That year there was a month of bitter cold weather when the temperature stayed below twenty degrees for many days. This did not deter my pupils from being present each day of school. My salary was eighty-five dollars a month." (D. Nestor, personal communication, Winter 1990).

The number of students enrolled in any one school depended on the number of students in the community where the school was located. Harriet Schola began teaching in Clemtown in 1932.

"Can you imagine how a scared eighteen year old felt facing her first day as a teacher, all alone with forty-one students? If that wasn't bad enough, on enrolling them, I found out that some of the eighth graders were as old or older than I was. But I made it

through that first day, and every day got better and better." (H. Schola, personal communication, Spring 1991).

"When I taught at Upper Brushy Fork and Lower Brushy Fork, there were sometimes as many as 44 children in the eight grades.I brought chairs from home because there were not enough for everyone."(E. Stalnaker, personal communication, Spring 1991).

"I had thirty-nine students in one room. In one family, the mother had died and left several little children. The oldest child had to look after the little ones, but she wanted to stay in school, so she brought her little brother with her every day. He was two-and-a-half. The other children loved him, and he was no problem." (G. Findley, personal communication, Fall 1990).

Teachers were expected to organize and conduct socials in order to raise money (A. Haller, personal communications, Winter 1990; P. True, personal communications, Winter 1990). A social could raise money for books. "My first social, I cleared twelve dollars, and, oh, the books I bought with that twelve dollars: The Harvester, Girl of the Limberlost." (Agnes Haller, personal communications, Winter 1990).

"My first social at Hacker Creek was held on a Friday evening. We had electricity, but for some reason only small wattage bulbs were used, probably thirty-five watt. You could barely see. There was just this little light on the porch where the ice cream was. Everyone came. It was so crowded people were hanging in and out of the windows. They were sitting on the window sills, dragging themselves halfway through the window, any way to get in. They wanted to see what we were doing and wanted to see the new teacher, too. I was twenty and looked like a kid. All the cakes were auctioned off. Everything went sky high. Five dollars was a lot of money in those days. Then we auctioned off the dinner boxes. Each girl had brought a box of food decorated with crepe paper, little doilies, and odds and ends of stuff. The boy got to eat with the girl whose box he bought and take her home after the social was over." (P. True, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Teachers had to take care of any medical problems that occurred during the school day (A. Cleavenger, personal communication, Spring 1991).

"I began teaching in 1919, and I guess I did everything from pull teeth to cut hair. Sometimes the mothers would write a note requesting I do these things. I always kept barber supplies in my desk drawer."

A healthy environment included sanitation practices regarding water consumption and hand washing. In the early 1900s, a common practice was that the drinking water was stored in a bucket equipped with one dipper from which each child drank (A. Lambert, personal communication, Spring 1991; G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991; G. Poling, personal communication, Spring 1991).

> "I was a student at Mr. View School when everyone drank out of the same dipper. A. F. Shroyer was superintendent from 1907 to 1911, and during that time one of the reforms was that we weren't to drink after each other. Each of us had to have our own drinking cup. He also made us wash our hands before we ate our lunch." (Audra G. Lambert, personal communication, Spring 1991).

Sanitation practices were the responsibility of the teacher (G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991).

> "Sanitation had to be encouraged. I insisted that each child have his own drinking cup instead of drinking out of the common dipper. One day I brought a wash basin and soap so all of the children could wash their hands. A few days later, the wash basin was found in the woods." (Gertrude Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991).

The teacher's duties might include starting the fire early in the morning and/or supervising a student janitor (A. Crites, personal communication, Spring 1991; G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991; E. Sandridge, personal communication Spring 1991; L. S. Smith, personal communication, Spring 1991).

> "Student janitors were paid two dollars a month. Usually they couldn't get a fire started so I took kindling wood, corn cobs saturated in kerosene, and a block of wood which I covered with coal to keep the fire going overnight (G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991).
>
> "I was a student janitor when I was in the eighth grade. During the winter months, I was up at 4:00 a.m. to fix the fire at school. By 6:00 a.m. I was back home feeding and milking two cows, feeding the pigs, chickens and rabbits. By 7:00 a.m. I was back at school checking on the fire." (E. Sandridge, personal communication, Spring 1991).
>
> "A student janitor was paid twice a year by the Board of Education and got a salary of about six dollars a month, depending on how many students were at the school. Later there was a set fee. Some of my friends teaching in other schools had to do the janitorial work

themselves because there wasn't anyone else to do it. That consisted of keeping the fire, sweeping the schoolhouse everyday, and dusting the seats and the furniture. That was just part of their job." (A. Crites, personal communication, Spring 1991; E. Stalnaker, personal communication, Spring 1991.

"It was up to the teacher to get the oil to the school for the floor and to see that someone oiled the board floor. This was to keep the dust down. Almost everyone walked to school, so they had dust on their feet. Eventually they came out with a grandular stuff that they would sprinkle on the floor to keep the dust down." (A. Crites, personal communication, Spring 1991)

"When I got to school, Mrs. Jackson was building a fire in the coal burning stove in the corner of the room. A couple of large buckets of coal were sitting around the stove, and some of the small children kept falling over them. One small child was playing the coal and got all black." (L. S. Smith, personal communication, Spring 1991).

A teacher's duties extended beyond the classroom. This involvement might take various forms (G. Dickenson, personal communication, Winter 1990; J. S. Schoup, Winter 1990;

Williamson, personal communication, Winter 1990). A teacher might act as a homebound teacher when the regular school day ended.

> "One year, I had a child who was so sick he missed the last half of the eighth grade, so I went to his home and taught him. It was a real pleasure to help him. His parents appreciated it, and the whole family was cooperative. I promoted him at the end of the school year. I wasn't sure I had done the right thing by promoting him, but he became the valedictorian of his high school class, so I guess I did right."(L. Williamson, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Because a schoolhouse could be up to two miles from a residence, the teacher might have to take a sick or injured child to the child's home (G. Dickenson, personal communication, Winter 1991).

> "Once a little boy got very sick, and there was no way to get him home, so I put him on my back and carried him home. You sort of had to figure out for your own self what was the best thing to do. His parents were very appreciative that I had carried him home." (G. Dickenson, personal communication, Winter 1991).

Students sometimes went home with the teacher (Schoup, personal communication, Winter 1991; R. Wagner, personal

communication, Winter 1990; L. Williamson, personal communication, Winter 1991).

"I enjoyed the friendship of the students. Many of them came home to stay all night with me, sometimes as many as three at a time. This was extra work, but it was worth it because it made the children happy, and the parents were pleased." (Louise Williamson, personal communication, Winter 1991).

"I taught at Silent Grove when it was a one-room school. One of the kids wanted me to stay all night with them so I did. I went to the house and I noticed the man was sitting on the front porch. I learned later that they bootlegged whiskey, and they kept it under the bed where I was to sleep, so he was waving his customer on. He didn't want me to know that he was doing that. He was afraid I would turn him in because it was illegal. Even so, I was never treated any better by anyone. I had a good meal and a nice cool bed." (J. S. Schoup, personal communication, Winter, 1990).

Teachers established relationships with the community at large by implementing or supporting programs imposed from outside the school system.

"I was teaching when school was called off for a day so teachers could sign up people in the communities for

stamp books for sugar and gas and so on during the Second World War. I went with a bus load of children to the Myers Clinic for the first polio shots that were given in the county. I also remember a mother knocking at the school-house door to let us know that President Kennedy had been assassinated."(G. Mitchell, personal communication, Winter 1991).

Hot Lunch Program

The hot lunch program which was administered by the teacher, created a link between the schools and the community (G. Dickenson, personal communications, Spring 1991; G. Mitchell, personal communications, Winter 1990; R. Wagner, personal communications, Winter 1990). "I had to hire a cook, order the food and deliver it to school for her to prepare."(Gay Mitchell, personal communication, Winter 1990). In some schools, food was donated by community members (G. Dickenson, personal communications, Spring 1991). "At Shooks Run School, most of the people in that community were farmers. They sent us milk, and we made hot chocolate for dinner." (G. Dickenson, personal communication, Spring 1991). Food was supplied by the teacher, cook, and/or the community.

"When I taught at Valley Bend School, my cook would bring things from home. Some days it was very difficult to get enough food for all the children. At

Independence School on the Union Road, my cook and I both brought food from our cellars, things like canned tomato juice and canned green beans. The parents would bring things sometimes. You had to have at least twenty students to have a hot lunch program." (R. Wagner, personal communication, Winter 1990).

If a cook was not available, the teacher had to assume responsibility for providing a hot lunch.

"At Overfield School we were without a cook for three months, so I cooked the food in the evenings and mornings for the next day. The eighth grade girls would take care of the food at lunchtime after they finished their lessons. They'd put on their hair nets and little hats. We had a sink so the kids could wash their hands in the classroom. Before that, they had to wash their hands at the well. I had bought a pump from the Clinchfield Coal Company for forty dollars. The board of education sent men down to repair the pump and put the well in. This brought water into the kitchen."(Velma Allen, personal communication, Fall 1990).

"I had one little boy who was always counted for lunch whether he was there or not. He would show up when

lunch was served, probably wearing his grandfather's overcoat, dragging through the mud and snow. He was only about seven years old. Many times when the cook finished her work, she would take him in the kitchen, cut his hair, give him a bath, and dress him in clothes her boy had outgrown. He was a different looking boy." (L. Williamson, personal communication, Spring 1991).

Scheduling and Curriculum

School officially began when the teacher rang a bell. Opening exercises consisted of a scripture reading, a prayer, and a salute to the flag (D. Nestor, personal communication, Winter 1991; L. S. Smith, personal communication, Winter 1990; R. Wagner, personal communication, Winter 1990.

After the opening exercises, the first subject scheduled was reading (R. Wagner, personal communication, Winter 1990). Students were seated by grade level with the younger ones seated at the teacher's right and the older ones at the left.

"The teacher would get a row of eighth graders started on their reading and work her way across the room through each grade level. The teacher had to spend most of her time with the first and second graders because they needed the most help and then work her way back.

Older students had to work on their own a lot, especially the eighth graders. When we finished our reading, we got our arithmetic books and worked on that. Maybe the teacher would get back to you and maybe she wouldn't. It was very difficult for the teacher to get to everyone for reading by 10:30 when it was time for recess." (Russell Wagner, personal communication, Fall, 1990).

"One year I had forty-six pupils in a one-room school, and twenty-two of them were in the first grade.I had to put three children in some of the double seats. They learned more than you might think. We were allowed to combine some grade levels. They learned from hearing each other" (Audra Lambert, personal communication, Winter 1990).

A teacher could have older students assist the younger students (G. Dickenson, personal communication, Spring 1991).

"I was eighteen when I started teaching. I had thirty-five students, all grades in one room when I taught at Shooks Run School. I had to figure a way to keep them all busy, so I used some of the seventh and eighth graders to help out. They helped me tremendously. I let them work with some of the beginners in reading and

numbers. I couldn't have done it without their help. They were wonderful, really."

"Each grade was called by turn to the front of the room and seated on the recitation bench for a discussion of each subject. In spite of the busy schedule we always had time for story time, library time and game time. Friday afternoons were reserved for spelling bees, map games, and math contests." (M. Fridley, personal communication, Spring 1991; D. Nestor, personal communication, Fall 1990)).

Sometimes students from one school went to other school to have spelling bees. (J. Short, personal communication, Spring, 1991). Music was taught everyday (G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991). "I taught the pupils to read notes, and I used a pitchpipe."

Field trips were part of the curriculum (M. Fridley, personal communications, 1991; L.B. Smith, personal communication, Winter 1991).

"In the spring we went on hikes. I had a wild flower garden at home, so I would bring wild flowers home and set them out. That was before there were any restrictions about that. Near the school was a bunch of ladyslippers which belong to the orchid family. You

aren't allowed to dig them any more. We took a hike to the Middle Fork River about a mile away and had our lunch." (L. B. Smith, personal communication, Winter 1990).

In 1919 the old McGuffey Readers and the Zaner-Blosser writing method were used in Barbour County country schools (Ada Mouser Cleavenger, personal communications, Spring 1991)."When I began teaching, the pupils wrote on slate boards. Some schools had only a chalk board." (E. Kelley, personal communication, Spring 1991). The curriculum included knowledge of the skeletal system, muscular system, glandular system, circulatory system and the digestive system (A. Thacker, personal communications, Spring 1991).

"You had to learn all the bones in the body. You studied geography, and in history you had to know all the states and their capitals and the major rivers. In West Virginia history, you had to know all the counties and the county seats." (A. Thacker, personal communication, Spring, 1991).

Recess and lunchtime served as physical education (G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991). "We played games, mostly softball." (G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991). Other games included baseball, run and base, dodge ball, fox and geese, and anthony over

(C. Stewart, personal communication, Spring 1991). "Once we were to play another school in softball, and I didn't have any shoes, so I borrowed shoes from one of the girls. The shoes were pointed, I remember that." (L. R. Corder, personal communication, Winter 1990).

"The Water Camp School had a playground but no equipment. There was a woods behind the school, and the students would go into the woods and swing on grapevines. They had to come back when I rang the school bell." (L. B. Smith, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Students could be retained for several years (R. Wagner, personal communications, Winter 1990). "One year when I was teaching, I saw all these big boys on the first day of school, and I said, `What grade are you in?' One boy replied,`I'm in the sixth grade.' I said,`How old are you?' He said, `Sixteen.' I asked another boy what grade he was in, and he said, `I'm fifteen and in the fifth grade, and I've been the fifth grade for five years.'" (R. Wagner, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Punishments

"We were punished by having to stand at the blackboard with our nose in a circle or being whipped with a switch. Sometimes you had to go out and get your own

switch." (D. Mitchell, personal communication, Winter 1990).

"The paddle was the last resort. You kept the students in at recess but not for very long because you had to be on the playground with them. You had them write sentences or write on the board." (A. Crites, personal communication, Spring 1991).

"Before I started school, I visited Corder School where the teacher was a distant cousin of mine. He brought two boys up to the front of the desk, and he was giving them a thrashing with a stick, and every time he'd hit them, they would jump up. They were wearing gum boots, and he would hit those boots with the stick. That made an awful racket, and I was scared half to death. Gum boots came up about your knees, and a lot of kids wore those when they were working on the farm. It was very frightening for my first day of visiting." (L. R. Corder, personal communication, Spring 1991).

"At Water Camp School, a seventh grade boy had done something for which I had to punish him, so I told him he had to stay in at recess. When recess came, he got up and said he was going out. He was fifteen and a big boy. I was the only adult around, so I had to do

something. I showed him the list of rules in front of the attendance register and told him he could be expelled if he didn't do what I told him. Well, he didn't want that, so he sat down and did his work, and I heaved a sigh of relief." (L. B. Smith, personal communication, Winter 1990).

Traditions and holidays

Halloween was one of the holidays observed. "Halloween was a great time for the children and the community. The schoolhouse windows were covered with soap and wax. The pupils liked the half day it took to scrape the windows clean." (G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991).

Christmas always meant a program (G. Dickenson, personal communication, Winter 1990; G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991; D. Nestor, personal communication, Winter 1990). "We practiced songs and plays for days. When we gave a program, there was standing room only, and Santa came with a treat." (G. Findley, personal communication, Spring 1991; D. Nestor, personal communication, Winter 1990). "One year two high school boys who were my Santas pulled my Christmas treat, at least thirty-five pounds of candy, the four miles up the mountain on a steel runner sled for our Christmas program." (D. Nestor, personal communication, Winter 1990). "Sometimes people set off firecrackers." (G. Dickenson, personal

communication, ıter 1990).

Prior to Christmas, the teacher had to promise to give the students candy for Christmas, and if he/she did not promise this, the teacher was "turned out", a term referring to the custom of locking the teacher out of the schoolhouse (H. Schola, personal communication, Winter 1991; E. Shaw, personal communication, Winter 1990).

> "When I was teaching at Pleasant Creek, I had repeatedly told the students I would treat them at Christmas, but they locked me out anyway. They had told the neighbors they were going to do this, so when the neighbors saw that I was locked out, two of the men came to the school carrying a ladder and a large flat board. They climbed on the roof and poured a pound of sulphur down the chimney pipe into the stove and held the board down tight over the pipe. In a few minutes windows went up and doors flew open and children poured out the door and windows, coughing and yelling" (H. Schola, personal communication, Winter 1990).

> "I was turned out once. I had to promise to provide the children with candy or get dumped in the creek. I hid under a bridge. I put my shoe on the bridge to mislead the children, and then I ran back to the schoolhouse. I was there when they returned." (E. Shaw, personal

communication, Winter 1990).

A picnic was held at the end of the school year. All the students and parents came and put food on the tables we had set up outside. You received your report card that day and discovered if you had been promoted or not." (R. L. Corder, personal communication, Spring 1991).

Teacher certification and training

Prior to certification, selection of teachers was based on examination (A. Lambert, personal communication, Winter 1990).

"My father was born in 1851. When he was in school, he went to a subscription school. Evidently at that time the district didn't have any money to pay a teacher. Later on my grandfather was asked by the trustees to teach school, but he didn't have a certificate or anything, so they gave him an examination. They had him read a selection from the McGuffey Reader. Then they had him copy a paragraph to show that he could read and write. Then they had him divide long division. When they saw that he could do these three things, they hired him." (A. G. Lambert, personal communication, Spring 1991).

"We had quite a few teachers during my tenure as a

student at Corder School. One year we had nine different teachers. Some of them were not certified. One lady who came was a hired girl of the teacher. She did a good job and substituted until the teacher got well." (L. R. Corder, personal communication, Spring 1991).

The original school law was enacted in 1865. The revision of this law occurred in 1881 and established the conduct for the Free Schools and the Normal Schools (State Superintendent of Schools, 1904).

"My father received a Free School Diploma in 1898. The Summer Normal Schools were taught by someone who had college work. These schools took a certain number of students by subscription to prepare them for the county teacher's examination. You had to have a certain grade average to get a Number One Certificate. They issued three classes of certificates, One, Two and Three. My father took the examination and got a teaching certificate issued by the county. He probably renewed that certificate sometime and then got a certificate from the state. Then in 1919 he got a Lifetime Certificate in Elementary Education from the State of West Virginia, Department of Free Schools. Subjects tested for this certificate were Orthography, Reading, Arithmetic, Penmanship, English Grammar,

Physiology, Civil Government, U. S. History, Geography, Theory and Art of Teaching, and Agriculture." (G. Poling, personal communication, Spring 1991).

"Superintendents visited once or twice a year. If you knew Mr. Hunt was coming, you sure dusted off the seats because he took his hanky and ran it along the seats. I was petrified if I knew he was coming and so were the children. They sat like wooden soldiers." (E. Shaw, personal communication, Fall 1990).

"There were no supervisors when I started teaching. The superintendent or assistant superintendent would come to school once or twice a year unless there was a problem, and then they would come more often. One of them would come at the end of school and give a test to the eighth graders, and if they didn't pass the test, they didn't get to go to the high school. Our first supervisor was the curriculum supervisor. She would provide us with tests if we wanted them. As time went on, other supervisors were added such as music supervisors." (A. Crites, personal communication, Spring, 1991).

Chapter 6 Implications for the Future

Even though the trend toward school consolidation that began in the early part of this century continues with both schools and districts becoming fewer in number and larger in size (Howley, 1994; Walberg, 1992), research indicates that student achievement in small schools is equal to and often superior to student achievement in large schools (Fowler, 1995; Howley, 1994). Studies indicate that the assumption that large schools provide superior curricula is not necessarily so (Gregory, 1992).

Generally, research indicates that three hundred to four hundred students is an effective size for an elementary school and that four hundred to eight hundred is an effective size for a secondary school (Williams, 1990). Other investigators conclude that no school should have more than four hundred or five hundred students (Cotton, 1996). Studies of the positive aspects of small rural schools indicate that it is the smallness of the schools rather than the setting that is beneficial to students. Research regarding school-within-a-school arrangements is not as extensive as research on the affective and social effects on school size (Cotton, 1996).

Personal and academic self-concepts of students in small schools are more positive than self-concepts of students in large schools (Rutter, 1988; Stockard & Mayberry, 1992). Rutter states that evidence indicates increases in

student bonding to teachers and the school, self-esteem, academic self-concept, locus of control, and sociocentric reasoning among students of small schools. The research that was centered on incidents of collaboration between teachers and administrators in small schools indicated positive attitudes toward work and one another (Gottfredson, 1985; Gregory, 1992; Stockard & Mayberry, 1992).

Studies indicate that students participate in extracurricular activities at a higher level in small schools than they do in large schools (Cotton, 1996; Fowler, 1995; Stockard & Maynard, 1991). In large schools, the opportunities for participation grows but not proportionately. When the population increases twentyfold, only a fivefold increase in participation opportunities results. Students in small schools can participate in a greater variety of activities and hold important positions in these activities. When the population is small, everyone is needed.

Students in small schools have a higher attendance rate than students in large schools (Fowler, 1995; Fowler & Walberg, 1991; Rutter, 1988). Research that studies social distruptions such as truancy, classroom disorder, vandalism, aggressive behavior, theft, substance abuse, and gang participation indicates that small schools have fewer behavior problems than large schools (Gottfredson, 1985;

Gregory, 1992; Rutter, 1988).

Six central service delivery benefits associated with small-scale schooling have been identified: 1) feasibility of democratic practices, 2) collective accountability of faculty performance, 3) personal and individualized attention to student needs, 4) safe and orderly learning environments, 5) parental access to school leadership, and 6) development of a high quality curriculum. Size alone will succeed in improving curricular activities. Committed teachers, supportive administrators, a flexible central authority, and adequate resources are also necessary (Lee, 1995; Smith & Croninger, 1995).

The majority of small public high schools exist in rural areas, and support for small-scale schooling has been largely obtained from rural communities. Recent reform attempts in urban areas have fostered an interest in how reducing the size and scope of schooling operations might contribute to a positive curriculum change within large city school systems (Roellke, 1996).

Chapter 7 Conclusion

The development of one-room rural school characteristics in Barbour County, West Virginia, was typical of the development of characteristics in general.

The phase-out of these schools was completed in 1972. The characteristics of these schools is documented primarily through personal communications from those who participated in the culture of rural one-room schools. These communications provide valuable information about the small school experience. This experience may give direction for change in future school environments.

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