

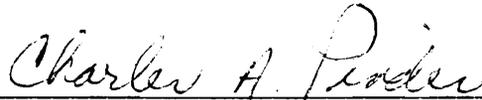
A STUDY OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAMS
IN VIRGINIA FOR BLACKS: 1951 - 1969

by

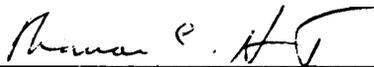
Lester Bernard Hairston

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education
in
Vocational and Technical Education
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

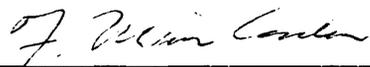
APPROVED:



Charles A. Pinder, Co-Chairman



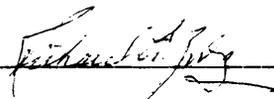
Thomas C. Hunt, Co-Chairman



F. Marion Asche



Don G. Creamer



Richard E. Zody

August, 1986

Blacksburg, Virginia

A STUDY OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAMS

IN VIRGINIA FOR BLACKS: 1951 - 1969

by

Lester Bernard Hairston

Charles A. Pinder, Co-Chairman

Thomas C. Hunt, Co-Chairman

Vocational and Technical Education

(ABSTRACT)

The famous decision of the United States Supreme Court in Brown v. Board of Education, 347 U.S. 483 (1954), ruled that racial segregation in public education was unconstitutional. This decision was met with resistance from many of Virginia's white citizens, because the ruling attempted to alter the state's dual system of education.

The education of white and colored students (as they were called in the 1950s) was based on the philosophy of "separate but equal." This study offers a historical analysis of industrial arts education programs offered to blacks from 1951-69, as the state moved to comply with the Brown decision. Special attention is directed to the leadership role played by Dr. William T. Reed, an itinerant teacher-trainer based at Virginia State College, the Commonwealth's

land-grant institution for blacks. Industrial arts activities for blacks centered around the land-grant institution in Virginia as in other states.

As a result of integration called for in Brown many of the black schools have closed, their names have changed, and in many cases high schools have converted to junior high and combination schools. The organizations for teachers and students have merged with their white counterparts or have been discontinued. Four specific questions served as the framework for the investigation and were used to draw conclusions to the findings.

Conclusions

1. What were the characteristics of the publicly supported secondary education programs of industrial arts education which were offered to blacks in Virginia prior to the Supreme court's ruling in the school segregation case known as the Brown decision?

Industrial arts education programs prior to the Brown decision were: (1) Considered a component of trade and industrial education; (2) Were oriented more toward industrial education or skill preparation; (3) Teachers were prepared in industrial education; (4) Programs were more common in the city school divisions and more common in high schools with grades eight through twelve; (5) Facilities or shop designs were

usually of the comprehensive type; and (6) Fewer funds were allotted to black industrial arts education programs for equipment, supplies, and teacher salaries in comparison to the white programs in the state.

2. What effect did the Brown decision have on industrial arts education programs for blacks?

The Brown decision did not have an altering effect until the mid-1960s on the characteristics of industrial arts education programs offered to blacks.

3. How did the transition from segregated to desegregated schools affect industrial arts education programs?

Black and white industrial arts education programs remained unchanged until the mid-sixties as school systems began to establish policies to integrate faculty and student populations. Blacks schools and programs closed, teachers were displaced, programs discontinued and names of schools and organizations changed.

4. How were these programs supervised at the state level?

Industrial arts education programs between the years of 1951 through 1969 were supervised under the service area of the division of trade and industrial education and industrial arts education. Each year the director of trade and industrial education and industrial arts education of the Department of

Education appointed an assistant state supervisor to assume the overall responsibilities of industrial arts supervision and instruction. This person worked with Dr. William T. Reed, an itinerant teacher-educator with part-time teacher education responsibilities at Virginia State College and part-time supervision duties with the Department of Education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is with sincere gratitude that the author acknowledge his indebtedness to the members of his committee for their guidance, leadership, criticism, and encouragement throughout the matriculation experience. Their contributions to the author are only surpassed by their genuine interest and dedication to education.

Special gratitude is extended to Dr. Thomas C. Hunt and Dr. Charles A. Pinder who served as co-chairman of the committee. With their insightful direction, cooperation, and superintendence, a dream became a reality.

Further appreciation is extended to all those who were interviewed, opened their homes, personal files, and gave of their time and private thoughts. I would especially like to thank Mrs. Margaret Reed for sharing the personal file of her late husband, Dr. William Thomas Reed.

Certainly recognition goes out to my parents, especially my mother for her encouragement, inspiration and prayers. Special recognition to my wife Gwen, for all her assistance and patience.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
TITLE.....	i
ABSTRACT.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	
Statement of the problem.....	5
Purpose of the study.....	6
Limitations of the study.....	12
Delimitations of the study.....	13
Method.....	14
Organization of the study.....	24
Definition of terms.....	26
Endnotes.....	29
II. PUBLIC INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN IN VIRGINIA, PRIOR TO THE BROWN DECISION: 1951-54	
Philosophy.....	35
Programs.....	45
For Blacks.....	62
Funding.....	66
Enrollments.....	71
Teacher Qualification and Certification.....	73
Endnotes.....	76

III.	THE <u>BROWN</u> INFLUENCE ON INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAMS: 1954-1959	
	Virginia's Reaction.....	80
	The Gray Commission.....	91
	Massive Resistance.....	96
	Industrial Arts Education Programs.....	112
	Endnotes.....	124
IV.	THE <u>BROWN</u> INFLUENCE ON INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAMS: 1959-1969	
	Virginia's Reaction.....	130
	Industrial Arts Education Programs.....	150
	Endnotes.....	160
V.	STATE SUPERVISION OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR NEGROES: 1951-1969	
	Supervision.....	166
	Old Dominion Vocational Association.....	174
	State Conferences of Vocational and Industrial Arts Teachers.....	181
	Youth Activities.....	191
	Endnotes.....	204
VI.	SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATION	
	Reiteration of the Problem.....	210
	Reiteration of the Purpose.....	211
	Summary.....	217
	Conclusions.....	219
	Question # I.....	219
	Question # II.....	221

Question # III.....	223
Question # IV.....	225
Recommendations.....	228
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	229
APPENDIXES	
A. Personal Interview Letter.....	256
B. Structure of Virginia Public School Administration: 1951-52.....	260
C. Constitution and Bylaws of the Industrial Club of Virginia.....	262
D. Constitution and Bylaws of the Old Dominion Industrial Teachers Association.....	267
VITA.....	273

LIST OF TABLES

Table

1.	Recommended Industrial Arts Class Experiences in Grades 8-12.....	56
2.	Number of Accredited Public Junior and High School Industrial Arts Education Programs: 1951-54.....	65
3.	Average amount of State and Local Fund Allocated to Industrial Arts Education Programs:1951-54.....	70
4.	Average Enrollments in County and City Schools.....	72
5.	County Enrollments in Negro Industrial Arts Education Programs:1954-1959.....	118
6.	City Enrollments in Negro Industrial Arts Education Programs:1954-1959.....	120
7.	Number of Negro Teachers in Industrial Arts Education Programs in City Schools:1954-1959.....	121
8.	Number of Negro Teachers in Industrial Arts Education Programs in County Schools:1954-1959.....	123
9.	Changes in Negro Schools, 1963 to 1970.....	159

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This study was concerned with industrial arts education programs in Virginia offered to blacks during a critical period in Virginia's history of education. Special attention was directed to the state's leadership and support of industrial arts education programs for blacks and the state's reaction to desegregate its public school system.

History, as this researcher understands it, is an intellectual effort to make sense of past experiences. Through the years, many changes have taken place in the program offerings of Virginia's public schools. Curricula have been analyzed and improved; new curricula have been added. Policies have been developed, implemented, and changed. Industrial arts education has been no exception.

The years 1951-69 are considered some of the most difficult for Virginia's educational system. Public schools closed, private schools opened, organizations were born with opposing objectives and efforts were made by some to keep the existing educational system of "separate but equal" intact, as Virginia's white supremacy rule was challenged.

Since the Constitution of 1901, which mandated a uniform system of free public schools in Virginia, the state operated under a dual school system. The constitution declared that white and colored children shall not be taught in the same schools and the state opted to offer "separate but equal" facilities. Integrationist groups rallied behind such organizations as the Virginia Conference of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) to propose change. Segregationists organized to circumvent modification to Virginia's white supremacy rule. The action or reaction of both groups (integrationists and segregationists) was identified as the forces behind the difficult decision making years in Virginia's educational system. The two groups had opposing views which eventually centered around the outcome of five cases pending a decision on segregation in public schools by the highest court in the land. These five cases are known as Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka. The other four were Briggs v. Elliot from South Carolina, Davis v. County School Board of Prince Edward County from Virginia, Gebhart v. Belton from Delaware, and Bolling v. Sharp from the District of Columbia.¹ When these cases began their way up the judicial ladder in 1951, twenty-one states and the

District of Columbia had laws either compelling or permitting the separation of white and colored in educational institutions.

Prior to the famous 1954 Brown decision outlawing racial segregation in education, industrial arts programs for blacks, which had very limited physical and financial resources, were the major agencies for the industrial development of Negroes in this country.² This subject has a very long history in the annals of American education, but very little coverage has been given the same in the history books of this nation.³ Following this landmark decision, the unconstitutional doctrine of "separate but equal" practices continued to be followed in Virginia's public schools for a number of years. The transition from a segregated system to one of equal access to educational opportunities contributed to deliberate strategies that affected the administrative and organizational structures of industrial arts education programs. The transition was not made without difficulties. As such, a historical study of this period in education (1951-59) must focus on several elements. (1) What were the physical and financial resources that were accessible to industrial arts education programs for blacks during this transition period from segregated to desegregated

public schools? (2) What were the political, social, and economic factors that influenced decisions at the state and local levels affecting these programs? (3) How were decisions perceived by those involved? (4) What contributions, if any, were made by individuals and groups that affected industrial arts education programs? and (5) How were these programs affected as the transition from segregated to desegregated became a reality?

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study was designed to trace, reconstruct, and analyze industrial arts education programs in Virginia which were exclusively for blacks during 1951-1969. The 1951-1969 years included the period Virginia schools made the transition from the "separate but equal" philosophy to integration. It was also the period during which Dr. William T. Reed served as itinerant teacher-educator for the State Department of Education in Virginia, with supervision responsibilities for trade and industry and industrial arts education programs offered to blacks.

The research focused on industrial arts education programs in Virginia, with special attention directed towards industrial arts education programs offered to blacks. Specifically, the study dealt with providing detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interactions, and observed behaviors drawn not only from documents related to industrial arts education programs for blacks, but also the experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts of those who experienced first hand and were part of the transition itself.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to provide an investigation of industrial arts education programs in Virginia, with special attention given to programs offered to blacks from 1951-1969. In particular, emphasis focused on the work of a "non-famous" individual who worked among adverse situations to suggest a positive and healthy perception of ethnic identity development. A visit to the Virginia Department of Education, specifically to the program service area of trade and industrial education, where Dr. William T. Reed served as itinerant teacher-educator from 1951-1969, revealed very little evidence concerning his identity. This conclusion was drawn after scrutinizing the archives of state supervisors' annual reports for trade and industrial education from Dr. Benjamin H. Van Oot to George Swartz. The study provided an analysis of attitudes, beliefs, and decisions that affected industrial arts education programs for blacks as the transition was made from the "separate but equal" philosophy in Virginia's public schools to a system which provided equal educational opportunities for all citizens within the framework of the Fourteenth Amendment.

Only a handful of people can be identified as having an understanding of the total setting of industrial arts education. A smaller number can be identified for their comprehension of knowledge of blacks in industrial arts education. It is not surprising, therefore, to find a paucity of research dealing with the history of the development of industrial arts education programs for blacks in Virginia and those individuals and groups who contributed to this effort. There seems to be a particular need, in education, for the historical study of important ideas that have influenced both the schools and public policies related to them.⁴ Education has so often moved through cycles of ideas only to return, ultimately, to the starting point. A better understanding of the history of ideas in education would prevent much activity that has been called "rediscovering the wheel."⁵

In an interview with Thomas A. Hughes Jr., associate director of industrial arts education, Virginia Department of Education, who worked with Dr. William T. Reed from 1965-1969, Mr. Hughes commented on the importance of Dr. Reed and his work with industrial arts programs for blacks:

A study on the work and contributions of Dr. Reed to education and industrial arts is

needed. He was a professional in all regards and very highly respected by those who came in contact with him. His contributions have indeed been many without due recognition. For example, Dr. Reed's work with youth organizations and student conferences gave the Virginia Association of the American Industrial Arts Students Association (AIASA) its beginning. The Industrial Club of Virginia was organized under his leadership along with the State Project Fairs, which are now called the Virginia Industrial Arts Spring Festival, our state wide annual student conference.⁶

A telephone interview with Clyde Hall, a historian of black vocational technical education, revealed that even though

...very little work has been done in this area, much is needed. Virginia was one of fourteen states in the late 1940s and early 1950s which provided teacher-trainers for vocational education programs for blacks and much of their work has not been documented as a part of the history of vocational education. For example, it was not until 1965 that youth organizations for students enrolled in federal funded secondary trade and industrial education came into existence. The organization is known as VICA, the Vocational Industrial Clubs of America. However, black schools had made some progress in this direction as early as 1948, when the first interstate meeting of trade and industrial education students took place at the South Carolina Area Trade School in Denmark. Dr. Reed began working with the Industrial Clubs of Virginia around 1951 and so did many of his counterparts in other states. Many of them such as F.O. Woodward [Mississippi], S.C. Smith [North Carolina], A.Z. Traylor and William Nelson [Georgia], and Preston Stewart [Tennessee] are still around. These men, as Dr. Reed did, have a bank of knowledge and experience which needs to be explored.⁷

Mr. Rayford L. Harris, Sr., former public

industrial arts teacher in Virginia from 1952-59 and professor of industrial arts education programs at Virginia State University from 1959 to the present, explained that

Dr. Reed's responsibilities as supervisor of industrial education programs for blacks and teacher-educator, encompassed supervision of all activities for black teachers in trade and industrial education and industrial arts...Very little is mentioned today of the organizations and programs that existed for colored teachers only. Organizations as the Virginia Teachers Association, Old Dominion Vocational Association, and the Industrial Club of Virginia. The Virginia Teachers Association was the black state-wide organization equal to the all white Virginia Education Association. Black teachers many times met in regions or Districts as A, B, C, D, etc. Different service areas met as English, Science, Math and Vocational Education. The Virginia Teachers Association had its own executive director who had a counterpart in the Virginia Education Association... The Old Dominion Vocational Association [colored] was the counterpart to the Virginia Vocational Association [white]. Under the Old Dominion Vocational Association we had the Industrial Teachers Association, Home Economics Teachers Association, Business Teachers Association, and the Agricultural Teachers Association...The Industrial Club of Virginia was organized by Dr. Reed in the early 50s so students would have an opportunity to develop as leaders.⁸

Unfortunately, studies of ethnic and minority leaders in education tend to center on a few famous individuals.⁹ Black leadership is often limited to discussions of Frederick Douglass, Booker T. Washington, W.E.B. Dubois, and the legal activists who

built the pathway to the Brown decision.¹⁰ The full range of black leadership that must have emerged in many communities has not been integrated into the history of Virginia education.

Specifically, the study is an effort to state as clearly and as objectively as possible what the weight of historical evidence means concerning industrial arts education programs offered to blacks in Virginia from 1951-1969. The historical evidence is presented in order to provide answers to these questions: (1) What were the characteristics of the publicly supported secondary programs of industrial arts education which were offered to blacks in Virginia prior to the Brown v. Board of Education Supreme Court decision; (2) What effect did the Brown decision have on these programs; (3) How did the transition from segregated to desegregated schools affect industrial arts education programs; and (4) How were these programs supervised at the state level?

In addition to answering the aforementioned questions, the researcher was able to formulate and draw conclusions as to many of the philosophical differences between the relationship of general education, vocational education, industrial education, and industrial arts. It is believed that the

interpretation or misinterpretation of these relationships serve as the basis for all attempts in defining industrial arts education or framing one's philosophy. These theoretical variances provide the foundation to current and past issues in the program areas of industrial arts and vocational technical education. The emphasis of industrial arts has shifted to a technological base, which continues the debate of whether industrial arts is, or should be, considered as general education or vocational education. As such, it should be noted that industrial arts education encompasses the following program area names, of manual training, manual arts, industrial arts and, currently, technology education.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Many of the school programs which were offered during this period in history have closed or have been altered because of integration. Files from schools and agencies were lost, destroyed, or purged. This study depended, to a considerable extent, on interviews of primary actors and their ability to recall facts with accountability. Interviews of primary actors were used in seeking the hidden connections in the existing documents' underlying patterns, and general principles that explained the structural inter-relations influencing industrial arts education programs offered for blacks during the years of 1951-69. It should be mentioned that the interview as a data-gathering device is subject to the interviewer's bias,¹¹ and by the interviewee's "experience, judgment, accessibility, and willingness to divulge information, and his/her ability to express themselves [sic] clearly."¹² Therefore, statements from a given interview have been supported by written documentation or the supporting statements of others who were interviewed.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was restricted to an examination of those events and documents covering the history of education and the history of industrial arts education programs offered in Virginia between 1951-1969. No attempt was made to evaluate these programs in respect to the issue of quality education or to examine industrial arts education programs beyond the secondary level. No attempt was made to make comparisons with other vocational education programs.

METHODOLOGY

The historical research method was used to trace, reconstruct, and analyze the industrial arts education programs offered to blacks in Virginia from 1951-69. The value of writing history is one of the most powerful of studies for engendering empathy. It can be used to understand motives, beliefs, frustrations and hopes of other peoples and yet help a person understand where he comes from and how.¹³ The historical method is the process of critically examining, analyzing the records and survivals of the past,¹⁴ and the imaginative reconstruction of the past from the data derived by that process is called "historiography," or the writing of history.¹⁵ Historical research is concerned with man's past, in that written history is only an attempt to provide, through the use of words and symbols, some representation of what were inferred to be events that actually took place.¹⁶ Therefore, reconstruction of the past, which is called history, is based on inferences made from documents. It is difficult for those who undertake historical research to determine historical truth, what actually happened.¹⁷ Although the aim of the researcher was to reconstruct past events which occurred in industrial

arts education programs for blacks in the 50s and 60s, such a reconstruction can never be fully achieved. Historical truth is never completely known.¹⁸ The historian tries, nevertheless, to carry out as close an approximation to the truth as possible. As one writer stated, "All human knowledge is fragmentary and it is inconceivable that it can ever be complete."¹⁹

The historical approach is "an appeal to our feeling for the relationship of events in time, both for the continuity of human experience and its immense variety."²⁰ It encompasses the recurrences of heroism and bigotry, apathy and misery, and the growth of the ideas of justice and brotherhood. Hence, a study of history leads to understanding and wisdom.²¹

The writing of this study involved the following steps: (1) The selection and limitation of a research problem; (2) The accumulation, classification and criticism of source materials; (3) The consequent determination of facts; and (4) The synthesis and presentation of the facts in a logically organized form.²²

The topic was selected because of the researchers genuine interest in industrial arts education, his interest in the Brown decision's impact on education, and a personal curiosity as to the description of

industrial arts education programs offered to blacks, prior to, and following the Brown decision. In 1981, the researcher had the opportunity to meet and interview Dr. William T. Reed. Born in Zacata, Virginia in 1900, Reed attended grades 1-7 in the county of Westmoreland and travelled to Hampton Normal and Agriculture Institute in Hampton, Virginia at age twelve to begin his high school education. He later received a bachelor of science degree in industrial education from the same Institution, in 1932. Dr. Reed discussed his educational background, experiences as an educator, and responsibilities as itinerant teacher-educator with the Department of Education and Virginia State College. After listening to him and mentally drawing comparisons with his world and the experiences we have today, it was determined that a part of history, specifically in vocational and industrial arts education has not been claimed and much could be learned by conducting a study of this nature. The next question was a difficult one: whether resources still existed to conduct a study on industrial arts education programs offered to colored people, as so described by Dr. Reed.

Source materials were accumulated, classified, and criticized. Literature reviews were conducted,

including historical bibliographies, articles, periodicals, reports, and dissertations. The archives and card catalogs of the Library of Congress, Washington D.C.; the Virginia State Library, Richmond Virginia; Virginia Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia; Virginia State University Library, Petersburg, Virginia; Virginia State University, Industrial Arts Department; and the library at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, Virginia were visited and explored for source materials.

Source materials were classified as either primary or secondary records. A primary source may be in the form of oral history testimony by a witness who was present at a given event, a document describing the event at first hand, or tangible structures or implements handed down.²³ Primary sources are the testimony of able "eye-and-ear" witnesses to past events and actual objects used in the past that can be examined directly.²⁴ Other primary sources included the personal files of William T. Reed, Virginia Department of Education documents, school reports, personal and telephone interviews, legal documents, professional records (conference proceedings, minutes, organization bylaws, pamphlets, others), yearbooks, and

pictorial records.

Secondary sources are derived, once removed from the first-hand material. It is usually a document which describes or discusses a primary source²⁵ or summaries of information written by a person who did not directly observe the event, object, or condition.²⁶ Secondary sources include bibliographies on the history of education and industrial arts.

After collecting and classifying resource materials, the researcher subjects them to a form of examination known as criticism, both external and internal. External criticism is a process which seeks to determine the genuineness of documents, to answer the question: is the source what it seems to be?²⁷ Primary and secondary sources such as letters, newspapers, and personal notes will be examined to determine why, where, when, how and by whom the document was written. Internal criticism undertakes to analyze the meaning of statements within the documents which the documents have already been established as genuine, and to determine their accuracy and trustworthiness.²⁸ The historian, accordingly, attempts to find out the literal meaning of the various statements and then their actual meaning. Whenever there were several statements dealing with a given

first applies the process of external/internal criticism.

The most important single problem facing the student of history is causation, or explaining why the events occurred.²⁹ While it was certain that the files of the agencies involved (the Virginia Department of Education, the United States Department of Education, and the personal records of Dr. W. T. Reed) contained records, documents, letters and other forms of evidence regarding industrial arts education programs for blacks, the researcher believed that the content of these files alone would not provide the complete answers to the questions. The "why" question is the more difficult one to research and answer,³⁰ as pointed out by one historian. Thus, it was necessary to go beyond the files and include personal interviews with those persons most directly involved with the major actions in the study, in order to determine the facts beyond the documents. The researcher was warned that critics have faulted oral history for depending on the human memory, often a fickle and unreliable source of information. It was also noted, however, that oral history can be used to preserve feelings and attitudes which shed light on the emotional atmosphere in which decisions were made or actions taken. Talking to

people, asking them about their lives, listening to what they have to say--these steps can expose the richness and fullness of human experience, challenging the researcher to confront biases and accept the diversity in society.

The interview was used as a device to support assumptions drawn from records, to apply internal and external criticism to documents and to interpret their meaning and trustfulness. Two methods were incorporated into the study. The personal and telephone interviews were used as a method of offering criticism, interpretation, understanding and clarity to facts. Primary actors (primary as defined by their actions and/or inactions as evidenced by the files, records, documents, etc.) selected for the personal interview were first contacted by telephone, introduced to the study, asked to participate, and presented with a broad range of questions relevant to their past experiences. In some cases letters were mailed before the scheduled interview (see Appendix A). Interviews were held in the personal surroundings of the interviewee, taped and transcribed and lasted two to four hours in length.

Telephone interviewees were contacted by telephone, introduced to the study, asked to participate, and

presented specific questions relevant to their past experiences as so noted in the files. The telephone interview was also used as a follow-up to personal interviews previously conducted. The following primary actors were interviewed.

(1) Mr. George Davis, [retired] former head of the School of Industries, Virginia State College, Petersburg, Virginia.

(2) Mr. Gordon Fallensen, [retired] former Supervisor of Trade and Industrial Education, Virginia Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia, 1951-1961.

(3) Dr. Harry Johnson, [retired] former head of School of Industries, Norfolk Division, Virginia State College.

(4) Mr. Harold Berry, former President of Virginia State College Industrial Clubs (1955), and Industrial Arts Teachers, Loudoun County Schools, Loudoun, Virginia.

(5) Mr. Rayford L. Harris Sr., secretary, Old Dominion Vocational Association and Industrial Arts Teacher, Richmond City Schools, Richmond Virginia and Virginia State College, Petersburg, Virginia.

(6) Mr. George W. Swartz [retired] former Supervisor of Trade and Industrial Education, Virginia Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia.

(7) Mr. Clifton Jeter, [retired] former Supervisor of Agriculture Education, Virginia Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia.

(8) Mr. Chester Lane, [retired] former Supervisor of Industrial Arts, Martinsville City Schools, Martinsville, Virginia.

(9) Mr. Vernard Bulter, [retired] industrial arts teacher, Martinsville City Schools, Martinsville, Virginia.

(10) Dr. Clyde Hall, historian on black vocational technical and industrial arts education, Savannah State College, Savannah, Georgia.

(11) Mr. H.E. Gwatmey, [retired] former industrial arts teacher, Hampton City Schools, Hampton, Virginia and Richmond City Schools, Richmond, Virginia.

(12) Mr. Rufus Gant, [retired] Principal Hampton High School and former industrial arts teacher, Hampton City Schools, Hampton, Virginia.

(13) Mr. Marshall O. Tetterton, State Supervisor of Industrial Arts Education, Virginia Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia.

(14) Mr. George R. Willcox, State Supervisor of Industrial Arts Education, Virginia Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia.

(15) Mr. H. Preston Johnson, [retired] former industrial arts teacher at the Manassas Regional High School, Manassas, Virginia.

(16) Mr. Robert Woodson, former President Industrial Club of Virginia, Hampton, Virginia.

(17) Mr. Joseph Rice, Industrial Arts Teacher, Gretna Junior High School, Gretna, Virginia.

(18) Mr. Roland Walton, former President of the Old Dominion Industrial Teachers association, Medford, Massachusetts.

Facts in the study were presented in a logical and systematic order which included a combination of chronological and topical presentation of the facts based on the following four questions: (1) What were the characteristics of industrial arts education programs offered to blacks from 1951 through 1969; (2)

What effect did the Brown decision have on the programs; (3) How did these programs make the transition from segregated to desegregated; and (4) How were these programs supervised? Judgments were made concerning the amount of emphasis or space given to various evidence drawn from primary sources and supported by secondary sources.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

Chapter I reviewed the general introduction which presented the statement of the problem, purpose, limitations, delimitations, and methodology. It also contains the statement of procedures and definition of terms related to the content of the study.

Chapter II was designed to introduce the curriculum of industrial arts education programs offered to blacks prior to the Brown decision. The researcher described the state's philosophy, program offerings, funding practices, facilities, enrollments and teacher certification requirements for all industrial arts programs.

Chapter III reviewed the state's reaction to the Brown decision from 1954 to 1959. Virginia passed through two important stages in its reaction to the Brown decision. The first stage and by far the most controversial was the period of massive resistance which took place between 1954 and 1959. In addition, industrial arts education programs between 1954-59 were reviewed.

Chapter IV continued to study the state's reaction to the Brown decision and industrial arts education programs from 1959 to 1969. The second stage of Virginia's reaction to the Brown decision involved a period of time consuming litigation and an active participation by the federal government.

Chapter V described the supervision of industrial arts programs for blacks from the state level and the responsibilities of Dr. William T. Reed, who served as itinerant teacher-educator with the division of trade and industrial education and Virginia's land-grant institution. This chapter focused on his work. Attention was given to supervision responsibilities, the organizations for black industrial arts teachers and students. Attention was also given to the Old Dominion Vocational Association and the Industrial Club of Virginia as the transition was made to integrate Virginia's public schools.

Chapter VI presented the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Many words used in this study are subject to variation in meaning. In order to minimize misunderstanding and misinterpretation, certain important terms are defined according to their intended meaning.

(1) Vocational education provides assistance in learning a special occupational act or fact (trade, course of study).³¹ Vocational education is considered a part of education which makes an individual more employable in one group of occupations than in another. Programs were set up to assist in meeting the manpower needs in society.

(2) Trade and industrial education offers specific training for useful employment in trades and industries. It serves those needing training to secure industrial employment, to increase the effectiveness of employed workers, and to prepare employed workers for advancement to higher levels of employment.³² It is a component of vocational education.

(3) Industrial arts is a form of general education which provides the learner with experiences in the use of tools, materials, processes, and products generally of the mechanical industries for the purpose of general

educational values regardless of what his future occupation may be.³³ Industrial arts instruction is considered pre-vocational. It is a phase of general education which provides learning experiences with tools and materials.

(4) Industrial education is "a generic term including all educational activities concerned with modern industry and crafts, their raw materials, products, machines, personnel, and problems." It includes both industrial arts and vocational industrial education.³⁴

(5) Unit Shop is one in which one specific activity such as general metals, machine shop, auto mechanics and the like is taught.

These shops are more practical in the larger cities where it is possible to have a number of specific shops among which the pupils can rotate, thereby receiving a variety of experiences under different instructors.³⁵

(6) General shop is one in which work in all phases of one activity is carried on in a single shop and under the direction of a single teacher.

An example of this type of shop is general metal where sheet metal, art metal, forging, machine metalwork, foundry and welding are taught.

These shops are practical in the smaller cities

where two or three full time industrial arts teachers are used.³⁶

(7) Practical arts in education refers to preparing a worker for a vocation but to provide him/her with general knowledge, skills, and attitudes to enable the individual to find a degree of satisfaction in everyday life and to meet his/her responsibilities as a citizen.³⁷ The more common non-vocational practical arts subjects are industrial arts, general home economics, general business, and general agriculture.

(8) The terms colored, Negro and black were used in context with specific periods in history. It appeared to the researcher that the terms colored and Negro were generally used when referring to programs or schools for blacks before the 1960s, when black became the accepted term. An attempt was made to utilize this terminology in context with the documents, files, and records.

Chapter 1 Endnotes

1. Numan V. Bartley, The Rise of Massive Resistance: Race and Politics in the South During the 1950s (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1969), p. 53.

2. Clyde W. Hall, Black Vocational Technical and Industrial Arts Education: Development and History (Chicago: American Technical Society, 1973), p. 1.

3. Ibid.

4. Robert M. W. Travers, An Introduction to Educational Research, 4th edn. (New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1978), p. 379.

5. Ibid.

6. Statement by Thomas A. Hughes, Jr., Associate Director of Industrial Arts Education, Virginia Department of Education, in a personal interview, March 7, 1985.

7. Telephone interview with Clyde W. Hall, former Chairman, Division of Technical Sciences, Savannah State College, Savannah, Georgia, April 18, 1985.

8. Statement by Rayford L. Harris, Sr., Teacher Educator at Virginia State University, in a personal interview, April 18, 1986.

9. William J. Reeves, "Neither Victims nor Masters: Ethnic and Minority Study," Historical Inquiry in Education: A Research Agenda, ed. John Hardin Best (Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association, 1983), pp. 230-250.

10. Ibid., p. 236.

11. George J. Mouly, The Science of Educational Research (New York: American Book Company, 1963), p. 33.

12. Ibid., p. 10.

13. Robert J. Shafer, A Guide to Historical Method (Illinois: Dorsey, 1974), p. 21.
14. Louis Gottschalk, Understanding History: A Primer of Historical Method (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1950), p. 48.
15. Ibid.
16. Travers, op. cit., p. 376.
17. Travers, op. cit., p. 375.
18. Deobold B. VanDalen, Understanding Educational Research: An Introduction (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1962), p. 159.
19. Homer Carey Hockett, The Critical Method in Historical Research and Writing, 3rd edn. rev. (New York: The Macmillian Company, 1955), p. 4.
20. Shafer, op. cit., p. 1.
21. Wood Gray and others, Historian's Handbook: A Key to the Study and Writing of History, 2nd edn. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964), p. 1.
22. William W. Brickman, Educational Historiography: Tradition, Theory, and Technique (Cherry Hill, New Jersey: Emeritus, Inc., Publisher, 1982), p. 91.
23. Ibid., p. 92.
24. Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 162.
25. Brickman, op. cit., p. 162.
26. Van Dalen, op. cit., p. 162.
27. Brickman, op. cit., p. 92.
28. Ibid., p. 94.
29. Ibid.
30. Shafer, op. cit., p. 4.

31. Franklin J. Keller, Principles of Vocational Education: The Primary of the Person (Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1948), p. 48.

32. Rupert N. Evans, Foundations of Vocational Education (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971), p. 1.

33. Robert Stombaugh, A Survey of the Movement Culminating in Industrial Arts Education in Secondary Schools (New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936), p. 16.

34. John Frank Friese, Course Making in Industrial Education (Peoria: Chas. A. Bennett Co., Inc., 1947), p. 7.

35. Virginia Industrial Arts Handbook: Tentative Edition (Richmond: The State Board of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Trade and Industrial Education Service, 1948), p. 16.

36. Ibid.

37. Roy W. Roberts, Vocational and Practical Arts Education, 2nd edn. (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1965), p. 58.

Chapter 2

PUBLIC INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN VIRGINIA PRIOR TO THE BROWN DECISION: 1951-1954

The school years between 1951-54 were the preclusive years to the end of Virginia's dual public school system. Since the ratification of the Constitution of 1906, which declared that white and colored children shall not be taught in the same schools, Virginia elected to follow the "separate but equal" philosophy in its public school system. Virginia's public schools were administered by the Department of Education, under the State Board of Education, which included representation from the governor, attorney general, superintendent of public instruction and experienced educators either elected by the State Senate or selected by the Board.

The organizational structure of the Department of Education was considered with the concept that any plan of organization should be predicated upon efficiency in light of clearly defined purposes, clearly defined responsibilities, efficient individuals to assume those responsibilities, and economy of operation¹ (see Appendix B for organizational chart).

In 1951, there were four divisions in the

organizational structure of the Department of Education under the superintendent of public instruction. They were the divisions of instruction, vocational education, rehabilitation and special education, and research and planning. The division of vocational education included the following service areas: vocational agriculture, home economics (including school lunches), business education, distributive education, trade and industrial education, veterans training, and surplus property.

Industrial arts was considered a part of trade and industrial education, often referred to as trade and industrial education and industrial arts.² The service area of trade and industrial education was concerned with the vocational preparation of persons who were employed in the mechanical trades and public service occupations, with the training of instructors for trade and industrial pursuits, and with the general education [industrial arts] in the mechanical fields of high school and junior high students.³ The trade and industrial service area cooperated with local school boards of education in organizing classes, making surveys, and promoting the development of vocational education in white and colored programs approved by the state board.

Industrial arts consisted of instructional shopwork which provided general education experiences centered around everyday industrial and technical life. The programs were designed to provide an orientation in the areas of appreciation, production, consumption, and recreation through actual experiences in planning, producing, servicing, and repairing various opportunities for exploratory experiences which were helpful in the choice of a vocation. Industrial arts was considered one of the non-vocational practical arts subjects and consequently not eligible for federal aid under the vocational education laws.⁴

PHILOSOPHY OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION

Industrial arts, like any school subject, has experienced a constant process of change, and a variety of program structures and philosophies has evolved. From manual training, to manual arts, to industrial arts, to technology education, the philosophy has shifted from teaching the mastery of hand tools to the mastery of techniques and processes. The state's philosophy of industrial arts education was molded by its leaders and their experiences. It will be necessary to review such leaders and their roles in shaping the state's philosophy of state-wide industrial arts education which was shared, on paper, by both white and colored programs.

The first manual labor undertaking in Virginia was established in a rural section of the state. It was named the Miller Manual Labor school of Albemarle, Virginia. In 1888, the Miller Manual Labor school offered drawing and manual training.⁵ Following the establishment of the Miller school, Superintendent Bader succeeded in introducing manual training into the schools of Staunton, where three experienced teachers provided instruction in cooking, drawing, woodwork, and other related areas.⁶ In 1900, the Lynchburg school

board appointed a committee to visit Washington D.C. and cities outside Virginia with a view of introducing manual training in the Lynchburg schools. The superintendent appointed a teacher of manual training in 1901 to teach woodworking in the elementary grades.⁷ The Newport News school system followed in 1902 by adding woodworking to the curriculum of the upper elementary grades. By 1906, Norfolk and Richmond, the two largest cities in Virginia, both had started manual training classes. Both cities had a large enrollment of Negro students, thereby offering the Negro access to manual arts in the public school system. The first programs in the Richmond school system were in elementary schools and were called elementary manual training. These programs were introduced in 1904, as a part of the district schools for white pupils, into the primary grades of the district schools for colored pupils, and into some of the grammar grades.⁸ These programs were guided by Julian A. Burruss, principal of Leigh School in Richmond, who became director of manual training and later president of Virginia Polytechnic Institute.⁹

Norfolk's industrial arts education programs began in a school for Negro students, the Cumberland Street Elementary School, upon the encouragement of faculty

members from Hampton Institute. In November, 1904, Dr. Fissell and Mr. Phoenix of Hampton Institute appeared before the Norfolk School Board and recommended the establishment of manual training classes for Negro students.¹⁰ The board responded by voting to establish such classes in an addition to the Cumberland Street colored school as soon as funds were available for the addition. In July, 1906, Mr. Torsten H. Rydingsvard, a native of Sweden, was elected head of the manual training department. The board appropriated \$5,000 for an addition to the Cumberland Street School for the use of manual training classes there. In 1908, the school board continued its support of manual training for colored programs by voting \$250 for manual training classes for Negro schools, heretofore supported entirely by the Slater Fund.¹¹ The Slater Funds provided private funds for improving Negro education in the southern states. The following year, \$407 was voted on by the school board for manual training tools and supplies for the Berkley Ward School and Cumberland Street School. That same year W.O. Clayton was elected as full-time manual training teacher for the Negro schools.¹²

Since industrial arts education was first taught in the elementary schools it is necessary to note that

Frederick G. Bonser and Lois Mossman are credited with establishing the first philosophical base for the existence of industrial arts in the elementary school. Their philosophies were based on the philosophical thought that industrial arts education should be a subject-matter discipline concentrating on those industrial processes fundamental to the survival of people.¹³ The basic points underlying their philosophies are explained further: (1) Industrial arts is a subject matter discipline and has its own unique body of content; (2) Industrial arts derives its content from industry, with emphasis on the changing of raw materials into useful products, from the life related to these changes, and from the consumer aspect to utilizing these products; (3) Industrial arts is a part of the total school curriculum and has a close relationship to the other subjects within the curriculum; and (4) The elementary school classroom teacher must provide industrial arts instruction at the elementary school level.¹⁴

The title "Industrial Arts" first appeared in the Richmond schools in a 1921-22 report which described shopwork programs as having evolved from manual arts into the industrial arts concept. The report read, "The industrial arts (manual training) work as conducted for

boys is intended to give a variety of experiences with appropriate instruction in several types of shopwork and drawing. It undoubtedly has value as a means of stimulating and directing the studies of the pupil into the general subject of choosing occupations, but by far its greatest values are in the realm of general education."¹⁵

In the early twenties, as Virginia made the change from an agriculture economy to an industrial and scientific economy, the state superintendent of public instruction, then Mr. Harris Hart, considered options for students who did not find that the college preparatory courses were meeting their needs. Mr. Hart authorized an appropriation of funds designed to expand the area of industrial arts education since only a few cities in the state were offering manual training. "He [Superintendent Hart] authorized small appropriations to those cities and counties that would take the initiative in setting up industrial arts courses in the upper grades and in the high school....About twenty school superintendents accepted this opportunity....Twelve hundred dollars was appropriated for each center to encourage the development of industrial arts classes."¹⁶

By 1923, the city of Richmond had expanded its

industrial arts education programs and established a firm philosophy for implementation. Industrial arts was considered a part of general education or perhaps loosely called "Pre-vocational Education." In describing the efforts of the industrial arts programs in the colored schools the director of manual training wrote

Every effort is made to make the industrial work in the colored schools contribute as much as possible to the social and economic life to the race in the community....At the Booker T. Washington School, for instance, there were...365 boys taking shopwork. These boys were taught by one instructor in a room containing less than 800 square feet of floor space, each boy having on an average of eighty minutes a week. Boys of this school, as well as the other colored schools of the same grade level, should be given industrial arts for a minimum of five hours a week and be provided adequate space and equipment for types of work suitable to their needs.¹⁷

According to Arthur H. Schwartz, past historian for the Virginia Industrial Arts Association, the State Board of Education established a basis for providing additional state aid for industrial arts education instruction beginning in 1930-31. The board's action provided Dr. Benjamin H. Van Oot, state supervisor of trade and industrial education, a means to implement the Bonser and Mossman concept of industrial arts education throughout the state. The plan was made to experiment in general shop instruction by initiating

classes in five of the larger cities and five of the smaller communities of the state.¹⁸

Dr. Van Oot served as state supervisor of the trades and industrial education programs in Virginia from 1924-56, was credited by many for shaping the philosophy of industrial arts education in Virginia. He considered industrial arts as preparatory for students to go into the vocational program.¹⁹ One observer of Dr. Van Oot's work stated that, "the program of Industrial Education in Virginia, molded some thirty three ago, and nurtured through the years to the point of its present size and efficiency, has a foundation truly built on a rock."²⁰ In his 1951 annual report to the superintendent of public instruction, Dr. Van Oot described the demand for vocational education during the past ten years as distinct trends. The first trend was day trade classes, the second, general shop instruction, the third, part-time cooperative education and trade extension (evening) classes. The second trend of general shop (industrial arts) was described as instruction in which high school and junior high school students acquainted themselves with industrial processes and gave expression to their mechanical and scientific aptitudes, and had the opportunity to learn about the properties and uses of materials of

industry.²¹ According to Dr. Van Oot the State Department of Education accepted a philosophy for industrial arts education in Virginia that he believed to be sound. He wrote

Today there are large industries which produce most of our wants. There are furniture factories, textiles mills, book companies, tool and die manufacturers, food companies, chemical industries, and large automobile, railroad and airplane industries. Practically every commodity we use is now manufactured. With this great change in our way of life, industrial arts came in response to a need for a type of education which would help all people to live more intelligently in a predominantly industrial society. After a close scrutiny of Industrial Arts Education one might conceive the point of view that this type of education is a study of the changes made by man in the forms of materials to increase their values, and of the problems of life related to these changes. It is a means of forming social intelligence and appreciation through understanding the things of the environment which have resulted from man's transformation of raw materials to finished products of higher value. It is a study of the industries for the values that such studies have in the pursuit and interpretation of daily life. The industrial arts subject matter should be a well organized body of thought, giving insight and intimate contact with industrial materials, industrial methods, and the social aspects of industry. Construction activities, observations, reading, investigations, experiments and excursions, all have their part in the development of industrial intelligence and insight.²²

The state's philosophy of industrial arts education was accepted for white and colored programs as pre-vocational in nature. In regards to the colored

programs there was not much of a difference in the industrial education programs and industrial arts education. Industrial education programs were more vocationally oriented. In an interview with Mr. George Swartz, former supervisor of trades and industrial education, he explained,

There wasn't much difference in a black industrial arts program and a black trade and industrial education program, for the simple reason they capitalized in the black schools on any programs that had tools to work with. The general public felt that the blacks needed to get in a hands on program. The schools were geared up to do this. On the other hand, it was a hard road to get a white person to go into a manual labor job and it still is...The general public downgrades a manual laborer and upgrades a professional.²³

Vocational education programs were initially funded by the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917, in which federal funds were provided as a reimbursement to states offering vocational agriculture, home economics, and vocational industrial education.²⁴ Vocational programs receiving assistance from the Smith-Hughes Act prepared youth and adult in vocational training for common wage earning employment. Industrial arts programs were usually one hour in length and not eligible for federal assistance.

The Negro teacher-training institutions for industrial education/industrial arts teachers in Virginia included Hampton Institute, Virginia State

College, Norfolk Division of Virginia State College, and Saint Paul's Polytechnic Institute. These institutions prepared students, primarily in industrial education. Industrial education programs prepared students to become proficient in one or more of the trade areas (woods, metals, electricity, etc.). Most graduates were trained as skilled craftsmen and those who decided to teach and were assigned to teach industrial arts education classes felt as if their skills were not being fully utilized. Mr. H.E. Gwatmey who taught industrial arts at Phoenix High School in Hampton and Graves Junior High in Richmond explained that, "Somehow I could not learn enough about what industrial arts was all about; I knew about vocational education through my training at Virginia State and Hampton Institute, I knew about carpentry, drafting and electrical wiring and somehow those things fit into industrial arts, but on a very elementary level."²⁵

PROGRAMS

Industrial arts education programs were organized on the basis that they were as representative of modern industry as was possible within practical limits. The programs embraced such areas as woods, metals, graphic arts, power mechanics (electricity, engines, etc), leather, plastics and ceramics, with general drawing and planning included in all of them. These areas were not regarded as separate subjects but as areas of experience and segments of the total school program.²⁶ The programs were theoretically designed to provide opportunities for students to give expression to his natural impulse to create, investigate and construct. The curriculum provided suitable circumstances for students to learn how to intelligently select and use the products of industry. The program encouraged self-discipline, cooperativeness, integrity, initiative and an appreciation of others.

Since industry was considered an element of the basic culture, industrial arts education assumed the responsibility of enhancing and enriching the experiences of students in the industrial world. The purpose of industrial arts education, therefore, was to foster the development of a strong foundation in the

skills, knowledge, and attitudes regarding technical matters. It was provided on the elementary school level, junior high school level, and high school level.

Elementary School Level--Grade 1-6

Industrial arts on the elementary level was designed as an integral part of the elementary school curriculum to be taught by the regular classroom teacher. Teachers were provided the necessary equipment and materials. The outcomes were intended to be general education and social adjustments with the emphasis on guidance rather than vocations. The objective of programs for children of less than junior high grades was designed to gain experience in studying and handling the materials of industry. Elementary programs attempted to develop habits of work, acquire an appreciation for the types of work and service performed by individuals in society, form proper attitudes toward individuals and materials employed in an industrial and commercial pursuits, and develop the power of independent and effective thinking.²⁷ Industrial arts in elementary education programs provided enrichment of the general program in the classroom. Experiences with tools and materials

provided activities for typical elementary school projects and units. The subjects were informal, related to the classroom subjects and interpreted the environment in which the students found themselves. Subject matter consisted of the making of simple articles in the following fields of human activity: food, clothing, shelter, tools and machinery, utensils, records, transportation and communication. These activities were carried on in a classroom and in a central project room. In elementary schools which included grades seven and eight, industrial arts education was invariably a required subject identical with the program as found on the junior high school level.²⁸

Junior High School Level

Industrial arts education in the junior high school was considered an essential part of the basic education program of both boys and girls. Broad industrial and occupational orientation, through well-organized shop and laboratory experiences, afforded junior high school students with an understanding of their own interests, abilities, limitations and opportunities, and helped them in their efforts to make satisfactory adjustments

as producers and consumers of industrial products and services. Such programs provided practical experiences in the use of many of the tools, materials, processes and products of manufacturing, as well as those of the skilled trades and the crafts.

Shop experiences were not limited to isolated manipulative procedures for the sole purpose of producing attractive projects. Projects were used as one means of presenting industrial experiences and knowledge which included occupational information--an appreciation and understanding of occupational endeavors, and the development of basic elementary consumer, producer, and recreational skills, attitudes, and judgments.

The junior high school program involved opportunities to study problems of every day living through planning and developing projects in the major categories of general technical drawing, woods, metals, power mechanics, graphic arts and the crafts. Students at this age were given opportunities to acquire experience and gain information relative to many vocations regardless of whether or not they ever expected to enter any one of the fields in which instruction was given. They were given the opportunity to give expression to the many mechanical and

scientific impulses they possessed, to gain a general knowledge relative to the specific requirements of the many fields of work, to develop neuro-muscular coordinations necessary for success regardless of the specific vocations they may have desired to enter, to acquire knowledge of goods and materials that enabled them to be intelligent consumers of the world's products, and to have an opportunity to capitalize on those creative instincts possessed by every normal child so they would feel themselves as forces in a creative world.²⁹

High School Level

Industrial arts on the high school level represented a continued sampling of one or more of the major classifications of industry. Consenting students who wished could elect industrial arts education, but it was offered particularly to those who showed special interests and abilities in industrial and technical fields. Advanced, intensive experiences in several areas of interest to the individual with an increased emphasis on technical knowledge and machine processes assisted materially in a gradual but sound approach to some form of specialization in a major area. In senior

high schools the interest of the students developed almost to a mature standard. Their increased ability made it necessary to insist on the highest possible craftsmanship which was offered in the general unit shop laboratories, or [in small schools] in a general comprehensive shop laboratory.³⁰

According to "The Guide for Planning the Industrial Arts and Trade and Industrial Departments, 1948," and "The Industrial Arts Bulletin, Course Outlines for Industrial Arts, 1952,"³¹ there were three distinct types of industrial arts education programs in the state of Virginia.

The work of the unit shop was confined to a single occupation or activity in one field of industry such as metalworking or drawing, or auto mechanics. The equipment offered less variety than in the following types, but the depth of each item taught was increased and the extent of the tools used was greater. The teacher was a specialist and his equipment highly specialized. When a large school system wanted to emphasize the vocational objective in shop work on the advanced level, the unit shop was advised.

In the general shop subject matter activities were confined to a single subject of study. It offered a unique value for both vocational or industrial arts

education classes, but was planned to meet definite vocational or industrial arts objectives. In a general metal shop, for example, one would expect to find equipment for instruction in sheet metal work, ornamental iron, machine shop, hot metals such as casting and forging, metal finishing and possibly welding and spinning. Likewise, a general woodworking shop may have been equipped for and offered instruction in bench or hand tool work, machine operation, wood turning, upholstery, finishing, and possibly carpentry and carving. While this type of shop is more limited in scope than the comprehensive general shop, it permits a higher degree of specialization and is somewhat easier to organize and administer, although it required more equipment, especially of the larger type.

The comprehensive general shop was organized so that the subject-matter experiences would be selected from a variety of industrial activities and arranged in a unified course. In such a shop the work in all of the several areas is carried on under the direction of a single teacher. In this type of shop it was possible to have advance unit courses to small classes as well as the basic course in general shop, thus serving the needs of both beginning and advanced students. This arrangement worked quite well in the small high school

which usually could afford only one shop. The activities carried out in these programs may be any of a number of twelve listed as follows: general drawing, woodworking, general metals, electricity and radio, auto mechanics, photography, general power machines, block printing, home mechanics, ceramics, art leatherwork, and jewelry.

In some schools the subject taught was selected because of the occupational nature of the community. It is logical to expect that in a furniture manufacturing district major emphasis might be given to the field of woodworking. This was indeed the case in Martinsville, the home of several furniture industries. The industrial arts teacher who worked there from 1950 to his retirement in 1984, stated that, "woodworking and drawing were the two primary subjects taught in the colored high school."³² The industrial arts shop based on either the unit, general or comprehensive laboratory organization had one or more of the following areas from the major industries:³³

I. Communications

1. Drafting and Sketching:

- a. Freehand Sketching
- b. Mechanical Drawing
- c. Methods of Duplicating Drawing

2. Graphic Arts:

- a. Letter Press Printing
- f. Book Binding

- b. Silk Screen Printing
- c. Linoleum Block Printing
- d. Dry Point Etching
- e. Rubber Stamp Making
- g. Photography
- h. Duplicating
- i. Paper Making

3. Electricity and Electronics:

- a. Fundamentals of Electricity
- b. Practical Electric Wiring
- c. Electrical Appliances
- d. Motors
- e. Communications
 - radio
 - TV
 - Telephone

II. Manufacturing and Construction

1. Ceramics:

- a. Print Enameling
- b. Ornamental Concrete Work
- c. Firing and Casting
- d. Casting
- e. Potters Wheels
- f. Modeling

2. Home Mechanics:

- a. Electrical Appliance repair
- b. Simple Plumbing Repair
- c. Minor Household Repairs
- d. Furniture Repair
- e. Concrete Work
- f. Finishing and Painting

3. Metal:

- a. Art Metal, Jewelry and Lapidary
- b. Ornamental Iron
- c. Sheet Metal
- d. Forge
- e. Foundry
- f. Welding
- g. Machine Shop
- h. Spinning

4. Leather:

- a. Leather Projects

5. Plastics:

- a. Fabrication
- b. Molding

6. Textiles:

- a. Weaving
- b. Fabric Decoration
- c. Dyeing
- d. Design Fabrics

7. Woodworking:

- a. Hand Woodworking
- b. Machine Woodworking
- c. Upholstery
- d. Wood Finishing

III. Power and Transportation

1. Auto Mechanics:
2. Aircraft Mechanics:
3. Diesel:
4. Two and Four Cycle Engines:
5. Turbines:
6. Jet Engines:
7. Bicycle Repair:

The characteristics of industrial arts education programs in Virginia were described by Mr. Gordon Fallensen as generally falling into one of two categories; either the isosceles concept, representative of the rural and small city programs and the equilateral concept, representative of larger city and highly populated counties.

In the isosceles concept the subjects in the rural and small cities began at the seventh or eighth grade with a broad general experience and expanded to pre-employment specialized experiences at the eleventh and twelfth grade levels. This type of program was most often found in the one-teacher comprehensive general shop. The same results were accomplished in schools with multiple laboratories by having the students receive their broad general experiences by rotating through several laboratories in the seventh and eighth grades and then later specialize in one laboratory.³⁴

Table 1

Class Experiences for Grade Level

Grade Level	Class Experience
12	Specific
11	Unit Experience
10	Unit General Experience
9	Direct General Experience
8	Broad General Experience

In the seventh and eighth grades, broad general experiences were provided. The recommended number of minimum weeks and areas were as follows: (1) Four areas to be taught in 18 weeks and metal and woodworking were required; (2) Three areas taught in 12 weeks with metal and woodworking required; and (3) Two areas taught in 9 weeks with metal wood required.

At this grade level students received experiences in a number of activities and for the most part projects were similar for all class members. The course work was primarily manipulative in nature and hand tools were used. Industrial arts education subjects were required of boys and an elective for girls. Programs were exploration of likes and dislikes, discovery of aptitudes, and investigation of tools, materials and processes of industry.³⁵ Program characteristics included (1) experiences in a number of activities; (2) class assignments were similar for class members; (3) short jobs, lessons or projects were more desirable; (4) course work was mostly manipulative in nature with hand tools used rather than power tools; (5) courses were required of all eighth grade boys; (6) students rotated through all areas with approximately the same time in each area; and (7) courses were open to girls.³⁶

In the ninth grade, direct general experiences occurred. Thirty-six weeks (five periods per week) in four areas were recommended. Students narrowed their exploration to a more concentrated area providing depth of training instead of breadth of training. A student may justifiably spend the entire year in general metal and take machine metal, bench metal, sheet metal, foundry, and welding. The student drew the plans for his project and learned to more efficiently use the tools and equipment in the industrial arts areas in which he was working. The program characteristics included the following: (1) Having enough coordination of hand and eye to be able to use some power equipment; (2) Students had a choice of shop projects or jobs; (3) The course included participation in three or more areas; (4) Emphasis was placed on drawing and planning; (5) Courses were on an elective basis; and (6) Courses were open for girls.³⁷

The tenth grade programs were recommended for a minimum of thirty six weeks and five period per day. The program characteristics included: (1) A year-long course which narrowed to more concentrated areas providing depth of training instead of breath of training; (2) A tenth grader who had not completed ninth grade industrial arts was placed in the ninth

grade section in order to receive the fundamentals of drawing and planning; and (3) Courses were open to girls.³⁸

In the eleventh and twelfth grades the activities became specific unit experiences, such as architectural drawing, auto mechanics, cabinetmaking, electricity, machine shop and others. The minimum time in weeks varied: seventy-two weeks and double period classes each school day when scheduling permitted or seventy-two weeks and single period classes each school day. The courses were more pre-employment in nature, especially in communities where trade and industrial education courses were not offered.³⁹

In the equilateral concept, as depicted by Fallensen, there was a balanced general education program. In the seventh, eighth and ninth grades students were given general experiences in as many areas as possible either in a comprehensive laboratory or multiple laboratories in the major industries of communications, manufacturing, construction, and power and transportation. Emphasis was placed on the student pursuing his interests through industrial occupational orientation and exploration within the medium of industrial organization, materials and processes.

During the tenth and eleventh grades the students

continued their experiences in a general unit area. It was in the twelfth grade that the students received a specific type of experience in an elected activity selected from the student's previous general unit experiences.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS OBJECTIVES

The industrial arts education programs in Virginia were guided by nine objectives. These objectives were incorporated into the state plan in 1948 to facilitate the curriculum planning around industrial problems and processes. Industrial arts was basically a shop or laboratory subject area and the objectives further defined the program's purpose and assisted in the selection of educational experiences for the curriculum. The nine objectives were as follows:

1. Interest in Industry. To develop in each pupil an active interest in industrial life and the methods and problems of production and exchange.
2. Appreciation and Use. To develop in each pupil an appreciation of good design and workmanship, and the ability to select, care for, and use industrial products wisely.
3. Self-Discipline and Initiative. To develop in each

pupil the habit of self-reliance, self-discipline, and resourcefulness in meeting practical situations.

4. Cooperative Attitudes. To develop in each pupil a readiness to assist others and to join happily in group undertakings.

5. Health and Safety. To develop in each pupil desirable habits and practices with respect to health and safety.

6. Interest and Achievement. To develop in each pupil a feeling of pride in his ability to do useful things and to develop worthwhile leisure time activities.

7. Orderly Performance. To develop in each student the habit of an orderly, complete, and efficient performance of any task.

8. Drawing and Design. To develop in each pupil an understanding of drawing and the ability to express ideas by means of drawing.

9. Shop Skills and Knowledge. To develop in each pupil a measure of skill in the use of common tools and machines, and an understanding of the problems involved in the common types of construction and repair.⁴⁰

COLORED PROGRAMS: 1951-1954

During the school years, of 1951-54, Preliminary Annual High School reports of each high school was submitted to the Department of Education and then reviewed and analyzed in terms of the accrediting standards.⁴¹ There was a decrease in the number of accredited schools reporting to the Department of Education from 1951 to 1954.

An average of 462 accredited public high schools and junior high schools in the state reported data. The average number of Negro schools amounted to 87, or 18% of the total number of accredited schools in the state, while the white schools made up 82% of the total state's enrollment.

Fifty-five percent of the Negro accredited schools offered some type of industrial arts education during the years of 1951-54. In comparison, 20% of the white schools were offering some type of industrial arts education. This suggested that the state's philosophy of industrial arts education under the direction of the division of trade and industrial education as pre-vocational, encouraged Negro schools more so than white schools to enroll their students into these programs. Industrial arts was pretty much preparatory

for students to go into vocational programs.⁴²

Negro schools divisions with accredited programs in the counties reported that 31% offered some type of industrial arts education and 70% of the divisions within the cities in the state provided instruction in industrial arts. Fifty percent of the white divisions in the county and 92% of the cities offered some type of industrial arts education. Thus the philosophy of "separate and unequal" appeared to be followed, in that a larger percentage of the Negro schools offered industrial arts; however, fewer programs were available in comparison to the white schools in the state.

Industrial arts education programs were costly to the local school division because special facilities were needed and there was no federal assistance for funding these programs and teachers' salaries. The state and local divisions financially supported all industrial arts education programs.

Three school divisions were unique because arrangements were made for Negro students to attend regional high schools. The Christiansburg Industrial Institute served the counties of Floyd, Pulaski, Montgomery, and Radford City.⁴³ The idea of a "regional high school" in Montgomery County took shape when Pulaski County, adjoining Montgomery, decided to do

away with its high school work for blacks and transport them to the Christiansburg Industrial Institute in the fall of 1939.⁴⁴ In 1947 the Christiansburg Industrial Institute was serving seventeen counties in the state, Washington, D.C., and the city of Radford.⁴⁵

George Washington Carver High School of Culpeper was jointly owned and operated by Culpeper, Madison, Orange, and Rappahannock Counties.⁴⁶ In many cases Negro students had no choice but to stay in the assigned living quarters or dormitory facilities during the school session (Monday through Friday) and at their home on the weekends because of the travelling distance from their homes to the school.

The Manassas Regional High School was operated by the counties of Fairfax, Fauquier, and Prince William. In 1894, the Manassas Industrial School was founded by Miss Jennie Dean.⁴⁷ Students came from all parts of the United States and Bermuda to enroll over the years. In the fall of 1949, a new vocational building was opened.⁴⁸ In 1953, Fauquier County withdrew its students to attend the new W.C. Taylor High School, for Negroes in Warrenton.⁴⁹ In June of 1954, Fairfax County withdrew its students to attend the new Luther P. Jackson High School in Merrifield, Virginia, for Negroes.⁵⁰

Table 2

SCHOOL DIVISIONS WITH INDUSTRIAL ARTS PROGRAMS

Race & Years

	1951-52		1952-53		1953-54	
	W	C	W	C	W	C
Co. Sch. Div.	51	29	49	30	52	31
City Sch. Div.	23	17	25	19	25	16

W = White Programs

C = Colored Programs

FUNDING

The industrial arts education programs as organized in the 1950s and 1960s were unique in a number of ways. First, the program was supervised by the division of trade and industrial education, however usually considered general education, more so than vocational or industrial education. Industrial arts was considered one of the non-vocational practical arts subjects and consequently not eligible for federal aid under the vocational education laws.⁵¹ Second, the programs were subsidized out of state funds through the division of trade and industrial education to support capital outlay and teacher salaries. Dr. Van Oot, past supervisor of trade and industrial education, stated that concerning state reimbursement of industrial arts teacher salaries:

For a number of years it has been the policy of the State Department of Trade and Industrial Education to reimburse a part of industrial arts instructors' salaries. The extent of this reimbursement is dependent upon the number of industrial arts classes taught and also on the grade level of these classes....This policy is based on one hundred dollars per class per year for all approved industrial arts activities offered in the junior and senior high school. A maximum of five hundred dollars is allowed within the limits of funds available. In no case are classes below the seventh grade reimbursed. ⁵²

Mr. George Swartz, who also served as a supervisor of trade and industrial education with the Department of Education, recalled that Dr. Van Oot wanted industrial arts education programs in the state so badly that he persuaded the state superintendent of instruction to provide funds for industrial arts programs. The superintendent appropriated state funds to the trade and industrial education budget for industrial arts programs....When I [Swartz] started teaching industrial arts he, [Van Oot] was reimbursing the local school superintendents one hundred dollars per class period for industrial arts teachers....I taught five periods each day and my salary was five hundred dollars more than an academic teacher."⁵³

Funds were allocated from local and state budgets to maintain industrial arts education programs in the state. Teacher salaries and capitol outlay were the primary budgetary items. The average cost of a secondary teacher's salary for each pupil in actual dollar amount for county schools amounted to \$141 for Negro schools and \$159 for white schools over the three year period. Programs in the city schools were more expensive to operate. The average city school per capital cost of salaries was \$158 for Negro schools and \$177 for white schools.

Most of the Negro industrial arts education programs were taught in the general comprehensive shop because it permitted a general instruction of subject matter and was more appropriate for the one teacher (industrial arts) school. Equipment was provided for instruction in sheet metal, ornamental iron, machine shop, casting and forging and general woodworking including, bench hand tool work, machine operation, wood turing, upholstery, finishing and carpentry, in a general shop.⁵⁴

Funds were allocated from state and local sources to maintain these programs. Table 3 describes how these funds were dispersed in average dollar amounts from local and state sources from 1951 to 1954. The data were gathered and analyzed from tentative reports of the director of trade and industrial education service on industrial arts classes or general shop, as so described by the director.

Local appropriation allowed for an average of \$26.35 per white student and \$20.67 per Negro pupil over the three years. Fewer funds were allotted to programs, school divisions and schools offering industrial arts to Negroes between these years in comparison to white programs. There was an increase from year to year in the four areas reviewed: programs,

school divisions, dollars per school, and dollars per students, with an exception in local dollars dispersed in 1953-54. The average dollar amount per Negro student enrolled in an industrial arts education program was \$2.32, down \$1.06 from the previous year, and \$3.14, down .85 per white student.

Table 3

AVERAGE ANNUAL FUNDS ALLOCATED TO MAINTAIN PROGRAMS

CATEGORY	STATE		LOCAL		TOTAL	
	W	C	W	C	W	C
Programs	\$412	\$362	\$2959	\$2273	\$3371	\$2635
Per School Division	\$10930	\$608	\$1520	\$3926	\$12450	\$4534
Per School	\$822	\$512	\$5726	\$3272	\$6548	\$3784
Per Student	3.79	3.31	26.35	20.67	30.14	23.98

W = White programs
C = Colored programs

ENROLLMENTS

Industrial arts education programs were available for boys and girls at all levels of instruction. It was socially accepted for girls to enroll in the home economic classes and boys in industrial arts. The ideal size of an industrial arts class was twenty.⁵⁴ A supervisor of industrial arts programs, recommended that "there should never be more pupils than work stations."⁵⁵

Negro county school divisions had an average of 58 students and the city school divisions averaged 254 students enrolled in some type of industrial arts class. Thirty-nine per cent of the total secondary Negro male enrollment, enrolled in an industrial arts class during the years of 1951-54. County divisions for white students averaged 179 students and the city divisions averaged 434 students over the three year period. Thirty-one per cent of the total secondary white male enrollment was enrolled in some type of industrial arts class.

The following table depicts the enrollment figures of colored industrial arts education programs from 1951 to 1954.

Table 4

AVERAGE ENROLLMENTS IN COUNTY AND CITY SCHOOLS

	Average Enrollments Per School					
	Race					
	1951-52		1952-53		1953-54	
	W	C	W	C	W	C
County Schools	169	61	168	56	200	56
City Schools	445	175	421	289	436	288

TEACHER CERTIFICATION

In the 1950s and 1960s the industrial arts teachers' salaries in Virginia were subsidized by state funds. Following World War II there was a shortage of teachers in the state, especially males. The most valid measure of this shortage appeared in the number of uncertified teachers who were used on the basis of local permits or emergency teachers' licenses. In 1951-52 there were 23,469 teachers employed in the state, of which 2,551 had sub-standard licenses.⁵⁶ In order to reduce the number of unqualified teachers in industrial arts, Dr. Van Oot negotiated a plan with the state superintendent of instruction. Funds were appropriated to the division of trade and industrial education to subsidize industrial arts teachers salaries. As mentioned earlier, industrial arts teachers' pay was supplemented one hundred dollars for every class period taught.⁵⁷

The State Department of Education assigned the responsibility of teacher certification to the office of teacher education. Responsibilities included the preparation and revision of state certification regulation, and issuing of new certificates and the renewing of certificates.

In order to teach industrial arts education in the public schools, "you needed to have a broad scholastic and cultural background, be a good craftsman, and have graduated from an accredited university or college with a major in industrial arts education."⁵⁸ For endorsement to teach industrial arts in Virginia, the instructor needed to complete thirty semester hours from at least two of the following major areas: (1) Communications (Drawing and Design, Graphic Arts, Electricity and Electronic, and the like); (2) Manufacturing and Construction (Woodworking, Metalworking, Plastics, Textile, Ceramics, and the like); and (3) Power and Transportation (Aeronautics, Automotive, Marine, Hydraulics, Mechanics, Chemical and the like).⁵⁹

The most common certificate held by colored and white teachers was the Collegiate Professional. This certificate was issued to the holder of a baccalaureate degree conferred by a standard university, teachers college, or technical college, to a candidate who had completed at least nine college session hours in teacher training courses.⁶⁰ The Collegiate Professional Certificate was issued for ten years and was renewable and subject to regulations for renewal.

The Collegiate Professional degree was a ten-year

renewable certificate which was granted to an applicant who had earned a baccalaureate degree from an accredited college or university and had completed the general requirements (including general education), professional education, and specific endorsement requirements.

The colored industrial arts teachers in Virginia received their training from Hampton Institute, in Hampton, Virginia State College, in Petersburg, Norfolk Division of Virginia State College, in Norfolk, and Saint Paul's College in Lawrenceville.

Before the 1953-54 school year ended, a major decision from the federal level would be enacted. The Supreme Court handed down a monumental judgment that impacted education in the state for many years to follow.

Chapter 2 Endnotes

1. Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the Commonwealth of Virginia: School Year 1951-1952, No. 3, Vol. XXXV (Richmond: Commonwealth of Virginia Division of Purchase and Printing, 1952), p. 21. Hereafter cited as Annual Report: 1904, 1951-52, 1952-53, 1953-54.
2. Statement by George Swartz, former Supervisor of Trade and Industrial Education, in a personal interview, April 17, 1985.
3. Annual Report, 1951-52, p. 96.
4. Roy W. Roberts, Vocational and Practical Arts Education: History, Development, and Principles, 2nd ed. (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1965), p. 425.
5. Jewell K. Samples, "The Industrial Arts Program As Organized In Virginia" (MA Thesis: The University of Tennessee, 1948), p. 11.
6. Ibid., p. 14.
7. William T. Baxter, "Status of Industrial Arts In Virginia" (MA Thesis: George Peabody College For Teachers, 1931) p. 17.
8. Annual Report, 1904 p. 17.
9. Ibid., p. 13.
10. Henry S. Rorer, History of Norfolk Public Schools: 1681-1968, Library of Congress Catalogue Number 77-206, 1968, p. 34.
11. Ibid., p. 34.
12. Ibid., p, 34.
13. W. R. Miller, "Evolution of Industrial Arts in the Elementary School Curriculum," Industrial Arts Education: Retrospect, Prospect, Twenty-eighth Yearbook of the American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education, ed. G. E. Martin (Bloomington: McKnight Publishing Company, 1979), pp. 43-59.

14. W. R. Hoots, "Philosophical Positions", Industrial Arts for the Elementary School. Twenty-third Yearbook of the American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education, ed. R.G. Thrower (Bloomington: McKnight, 1974), p. 222.

15. H. Clay Houchens, "Report of Director of Manual Training", Richmond Public Schools, 1921-22, p. 62.

16. Gorden Fallensen, "The Status and Growth of Industrial Arts in Virginia", (paper presented as a project requirement for Ed. 1607, Dr. J. A. Rorer, 1957-58).

17. Annual Report, 1923-24, p. 64.

18. Virginia Industrial Arts Association, "Industrial Arts in Seventy-Six" (Prince William County: Garfield High School, 1976), p. 4.

19. Personal interview with George Swartz, April 17, 1985.

20. George E. Wallace, "Benjamin Henry Van Oot: A leader in Industrial Education to Retire," Ties, no. IX (May, 1956), pp. 1-3.

21. Virginia Industrial Arts Handbook, Tentative Edition, 1948, p. vii.

22. Ibid. p. vii.

23. Personal interview with George Swartz, April 17, 1985.

24. Roberts op. cit., p. 6.

25. Statement by H. E. Gwatmey, former Industrial Arts Teacher, Richmond City Schools, in a personal interview, April 19, 1986.

26. American Vocational Association, "A Guide to Improving Instruction in Industrial Arts" (Washington, D. C.: Industrial Arts Policy and Planning Committee, 1953). Hereafter cited as AVA.

27. Industrial Arts Education: Purposes, Program, Facilities, Instruction, Supervision (Washington, D.C.: American Industrial Arts

Association, 1969), p. 6.

28. AVA op. cit.

29. Ibid.

30. Ibid.

31. Course Outlines For Industrial Arts, Industrial Arts Bulletin No. 1 (Richmond: The State Board of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Trade and Industrial Education Service, August, 1952), p. 10. Hereafter cited as Course Outlines For Industrial Arts.

32. Statement by Vernard Butler, former Industrial Arts Teacher, Martinsville City Schools, in a personal interview, November 23, 1985.

33. Gordon H. Fallensen, Plan For State Supervision of Industrial Arts In Virginia: 1957-1958, Ed. 160R, Dr. J. A. Rorer (Manual presented as a class project; no pages specified).

34. Ibid.

35. Ibid.

36. Course Outlines For Industrial Arts, p. 10.

37. Fallensen, op. cit.

38. Course Outlines For Industrial Arts, p. 10.

39. Ibid., p. 10.

40. Fallensen, op. cit.

41. Annual Report, 1951-52, p. 32.

42. Personal Interview with George Swartz, April 18, 1985.

43. Annual Report, 1951-52. p. 235.

44. Ann Swain, "Christiansburg Institute: From Freeman's Bureau Enterprise to Public High School" (Masters thesis: Radford University, 1975) p. 229.

45. Swain, op. cit., p.238.

46. Annual Report, 1953-54. p. 239.
47. Jennie Dean Echo: Vol. No. 1 (November 1962), p. 1.
48. Ibid.
49. Manassas Regional High School: Handbook of Information (Manassas, Virginia, 1954-55) p. 1.
50. Ibid.
51. Roberts, op. cit., pp. 10-12.
52. Annual Report, 1951-52, pp. 257-263; and Descriptive Report Trade and Industrial Service (Richmond: State Board of Education, 1951).
53. Fallensen, op. cit.
54. Virginia Industrial Arts Handbook, op. cit. p. 8.
55. Fallensen, op. cit.
56. Annual Report, 1951-52, p. 263.
57. Personal interview with George Swartz, April 17, 1986.
58. Fallensen, op. cit.
59. Certification Regulations For Teachers, State Board of Education, February, 1958.
60. Samples, op. cit., p. 48.

Chapter 3

THE BROWN INFLUENCE ON INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION

PROGRAMS: 1954-1959

VIRGINIA'S REACTION

The United States Supreme Court decision in Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, 347 U.S. 483 (1954), ruling that racial segregation in the public schools violated the Fourteenth Amendment, sent shock waves across the state of Virginia. The decision declared

that in the field of public education the doctrine of "separate but equal" has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal. Therefore, we hold that the plaintiffs, and others similarly situated for whom the actions have been brought are, by reason of the segregation complained of, deprived of the equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the Fourteenth Amendment.¹

This judicial first step was viewed by many Virginians as a full-scale attack by the federal government on the segregated society of the South. The Brown decision had reversed a fifty-eight year old judgment (Plessy v. Ferguson, 163 U.S. 537, [1896]) that had legitimized racial segregation in America.

Virginia's initial reaction to the landmark decision was considered mild. Leadership against this legal decision came primarily from a well-lubricated political machine with a concentration of power in a

bloc of territory called the Southside.

Virginia's direct reaction to the Brown decision originated from the Southside, also referred to as the black belt territory, which reached from Lynchburg to Norfolk. In thirty counties in southern and eastern Virginia, the Negro population constituted over 40 percent of the total population. In this area racial prejudice was deeply rooted. Any sizable black population was considered and treated as a threat. Changes to the education and social communities were regarded as too impossible to be seriously discussed. After all, the Southside section was not common of the state as a whole, and all the people in these thirty counties, both white and colored, represented less than 15 percent of the inhabitants of the state.

Yet it is important to note the political power that existed out of this proportion of the population. Several factors combined to give the Southside a dominant role in Virginia politics. First, the proportion of white Southsiders voting continually exceeded the remainder of the state. Second, the vote was overwhelmingly conservative. Third, the Southside's representatives in the General Assembly served more years because of the consensus. As a result, they usually received the most influential committee

assignments which was furthered by their over-representation in the General Assembly.² In addition, the black belt was well represented in the hierarchy of the Democratic party, producing a bumper crop of governors.³ Between 1945 and 1969, four of Virginia's governors came from the black belt.

Virginia's response to the desegregation decision was guided by one of America's most powerful political machines, the Byrd organization, under the leadership of Senator Harry F. Byrd. While the Byrd organization certainly had strength throughout the state, much of its following was located in the Southside.

When, on May 17, 1954, the Supreme Court handed down its momentous decision, the initial reaction in Virginia was astonishingly mild, but changed rapidly. Dowell J. Howard, the superintendent of Public Instruction, said to the press: "There will be no defiance of the Supreme Court as far as I am concerned. We are trying to teach children to abide by the law of the land, and we will abide by it."⁴ Senator Harry F. Byrd promptly denounced the decision as "the most serious blow that has yet struck against the rights of the states in a manner vitally affecting their authority and welfare."⁵ State Attorney General J. Lindsay Almond, Jr., who had argued the state's case

before the Supreme Court, said, "The highest court in the land has spoken and I trust that Virginia will approach the question realistically and endeavor to work out some rational adjustment."⁶ In Norfolk, J.J. Brewbaker, Superintendent of City Schools said, "I am not surprised at the decision, and while I didn't know what to expect, it is in line with what one would expect. We are being given time, and it will not be too difficult to work out [terms of the decision] in Norfolk....Our main concern is that it [the decision] be looked at calmly and without emotion, and that we don't let our feelings get in the way....Adjustment to the decision, I think, will be more difficult in other places than Norfolk."⁷ Governor Thomas Bahnson Stanley claimed that he was seeking a plan which would be acceptable to all citizens. In a statement issued a few hours after the Supreme Court decision was announced, Stanley said:

I am confident the people of Virginia will receive the opinion of the Supreme Court calmly and take time to carefully and dispassionately consider the situation before coming to conclusions on steps which should be taken....It had been hoped that provisions of our State Constitution...would be upheld, but the court came to a different conclusion....I contemplate no precipitate action, but I shall call together as quickly as practicable representatives of both state and local governments to consider the matters and work toward a plan which will be acceptable to our citizens and in keeping with the edict of the

court.⁸

Governor Stanley soon changed his course of action when it became apparent that the political leadership of the state had no intention of implementing the new constitutional mandate. Within days the governor's office was deluged with hundreds of letters, some expressing fears of race-mixing and charging Communist plots. The view of many Virginians was expressed by Garland Gray in a letter to Stanley, in which Gray warned the governor about the consequences of any delay by Virginia's leaders in expressing their displeasure with the Brown decision. The result, he said, would be that "our people may be slowly pushed into a position of accepting the decision of the Supreme Court." The stake in the issue for the Southside, he continued, was "our culture and racial purity," since desegregation would lead "to intermarriage between the races."⁹ Several weeks later, Stanley took a firmer stand against the Brown decision by announcing, "I shall use every legal means at my command to continue segregated schools in Virginia."¹⁰

In late May of that year the State Board of Education instructed local school boards to continue segregation during the 1954-55 academic year. The State

Board quoted an opinion from Attorney General Almond in which he expressed his belief that, "pending a final adjudication, the constitution and statutes of Virginia requiring segregated public schools remain intact and unimpaired, imbued with full legal vitality and efficacy."¹¹

The immediate impact of the constitutional ruling was somewhat softened when the Supreme Court postponed issuing any specific orders for implementation until the states had an opportunity, in further argument, to make suggestions regarding implementation.¹² The decision to postpone the decree led to the unusual situation where the Supreme Court delayed the enforcement of a constitutional right. Fear of widespread evasion of an immediate order plus some sympathy for the difficulty in changing traditional racial patterns accounted for the delay.¹³ Relieved that the implementation of the Brown decision was postponed for at least a year, Virginians against the ruling were allowed the opportunity to rally their forces. The Richmond Times-Dispatch viewed the ruling to postpone immediate school desegregation this way:

Virginia and the other 16 states with segregated public schools have reason for relative gratification over yesterday's unanimous Supreme Court decision granting them a maximum amount of flexibility within the framework of the court's ruling in 1954

outlawing separate schools.... The court might have been shortsighted enough to have ordered integration everywhere by the opening of the next school session in September, or it might have made September, 1956, the deadline. Instead, it ignored the pleas of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored people, and directed that segregation be ended "as soon as possible."¹⁴

Within a very short period of time the majority of white Virginians were thoroughly aroused against any racial integration. The Richmond News Leader polled its readers in 1955 and established that 92 percent of the whites favored segregation, while only 6 percent opposed the practice.¹⁵ It was the belief of this majority that race relations in Virginia were fine and Negroes had nothing to complain about. This same majority believed that the Negro had, nevertheless, been considered wards of the state. As a result, white Virginians reminded the state's colored citizens that white money paid for Negro schools, and by creating ill will, the warning continued, Negroes only jeopardized black education.¹⁶

A few months following the Supreme Court's decision prominent citizens and legislators from the Southside gathered and formed an organization to insist on a continuance of public school segregation. These leaders gave their organization the resounding name of "Defenders of State Sovereignty and Individual

Liberties." The Defenders were larger and more powerful than any other resistance group of its kind in the upper South and played a major role in the drama of defiance in the Old Dominion.¹⁷ Under the leadership of its president, Robert B. Crawford of Farmville, the Defenders became a potent lobby for segregation in the late 1950s. The organization's charter declared its objective to be the defense of state rights "by all honorable and lawful means."¹⁸ The chapter's enrollment grew to about 12,000 by the end of 1956, with active local chapters in all sections of the state, but their real strength concentrated in rural counties of the Southside. The Defenders maintained a state headquarters in Richmond and published a monthly newsletter entitled Defenders' News and Views, which stressed the high crime rate among Negroes, racial friction in integrated northern schools, and a broad theme of northern hypocrisy on the race question.

Other segregationist organizations followed the Defenders and some would dissolve after a few months; others would survive with modest memberships. The list includes the National Protective Individual Rights, Inc., the Virginia League, the Crusaders for Constitutional Government, the Seaboard White Citizens Council and several plain White Citizens Councils. Some

of the ideas or plans set forth by the organizations ranged from the closing of public schools, advocated by the Defenders, to privately-owned, state-operated schools, urged by the Virginia League.

Integrationists in the state were few and far between and virtually powerless. What little active integrationist sentiment that appeared among whites was generally found among ministers, social workers, and college professors. On February 22, 1955, the bi-racial Virginia Council on Human Relations (VCHR) was formed, to promote friendship between the races and to reduce race tension, racial misunderstanding and racial distrust. The temporary chairman was the Reverend W. Carroll Brooke, rector of Trinity Episcopal Church in Staunton. He stated that the council was to be "an educational group" and would be involved in "no political activity."¹⁹ Activities would involve small bi-racial discussion groups on the community level and in the words of the council's leaflet, "workshops, program planning, personal consultation, speakers, books, printed materials and other such educational methods."²⁰ The members of the Council on Human Relations soon realized they could not address the state's number one political issue and at the same time not be political. In the fall of 1955, the VCHR

recommended a proposed school adjustment program of Virginia.²¹ It suggested the establishment of county and city inter-racial study groups and an inter-racial state commission. It asked that joint meetings be held of white and Negro school principals, teachers, and leaders of Parent-Teachers Associations, and that these groups, commissions, and meetings seek to build better inter-racial understanding.²²

More directly related to achieving desegregation in schools was the action of the Virginia Conference of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). In the early thirties the NAACP had joined with individual Negro students in attacking the effects of segregated public education at the graduate and professional level. By 1950 the association extended its support to all levels of public education,²³ thereby changing its legal strategy. Instead of pursuing equalization suits, the NAACP changed its entire legal effort on abolishing segregated schools.²⁴ A group of Negro lawyers of the NAACP organized into a legal staff under the direction of Oliver W. Hill to support this effort. In the northern and southwestern counties in Virginia, the case for desegregated schools was strong, since Negro children were forced to leave their own counties to

receive an education in regional Negro schools.²⁵ Negro lawyers were convinced that an equal education could not be obtained in segregated black schools-- even in those counties where there was equalization of physical facilities--which they (Negro lawyers) viewed as damaging to the white community's view that black schools and their graduates were inferior. The NAACP went on the offensive by authorizing local branches of the association to petition local school boards for the admission of Negro students to previously segregated schools.²⁶ The first concrete action by the NAACP was a suit against Prince Edward County, which directly attacked the concept of segregated schools. The plea did not seek to force the county to equalize the school system for Negroes, though in 1951 the Negro school was woefully inferior to its white counterpart.²⁷ The NAACP sought total elimination of segregation in the public schools on the grounds that children in a segregated school could not truly receive an equal education.²⁸

THE GRAY COMMISSION

The first state-supported reaction to the Brown decision came when Governor Stanley appointed a committee of 32 members of the General Assembly on August 3, 1954, to study the impact of the Supreme Court's ruling on desegregation and to make recommendations to the General Assembly. The committee became known as the Gray Commission, named in honor of its chairman, the Honorable Garland Gray. The governor may have had preconceived outcomes of the committee when appointing Senator Gray as chairman. Two months prior to the appointment the senator had met with a group of leaders in his district at the Petersburg fire house and declared themselves "unalterably opposed" to racial integration in the schools.²⁹ Gray was a wealthy Fourth District leader and prominent Byrd organization politician, who was often mentioned as a possible candidate for governor.³⁰

Two preliminary reports were submitted to Governor Stanley from the Gray commission. The first, dated January 19, 1955, stated that:

The overwhelming majority of the people of Virginia are not only opposed to integration of the white and Negro children of the state, but are firmly convinced that integration of the public school system without due regard to the convictions of the majority of the

people...would virtually destroy or seriously impair the public system in many sections in Virginia....The welfare of the public school system is based on the support of the people who provide the revenues which maintain it, and unless that system is operated in accordance with the convictions of the people who pay the costs, it cannot survive...In view of the foregoing, I have been directed to report that the Commission, working with its counsel, will explore avenues toward formulation of a program, within the framework of law, designed to prevent enforced integration of the races in the public schools of Virginia.³¹

The recommendation was based on an analysis of opinion derived from a public hearing, "communications" with the governor, conversations with the people, and "actions" taken by school boards and boards of supervisors. It was believed that the opinions accepted were biased and the recommendation was made to appease most white Virginians who opposed integration. Six months earlier Senator Gray had publicly declared himself "unalterably opposed" to racial integration in the public schools. A second preliminary report was submitted to the governor on June 10, 1955 and concluded:

Because of the many complex statutory changes involved and the necessity to consider many of them in the light of the Constitution of Virginia, it has not yet been possible for the Commission to work out appropriate legislation. Meanwhile both local school authorities and the State Board of Education face the necessity of concluding and announcing plans for the 1955-56 school

year.... It is recommended...that it is the policy of the State to continue schools through the school year 1955-56 as presently operated.³²

The Gray Report was released on November 11, 1955, to Governor Stanley. Neither enforced segregation nor enforced integration was advocated by the commission. The commission's basic recommendations were three:

(1) To establish a system of tuition grants from public funds to aid children who might attend private schools as an escape from public school integration. Localities lacking a public school system would be permitted to raise funds through taxation for the payment of tuition grants and for transportation costs to school children, and that the localities be permitted to use their share of state funds for the same purpose. It was proposed that public funds be made available, on the one hand, to all children in a locality choosing to close its public schools, or, on the other hand, to any child whose parents rejected the notion of integration in a locality which might choose to operate integrated schools.

(2) That local school boards be given broad discretion in the matter of pupil assignment, and that such factors as availability of facilities, health, aptitude of the child and the availability of transportation be considered. Assignment would be based upon the welfare and best interests of all other pupils attending a particular school. Though based on criteria other than race, the recommendation was designed to keep to a minimum the enrollment of Negroes in white schools.

(3) An amendment of the compulsory attendance law to provide that no child could be required to attend an integrated school.³³

The most controversial aspect of the Gray Plan was the call for tuition grants.³⁴ In order to enact tuition grants it was necessary to amend Section 141 of

the Virginia Constitution, which prohibited the grant of public funds to non-state schools. To the surprise of many, the apprehensions of the public were in marked contrast to the enthusiasm of political leaders for the tuition grant plan.³⁵ A large number of citizens were unwilling to accept a program which seemed to jeopardize public education merely to prevent some degree of school integration. These citizens agreed with State Senator Ted Dalton and Armstead Boothe, who feared that tuition grants would be the first step in a move to dismantle public schools.³⁶ The efforts of Dalton and Boothe were supported by the NAACP and the Virginia Council of Human Relations. On the other side, the Byrd organization and the Defenders of State Sovereignty strongly supported the tuition grant amendment. The General Assembly, summoned into a special session in late November, promptly ordered a popular referendum for January 9, 1956, on whether to call a limited constitutional convention to act on the issue of tuition grants. Only six legislators, among them Dalton and Boothe, voted against holding the referendum.³⁷ The referendum for calling the convention easily passed. This was considered a clear victory for the Gray commission and its supporters.

The recommendations of the commission were

considered moderate by Mr. Byrd, with its stress on "local control and its acceptance of some racial integration....The recommendations were not considered the answers to Virginia's problems from Mr. Byrd's point of view, who would settle for nothing less than a mandate for total resistance."³⁸ Pictured in its broadest context the Gray Plan was a compromise between resistance and adjustment which did not follow the state's reaction pattern toward the Brown decision. By the time the convention assembled to adopt the tuition grant amendment, Virginia had already entered a new phase of defiance.

MASSIVE RESISTANCE

The State of Virginia led the Southern Region in its search for legal means of avoiding the impact of the Brown decision on desegregation in the public schools. Virginia had advised a program described by its moving force, U. S. Senator Harry Byrd, as a program of "massive resistance." Its philosophy considered successive safeguards against desegregation of Virginia's public schools. When one plan to delay was defeated, another would replace it. The search for the perfect segregation law brought out the "southern gentleman" in some of Virginia's leading citizens.

The rise of James J. Kilpatrick, who appeared on the scene in 1949 as editor of the Richmond Times-Leader, played a significant role in setting the state's agenda for segregationists. Most of the newspapers more or less followed the influential Kilpatrick's lead. Kilpatrick and Byrd shared an intimate friendship and frequently corresponded on political issues.³⁹ The News Leader, which greeted the Supreme Court decision with a conciliatory editorial and a suggested compliance, changed its attitude quickly to one of hostility.⁴⁰ By October 1955 it had become probably the most resounding voice

of resistance in the Southern press.⁴¹ Mr. Kilpatrick endorsed a local option and private education plan as a suitable solution to the school problem. He thought that, "given enough time, a great part of the problem... especially in the cities...could be handled by the relocation of school buildings, and the gerrymandering of enrollment lines."⁴²

Mr. Kilpatrick was instrumental in undermining total support to the moderate Gray Plan with his interposition campaign. He (Kilpatrick) launched an editorial campaign which aroused a sense of pride or lack of it in Virginians. Asserting that a state had a right to interpose its sovereignty, under certain circumstances, as a challenge and check against encroachment by the Federal government upon reserved powers of the States.⁴³ His intentions were to create a rallying cry of some sort in the southern states, a plea to arouse the region in common action so that the Supreme Court would be faced with a serious problem in enforcing its orders.⁴⁴ The campaign did raise the state's rights question so dear to the hearts of many Virginia conservatives, supporting and encouraging the belief that racial integration could be avoided. Portraying the school issue as a grave constitutional crisis, Kilpatrick urged that Virginia's last resort

was the "right of interposition." This opened the door for Virginia's next move in the integration crisis. Byrd issued his fateful call for massive resistance.⁴⁵

The calls of massive resistance and interposition quickly moved the Gray Plan into an alternate strategy. Since its initial recommendation, attitudes of Virginia's majority had hardened towards the issue of race relations. Some blamed the aggressive attitude of the NAACP and Negro leaders towards the state's obligation to abide by the law. This attitude was summed up by Oliver Hill, an attorney for the Virginia Conference of the NAACP, and Lester Banks, the executive secretary of the NAACP who showed frustration in Virginia's tactics to avoid compliance with the Supreme court's ruling. Mr. Hill wrote, "If no plans are announced or taken by the time school begins this fall...the time for law suits has arrived...only in this way does the mandate of the Supreme Court...become fully operative."⁴⁶ Mr. Banks continued by stating, "It is the immediate job of our branches to see to it that each school board begins to deal with the problem of providing non-discriminatory education."⁴⁷

Virginia's move to massive resistance soon made its impact on the state and the nation. In March of 1956, southern congressmen and senators led by Mr. Byrd,

adopted a so-called "Southern Manifesto" pledging themselves "to use all legal means" to reverse the Brown decision. Virginia's congressional delegation gave the manifesto unanimous support.⁴⁸ The Richmond Times Dispatch wrote, "the General Assembly voted...90 to 5 in the House, 36-2 in the Senate...to interpose Virginia's State sovereignty in challenge to an illegal encroachment upon state rights by the United States Supreme Court."⁴⁹

This prompted a variety of proposals intended to forestall the integration of schools. The General Assembly approved a resolution introduced by Samuel E. Pope, to prevent interscholastic or intramural athletic competition between the races. Donald R. Richberg suggested that the General Assembly assume "direct responsibility" for the operation of the public schools, reasoning that such state control would permit the Eleventh Amendment to function as a bar to integration suits.⁵⁰ In early March, the General Assembly voted to amend Section 141 of the Virginia Constitution, permitting the General Assembly and local governing bodies "to appropriate public funds for Virginia students in public and non-sectarian private schools."⁵¹ The massive resisters, through Kilpatrick's editorials, emphasized that the Brown

decision was not only a bad decision, but part of a trend which threatened "the whole concept of this Union, (of which) the greatest feature of its architecture, was the concept of dual sovereignty."⁵² Thus, the defense of constitutional government, as interpreted by the states, superseded Virginia's obligation to public education or to obey the law. These proposals revealed a movement away from the concept of local option to establishing policies aimed at no integration of Virginia's public schools.

On August 27, 1956 Governor Stanley called the General Assembly into special session to debate how best to counter the Supreme Court decree. Reversing himself again, Stanley rejected local option and outlined his plan to prevent integration by proposing to deny state appropriations to any integrated schools. Fund cutoff was to be complemented by a proposal to provide tuition grants for students who wished to attend private, non-sectarian schools. In addition, a pupil-placement board was approved to assign all pupils in the state according to so-called "non-racial" criteria. During the House debate, Howard H. Adams, chief patron of the Stanley Bill, urged the delegates to support the governor because, "It is our duty and responsibility to see that our racial purity and

distinctiveness is maintained at all costs....Our country can remain the world leader it is in no other way."⁵³ The special session also passed legislation which helped individuals and communities to move from public to private education by requiring state and local governments to provide funds for students seeking to enroll in private non-sectarian schools. Once the final integration order was entered, the laws required the governor to seize and close any school threatened with integration. The governor would therefore attempt reopening those schools on a segregated basis. The resisters hoped that the governor could persuade Negro students to withdraw voluntarily or, this failing, that the governor might eliminate from the school those grades or subjects to which racial integration was directed.⁵⁴ If necessary, a local school district could decide to open or reopen the affected school and operate it under an integrated program however, state funds would be cut off.

The 1956 Extra Session enacted into state law a systematic program of segregation legislation or "massive resistance." It was approved and signed into law on September 29, 1956. The major provisions were these:

1. Chapter 71 of these enactments provided that "... no public elementary or secondary schools in

which white and colored children are mixed and taught shall be entitled to or shall receive any funds from the State Treasury for their operation. This Chapter stated that funds are provided only for "efficient schools" as one in which there is no racial integration of pupils."

2. Chapter 56 provided that amounts withheld from local school authorities by the operation of Chapter 71 "...shall be available to such county, city or town for the furtherance of the public education of children of such county, city or town in non-sectarian private schools" and for the payment of salaries and wages of school personnel.

3. Chapter 62 authorized local boards to transfer and spend school funds in the form of grants to pupils attending private, non-sectarian schools.

4. Chapter 70 listed "...all power of enrollment or placement of pupils in, and determination of sets of school attendance districts for the public schools in Virginia" in a Pupil Placement Board, thereby divesting local school boards and division superintendents "... of all authority now or at any future time to determine the school to which any child should be admitted." This Board would consist of three members appointed by the Governor, with terms to expire at the end of the Governor's term of office. (This was later amended so that Board members would serve at the pleasure of the Governor.) Chapter 70 also established criteria to guide the Board in its assignment of pupils. These criteria included the effects of assignment on the efficiency of school operation; the health and aptitude of the child; the availability of facilities and transportation; disparities in physical and mental ages; "sociological, psychological and like intangible social scientific factors"; and dangers to the public peace and tranquility of each school district. (As amended on March 13, 1958, the Board was instructed to make assignments based on the orderly administration of public schools, standards of competent instruction, and the health, safety and general welfare of concerned pupils.)

5. Chapter 68 announced it to be the public policy of the state of Virginia to require segregation in the public schools. It required that "...the Commonwealth of Virginia assumes direct responsibility for the control of any school...to which children of

both races are assigned and enrolled by any school authority acting voluntarily or under compulsion of any court order," and that "...such school is closed and is removed from the public school system," with full control over it assumed by the Governor. As later amended, this act gave the Governor discretion to return the school to local control but without state funds upon request from local officials.⁵⁵

In 1957, Virginia elected Lindsay Almond to the Governor's seat. Almond had received the endorsement of Mr. Byrd, because it was his time--his dues had been paid to the organization, so to say. The General Assembly met in regular session in January 1958 for the first time since the massive resistance laws were enacted in 1956. As a result of this session, the "Little Rock" bill was passed, providing for the automatic closing of any public school patrolled by United States military forces, authorizing the governor, at his discretion, to close all schools in a district where a school was policed by federal authority. The powers of the Pupil Placement Board were broadened, and the governor's jurisdiction over closed schools was widened by an amendment requiring both the local governing body and the local school board to join in petitioning the governor to return a closed school to local operation.⁵⁶ This supportive action by the General Assembly moved the concept of massive resistance into high tide.

The public schools completed the 1957-58 academic year without racial integration, but it became apparent that Norfolk, Charlottesville, and Arlington would face court orders to desegregate in September, because of cases presented by the NAACP to the federal courts. The showdown did not occur in either of the aforementioned cities, as Norfolk and Charlottesville repeatedly postponed the first day of school. Arlington opened its school doors on a segregated basis pending an appeal. The test to the massive resistance legislation came from Warren County, a rural area in northwest Virginia which did not maintain a Negro High School. Warren had a population of 15,000, which included approximately 1,200 Negroes. The Negro students were educated away from home in two neighboring counties. Although the practice of educating Negro students in Warren County had been outlawed before the ruling of the Brown decision, the federal courts ordered the admission of Negro students to the publicly supported high school. A few days later the Governor ordered a directive that "Warren County High School was closed and removed from the public school system," and vested all authority over the school in himself.⁵⁷ The doors to Warren County schools were closed by the governor, and shortly thereafter the same occurred in Norfolk and

Charlottesville.

The school closings meant that the Almond administration would have to find a politically sound method of reopening the schools. The method called for a test suit before the Virginia Supreme Court of Appeals against the tuition grant plan and the school closing legislation. This decision by Almond showed his lack of confidence in the constitutionality of massive resistance. Not expecting a favorable verdict the governor thought that most Virginians would accept the verdict of the state's highest court on massive resistance and, by utilizing the school closing law, the tuition grant plan could be implemented, as the state would move into the direction of private school operation. To make matters worse for the governor, a group of white citizens in Norfolk also filed suit in federal court to invalidate the school closing laws and Mr. Byrd disapproved of the governor's plan. Almond simply had no confidence in the legal efficacy of any type of reorganization designed to preserve segregation and had no definite plans in the wake of school closings.⁵⁸

A light at the end of the tunnel appeared, however, as it became clear that white children would also suffer from massive resistance. The Virginia Committee

for Public Schools symbolized the views of moderates and liberals on the issue of preservation of public schools, even at the price of integration. The Virginia Education Association passed a resolution by a 4-1 margin which expressed "grave concern" over the school closings and asked for a special legislative assembly which would "assure the continued operation of the Virginia public schools as the state-supported function."⁵⁹ By mid-October most of the Virginia press had turned against massive resistance.⁶⁰ In January 1959 the Charlottesville City Council unanimously adopted a resolution favoring "a minimum of integration" rather than closed schools.⁶¹

On the other hand, Virginia resisters were still vocal against any form of public school integration. Even though their schools were closed and white children were being taught in overcrowded conditions, four thousand residents of Charlottesville signed a petition urging support of Almond's firm stand.⁶³ Such politically potent organizations as the Local Government Official Conference, the League of Virginia Counties, the Virginia Farm Bureau, the executive committee of the Virginia Department of the American Legion, the City Democratic Committee of Richmond, and the executive committee of Young Democratic Clubs of

Virginia produced a virtual flood of endorsements in favor of massive resistance.⁶⁴

The governor received a much-needed endorsement when a sampling of public opinion was taken in Norfolk as the City Council asked the voter sentiment on whether a return of local operation in the schools should be requested. The Norfolk referendum was initiated when the Norfolk School Board asked the City Council to request Governor Almond to return control of the school to the locality for the purpose of operating integrated schools. The City Council decided instead to hold a public referendum as permitted by law.⁶⁵ The question before the voters was this: "Shall the council of the city of Norfolk, pursuant to the state law, petition the governor to return to the city control of schools, now closed, to be opened by the city on an integrated basis as required by the federal court?"⁶⁶ On the ballot underneath this question the following statement appeared:

For information only: In the event the closed schools are returned to the city of Norfolk, and are reopened integrated by the city, it will be necessary, because of the lack of state funds, for every family having a child or children in public schools from which state funds are withheld, to pay to the city a substantial tuition for each child in or entering such public school.⁶⁷

Influences which cracked the back of the "massive

resistance movement" prevailed through a series of unexpected setbacks. First, on January 21, 1958, the courts decided in favor of the NAACP, ruling that the 1956 legislation requiring the NAACP to disclose its membership was prohibited by the First, Fifth, and Fourteenth Amendments.⁶⁸ The three-judge federal district court, held that the legislation was a part of Virginia's plan to massive resistance to the Brown decision.⁶⁹ Judge Morris Soper, who wrote the majority opinion, was especially critical of Virginia's attempt to identify the names of NAACP financial contributors or fund raisers. He believed that the attempt to damage the financial ability of the NAACP to support litigation was possibly the most important part of Virginia's plan to prevent desegregation.

Second, on February 10, 1958, Senator Harry Byrd announced that he would not run for re-election. Byrd's letter to the General Assembly plunged that body into deep gloom and without a dissenting vote the legislators adopted a resolution urging Byrd to reconsider.⁷⁰ After careful consideration of the supportive efforts needed by his Democratic Party in the fight for massive resistance, the senator decided to stand for re-election.

Third, on August 29, 1958, the Norfolk School Board

announced that it would assign 17 Negroes to white schools in September of that year. This action, considered the lesser of undesirable decisions, was prompted when Judge Walter E. Hoffman told the Norfolk School Board that racial isolation or the expectation of racial disorder was not acceptable legal grounds for denying applications to white schools.⁷¹ On August 18, the Norfolk School Board announced that it had rejected the applications of all 150 Negroes who sought admission to white schools.⁷² Using the assignment criteria established by the school board, 123 students were eliminated for failing to meet scholastic requirements, for refusing to submit to testing procedures, or for other equally imposed reasons. The remaining students were rejected on the grounds that their educational progress would be hindered by racial isolation, by too many transfers, or by possible racial conflicts.⁷³ If the school board had refused to admit some Negro students it was subject to a contempt citation from Judge Hoffman. By admitting Negro students, the school was testing the governor's school closing laws. The governor reacted to the school board's decision by delivering a statement to the school officials which proclaimed that the authority to assign students rested with the pupil placement

board.⁷⁴ The governor warned that for "a school board to violate such state injunctions...would be susceptible to the construction that the action was voluntary and willful."⁷⁵ The Norfolk School Board nonetheless announced its intention to continue enrolling students under the local assignment plan.⁷⁶

Fifth, in the wake of public school closings the governor and his advisors had contemplated the conversion of Virginia's public school system to a private school system.⁷⁷ Amending section 141 of the Virginia Constitution had been done in recognition of the financial difficulties related to the establishment of private schools. The governor's efforts to encourage the private school experience was met with some unexpected resistance. The city of Norfolk demonstrated the difficulty of converting to a private school system in a large metropolitan area. The businessmen feared that closed schools would prompt the Navy to loosen its connection with the community, and discourage private industry from moving into the area. Though reluctant to take a public stand, Norfolk businessmen, like their colleagues throughout the state, eventually used their influence to urge the re-opening of the closed public schools.⁷⁸ A group of these businessmen issued a non-political statement

which read:

The vital human and economic interests of this community can best be served by reopening our public schools as soon as practicable....We register complete confidence in the capacity of our local school board and our local government to assure the reopening and maintenance of our local public schools in such fashion as to serve the best interests of this community....In this community we have felt the impact of school closing. The heroic efforts to provide patchwork education deserve high praise. We are convinced, however, that the prolonged continuance of closed schools is intolerable and accordingly that it is in the interest of all our citizens to support a policy designed to reopen schools.⁷⁹

The final blow to massive resistance was struck on January 19, 1959, when the Virginia Supreme Court of Appeals at Richmond ruled that closing schools and cutting off state funds to prevent integration violated Section 129 of the state constitution, which required that the state maintain an efficient public school system. It further ruled that though the state was not required to operate public schools, if such schools are operated they must be available to all children within the state.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAMS: 1954-1959

Throughout these controversial years the administrative structure of industrial arts programs continued to be controlled at the state level by the division of vocational education under the program service area of trade and industrial education. Dr. Benjamin Van Oot had developed the state's philosophy for industrial arts education as one of pre-vocation, giving insight and contact with industrial materials, industrial methods, and the social aspects of industry. Upon his retirement in 1956, George L. Sandvig, who served as an assistant supervisor of trade and industrial education under Dr. Van Oot, replaced him. Mr. Sandvig supported the same philosophy, as observed in his writing:

The major purpose of industrial arts education is to provide instruction and experience involving materials, processes and products of industry. The learning comes through student activity with tools and materials. It also establishes a basis for intelligent guidance leading into the trade and industrial program....Industrial arts has general values that apply to all levels of instruction. Students were provided opportunities to design and construct projects and solve problems whereby they acquired understandings and skills essential to their avocation or vocational interests.⁸⁰

Enrollment of Negro students in industrial arts education programs during the years of 1954-1959

gradually increased (see table 5). Enrollment increases in industrial arts were due partly to the revision of the high school curriculum as a result of the launching of the Russian satellite Sputnik in October of 1957. In December of 1958 the State Board of Education effected a revision of the high school curriculum ⁸¹ which required schools to organize the course selection for students. Beginning in the eighth grade qualified students were encouraged to take Latin or another foreign language, algebra, and advanced science, with a unit credit for each course.⁸² Twenty units instead of the prior sixteen were required for graduation, including: English, five; mathematics, two; laboratory science, two; history and government, three; and four hours of electives.

It is believed that by requiring electives more students enrolled in an industrial arts education course. The superintendent of public instruction wrote, "This revised curriculum is to afford ample opportunity for wise and understandable selection of programs by the student and his parents; for a deepening of knowledge in general education subjects and a more intense preparation in vocation fields."⁸³ Some 29,777 students enrolled in an industrial arts course in 1955, of which 7,503 were

Negro students.⁸⁴ By 1959, 34,418 students were enrolled in an industrial arts programs of which 7,688 were Negroes.⁸⁵ More programs were available in the white schools as 76 school districts offered industrial arts education in 1955 and only 59 districts provided the courses to Negroes. By 1959, there were 81 districts with programs in the all-white schools and 58 in the Negro schools. Both programs shared a modest growth.

In most cities and counties, financial resources continued from local funds and with state support. During this five-year span, an average of 36 counties and 21 cities offered some type of industrial arts education for some 35,697 Negro students in grades six through twelve. When considering the total enrollment of colored students (male and female) in secondary classes, 18% enrolled in some type of industrial arts class in 1955. When considering male students only, 40% of those enrolled in classes that year enrolled in some type of industrial arts education program. By 1959, 15% of the total colored students enrolled in secondary education had taken an industrial arts course. When considering only the male students, 32% were enrolled in some type of industrial arts education regular day school class.⁸⁶ Enrollments had increased since 1955;

however, fewer Negro students were taking industrial arts classes by 1959.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the counties of Culpeper, Madison, Orange and Rappahannock jointly supported and operated George Washington Carver High School, located in Culpeper. This was considered a regional high school. Also jointly operated was the Christiansburg Industrial Institute, jointly supported by Montgomery, Floyd, and Pulaski counties and Radford City;⁸⁷ and the Manassas Regional High School, co-owned and operated by the counties of Prince William, Fairfax and Warren.⁸⁸ These institutions were unique, providing educational opportunities for Negroes on a regional level. School systems collaborated in managing these facilities at which programs in industrial arts education were offered.

Programs in the county schools usually employed one industrial arts teacher in each school and the shop plan was usually a general comprehensive type. Those in the cities generally averaged about two teachers in each school and the shops were general-unit types.

Industrial arts teachers were required to hold a teaching certificate in accordance with section 22-204 of the Code of Virginia, which specified that no teacher shall be employed or paid from public funds

unless they held a certificate in accordance with the state's rules for teacher certification.⁸⁹ In addition to the general education and professional education requirements, the industrial arts teacher was required to complete at least 30 semester hours from the areas of communications (drawing, graphic arts, electricity and electronics), manufacturing and construction (woodworking, metalworking, plastics, textiles, ceramics) or power and transportation (aeronautics, automotive, hydraulics, mechanics, and the like).⁹⁰ As previously noted, black industrial arts teachers in the state generally received their training from Hampton Institute, Norfolk State College, St. Paul's College or Virginia State College. Because industrial arts education and trade programs were closely interrelated and trade programs were supported by federal funds, industrial arts programs were able to "piggyback" those programs at the different colleges. A teacher-educator explained his plans for certificating his teachers with the few financial resources available:

I had to slip the industrial arts teacher training as a part of trade and industry programs. If a student was interested in becoming an industrial arts teacher, I would, move him through the various trade areas classes and work with the individual teachers on adjusting his assignments. It was often difficult to get them [the trade teachers] to understand that industrial arts teachers did not require the skill preparation. I was the

only industrial arts teacher at the college;
the others had come up through the trade
areas.⁹¹

TABLE 5

COUNTY ENROLLMENTS IN NEGRO INDUSTRIAL ARTS
EDUCATION PROGRAMS: 1954-1959

COUNTIES	SHOP OR INDUSTRIAL ARTS				
	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Albemarle	30	30	36	23	21
Appomattox	*	*	*	7	68
Arlington	83	87	89	119	49
Augusta	48	25	*	*	*
Brunswick	61	55	87	65	134
Buckingham	*	*	*	21	*
Campbell	31	88	41	36	31
Caroline	90	109	89	*	116
Chesterfield	90	73	78	97	88
Culpeper	22	28	49	54	50
Cumberland	13	12	44	48	77
Dinwiddie	55	49	84	88	69
Fairfax	89	154	194	201	196
Fauquier	77	85	97	91	69
Floyd	14	*	*	*	*
Gloucester	41	76	18	99	66
Greensville	59	88	90	102	101
Halifax	130	124	119	132	132
Henrico	94	101	92	99	89
Henry	66	58	74	106	139
King George	*	*	*	*	56
Loudoun	48	56	55	71	66
Lousia	*	*	6	*	*
Madison	10	*	4	8	9
Mathews	*	4	*	7	*
Mecklenburg	291	236	227	211	248
Montgomery	20	83	144	36	87
Nansemond	23	*	*	*	*
Nelson	98	37	105	71	79
New Kent	22	34	*	70	28
Norfolk	78	87	8	160	138
Nottoway	49	53	70	20	90
Orange	23	26	*	*	17
Patrick	*	*	*	8	*
Prince Edward	49	68	*	*	*
Prince George	47	35	50	981	25
Prince William	42	*	41	31	19
Princess Anne	89	96	118	140	126
Rappahannock	7	8	6	3	9

* indicates no data reported

Continuing Table 5

Richmond	*	52	*	14	21
Roanoke	60	*	61	48	*
Rockbridge	52	48	44	47	38
Southampton	*	24	22	27	*
Sussex	48	48	70	58	50
Westmoreland	*	*	22	39	48
Wise	*	*	*	14	*
Wythe	*	10	*	*	11
York	25	28	20	22	55
TOTAL ENROLLED	2174	2275	2434	2618	2820
COUNTIES	37	36	34	39	37

Table 6

CITY ENROLLMENTS IN NEGRO INDUSTRIAL ARTS
EDUCATION PROGRAMS: 1954-1959

CITIES	SHOP OR INDUSTRIAL ARTS				
	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Bristol	36	87	53	75	59
Charlottesville	40	45	69	*	47
Clifton Forge	23	27	29	33	39
Danville	192	245	270	231	148
Fredericksburg	60	60	60	67	89
Hampton	184	183	245	361	424
Harrisonburg	31	38	41	39	41
Hopewell	48	56	51	71	81
Martinsville	142	177	159	192	215
Newport News	247	216	198	182	507
Norfolk	935	1065	1125	1129	1045
Petersburg	49	27	10	11	42
Portsmouth	167	137	157	124	107
Richmond	2279	2450	*	1610	1375
Roanoke	396	256	303	247	284
South Norfolk	68	27	44	58	71
Staunton	47	35	35	48	29
Suffolk	55	45	51	76	46
Warwick	150	110	249	204	*
Waynesboro	33	36	36	31	26
Williamsburg	68	41	72	83	126
Winchester	49	41	50	50	67
TOTAL ENROLLED	5329	5450	3307	4922	4868
TOTAL CITIES	22	22	21	21	21

* indicates no data reported

TABLE 7

NUMBER OF NEGRO TEACHERS IN INDUSTRIAL ARTS
EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN COUNTY SCHOOLS: 1954-1959

COUNTIES	SHOP OR INDUSTRIAL ARTS				
	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Albemarle	1	1	1	1	1
Appomattox	*	*	*	1	1
Arlington	1	1	1	3	3
Augusta	1	1	*	*	*
Brunswick	1	1	1	1	1
Buckingham	*	*	*	1	1
Campbell	1	1	1	1	1
Caroline	1	1	1	1	1
Chesterfield	1	1	1	1	1
Culpeper	1	1	2	1	1
Cumberland	1	1	1	1	1
Dinwiddie	*	1	1	1	1
Fairfax	1	1	1	2	2
Fauquier	1	1	1	1	1
Floyd	*	*	*	*	*
Gloucester	1	*	1	1	1
Greensville	1	2	1	1	1
Halifax	1	1	1	1	1
Henrico	1	1	1	1	1
Henry	1	1	1	1	1
King George	*	*	*	*	*
Loudoun	1	1	1	1	1
Lousia	*	*	1	*	*
Madison	1	*	2	1	1
Mathews	*	1	1	1	*
Mecklenburg	3	3	2	3	3
Montgomery	1	1	1	1	1
Nansemond	1	1	*	*	*
Nelson	1	1	1	1	1
New Kent	1	1	*	*	1
Norfolk	1	1	1	1	2
Nottoway	1	1	1	1	1
Orange	1	*	*	1	1
Patrick	*	*	*	1	*
Prince Edward	1	1	1	*	*
Prince George	1	1	1	1	1
Prince William	1	*	*	2	1
Princess Anne	1	1	1	1	1

* indicates no data reported

Continuing Table 7

Rappahannock	*	*	*	*	*
Richmond	*	1	*	1	1
Roanoke	1	*	1	1	*
Rockbridge	1	1	1	1	1
Southampton	*	1	1	1	*
Sussex	1	1	1	1	1
Westmoreland	*	*	2	1	1
Wise	*	*	*	1	*
Wythe	*	1	*	*	1
York	1	1	1	1	1
TOTAL	36	37	38	45	42

Table 8

NUMBER OF NEGRO TEACHERS IN INDUSTRIAL ARTS
EDUCATION PROGRAMS IN THE CITY SCHOOLS: 1954-1959

CITIES	SHOP OR INDUSTRIAL ARTS				
	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959
Bristol	1	1	1	1	2
Charlottesville	1	2	1	*	1
Clifton Forge	1	1	1	1	1
Danville	3	3	3	3	5
Fredericksburg	1	1	1	1	1
Hampton	2	2	2	3	3
Harrisonburg	1	1	1	1	1
Hopewell	1	1	1	1	1
Martinsville	1	1	2	2	2
Newport News	3	3	2	2	5
Norfolk	8	9	9	9	9
Petersburg	1	1	1	1	3
Portsmouth	2	2	1	1	1
Richmond	15	22	*	15	16
Roanoke	9	8	3	2	2
South Norfolk	1	1	1	1	1
Staunton	1	1	1	1	1
Suffolk	1	1	1	1	1
Warwick	*	*	2	2	*
Waynesboro	1	1	1	1	1
Williamsburg	2	2	2	2	2
Winchester	1	1	1	1	1
TOTAL	57	65	38	53	59

* indicates no data reported

Chapter 3 Endnotes

1. Brown et al. v. Board of Education of Topeka et al., 347 U.S. 483 (1954).
2. J. Harvie Wilkinson III, Harry Byrd and the Changing Face of Virginia Politics, 1945-1966 (Charlottesville: The University Press of Virginia 1968), pp. 51-52.
3. Ibid., p. 54.
4. Benjamin Muse, Virginia's Massive Resistance (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1960), p.4.
5. James E. Ely, Jr., The Crisis of Conservative Virginia (Tennessee: The University of Tennessee Press, 1976), p 4.
6. Muse, op. cit., p 5.
7. Journal and Guide, "What Leaders said on High Court Decision", May 22, 1954, p. 1.
8. Richmond Times-Dispatch, "Stanley to Conference on State's Next Step: Governor to Call Meeting of State leaders on School Problem", May 18, 1954, p. 7; and Numan V. Bartley, "The Rise of Massive Resistance: Race and Politics in the South during the 1950's" (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1969), p. 80.
9. Garland Gray to Thomas B. Stanley, May 20, 1954, Stanley Letter File, Virginia State Library Archives.
10. Virginius Dabney, Virginia: The New Dominion (New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1971), p. 531.
11. Southern School News, September 3, 1954, p. 13; and Richmond Times-Dispatch, June 1, 1955, p. 14.
12. Brown v. Board of Education. op. cit.
13. Albert P. Blaustein and Clarence Clyde Perquson, Jr., Desegregation and The Law: The Meaning

of the School Segregation Cases (New York: Vintage Books, 1962), pp. 160-162.

14. Southern School News, op. cit., p. 13.
15. The Richmond News Leader, May 20, 1955.
16. Report of the Commission on Public Education to the Governor of Virginia (Commonwealth of Virginia: Division of Purchase and Printing, 1959) p. 1.
17. Neil R. McMillen, The Citizens' Council: Organization Resistance to the Second Reconstruction, 1954-64 (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1971), p. 311.
18. Muse, op. cit., p 10.
19. Robbins L. Gates, The Making of Massive Resistance: Virginia's Politics of Public School Desegregation, 1954-56 (Chapel Hill: North Carolina Press, 1962), p. 52.
20. Gates, op. cit., p. 54.
21. Ibid.
22. Ibid.
23. Ibid., p. 59.
24. Kelly, "The School Desegregation Case," p. 257.
25. Wilkinson III, op. cit., p. 268.
26. Southern School News, July 6, 1955, p. 1.
27. Peter Ros Henriques, "John S. Battle and Virginia Politics: 1948-1953" (PhD dissertation: The University of Virginia, 1971) p. 202.
28. Ibid., p. 203.
29. Muse, op. cit., p. 7.
30. Ibid., p. 8.
31. Senate Journal of Virginia, Senate

Document No. 1, Extra Session 1955, (Richmond: Commonwealth of Virginia Purchase and Printing, 1952).

32. Peter Ros Henriques, op. cit., p. 203.
33. Ibid., p. 203.
34. Ely, op. cit., p. 38.
35. Muse, op. cit., p. 17.
36. Ely, op. cit., p. 38.
37. Ibid.
38. Ibid. p. 37-40.
39. Ibid.
40. Muse, op. cit., p. 20.
41. Ibid.
42. Ely, op. cit., p. 36.
43. Ibid., p. 41-42.
44. Ibid., p. 42.
45. Ibid., pp. 42-43.
46. Richmond Times Dispatch, February 25, 1956, p. 1.
47. Ibid., June 5, 1955, p. 1.
48. Ibid., June 8, 1955, p. 1.
49. Ben Muse, Ten years of Prelude: The Story of Integration Since the Supreme Court's 1954 Decision (New York: Viking, 1964) pp. 63-65.
50. Richmond Times Dispatch, February 2, 1956, p. 1.
51. Ely, op. cit., p. 43.
52. Ibid., February 21, 1956, p. 1.
53. Richmond Times Dispatch, February 2, 1956

p.12.

54. Richmond Times Dispatch, September 18, 1956, p. 1.

55. Ely, op. cit., p. 45.

56. Peter Ros Henriques, op. cit., p. 204.

57. Ibid., p. 71.

58. Ibid., p. 74.

59. Ibid., p. 77.

60. Norfolk Virginian Pilot, October 31, 1958, p. 1.

61. Muse, op. cit., p. 96.

62. Southern School News, February 5, 1959, p. 4.

63. Charlottesville Daily Progress, October 16, 1958.

64. Ely, op. cit., p. 79.

65. Ibid., pp. 50-53.

66. Ernest Q. Campbell, When A City Closes Its Schools (Chapel Hill: Institute for Research in Social Science, University of North Carolina, 1960), p. 14.

67. Ibid.

68. National Association for the Advancement of Colored People v. Patti, 159 F. Supp. 503, (E.D. Va. 1958), The registration statutes were Chapters 31 and 32 of the acts passed by the 1956 special session. The court focused its attention on Chapter 32 which required the registration of persons or organizations.

69. Ibid., at 515-15.

70. Ely, op. cit., p. 73.

71. "District Judge's Statement of August 25, 1958" 3 Race Rel. L. Rep. 946 at 951-52.

72. "School Board Resolution of August 18, 1958," III Race Rel. L. Rep. 945.
73. Ibid., at 945, 946.
74. "Governor's statement of September 4, 1958," III Race Rel. Rep. 959.
75. Ibid.
76. "School Board Statement, Resolution of September 5," 3 Race Rel. L. Rep. 960.
77. Norfolk Virginian-Pilot, September 17, 1958, p. 1.
78. Luther J. Carter, "Desegregation in Norfolk," The South Atlantic Quarterly 58 (Autumn, 1959), pp. 507-520.
79. Campbell, op. cit., pp. 50.
80. Annual Report, 1954-1955, pp. 223-227.
81. Ibid., 1958-1955, p. 25.
82. Ibid.
83. Ibid., p. 26.
84. Ibid., 1954-1955.
85. Ibid., 1958-1959.
86. Ibid., pp. 254-259. See also Annual Reports, 1958-1959, pp. 244-249.
87. Annual Reports, 1954-1955, pp. 223-227. See also Annual Reports, 1955-1956, pp. 225-229; 1956-1957, pp. 223-237; 1957-1958, pp. 223-237; and 1958-1959, pp. 215-219.
88. Statement by H. Preston Johnson, [retired] Former Industrial Arts Teacher, Manassas Regional High School, Prince William County, Virginia, in a telephone interview, April 4, 1986, July 3, 1986.
89. Certification regulations for teachers. (Richmond: The State Board of Education, 1958).

90. Ibid.

91. Statement by Dr. Harry L. Johnson [retired] Former Industrial Arts Teacher Educator, Norfolk State College, Norfolk, Virginia, Virginia State College, Petersburg, Virginia, in a telephone interview, July 19, 1986.

Chapter 4

THE BROWN INFLUENCE ON INDUSTRIAL ARTS

EDUCATION PROGRAMS:1959-1969

VIRGINIA'S REACTION

Education continued to be the primary political issue in Virginia for five years following the Supreme Court ruling in Brown v. Board of Education (1954) 347 U. S. 483, which startled the nation and shocked Virginia by striking down Constitutional provisions and laws requiring separation of children in public schools. The General Assembly, in keeping with the overwhelming sentiment of the people in the state, had made every effort to preserve its system of separate schools.¹ Efforts included the invocation of the police powers of the state, state sovereignty, interposition and state immunity from suit. This included an effort by the General Assembly to interpret "efficient" schools in keeping with the policy of the state, a cutoff of funds, and the closing of schools.² During the fall of 1958 white high schools were closed in Norfolk, Warren, County, and Charlottesville as a result of federal court-ordered desegregation of these schools.

Reluctantly, the state turned more to passive resistance to school integration after the Virginia

Supreme Court of Appeals declared the legal foundation of massive resistance unconstitutional.³ The governor of Virginia, J. Lindsay Almond, emphasized the efforts made to defend the state's honor when addressing the General Assembly on January 28, 1959. The governor stated:

I report as a fact, and not in a spirit of criticism, that the laws enacted to prevent the mixing of the races in our public schools and to provide educational aid to those in areas where schools have been closed, have been stricken down by a federal court, and by the Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia. The imminence of the peril to our people of the crisis thus engendered challenges the loyalty and dedication of our hearts and minds, and the prompt application of our talents and efforts, to the very best we can give in the service of Virginia.⁴

He bluntly declared that the state was powerless to maintain strict segregation in the public schools and urged the legislature to repeal both the massive resistance laws declared unconstitutional and the compulsory school attendance law and to back a revision and broadened tuition grant program,⁵ thus presenting his new school plan to the General Assembly.

Except for extremist segregationists, Virginians indicated that Almond's position was realistic. The Richmond Times Dispatch supported the governor with this editorial statement: "It has taken great courage

on the part of Governor Almond to accept the reality of our situation, and to avoid mere theatrics of resistance, which would accomplish nothing except the loss of dignity for the state as a whole."⁶ The same newspaper conducted a random sampling of opinion and reported a solid majority of Virginians were in favor of Almond's policy of containment in meeting the school desegregation problem as sound.⁷ Not ready to succumb completely to federal mandates or give the governor total support, the General Assembly adopted a resolution commending the citizens of Norfolk, Charlottesville, and Warren County for their "demeanor in times of crisis."⁸

On February 2 the legislature recessed and Negro students, for the first time in Virginia's history, entered white public schools without incident. The headlines in the Richmond Times Dispatch read, "Seven Virginia Schools To Be Integrated Today."⁹ In Arlington, four Negro students reported to the previously all-white Stratford Junior School and 17 Negro students showed up at six schools in Norfolk under a federal court order.¹⁰

On February 5 the governor appointed a commission of education to make recommendations by March 31, for meeting the crisis brought about by the series of

judicial decrees affecting the public free school system of Virginia.¹¹ Almond named Mosby G. Perrow, Jr., of Lynchburg as chairman of the commission. The forty man commission had four representatives from each congressional district for the purpose of presenting an acceptable program to ease the impact of court-ordered integration that Almond said the state was powerless to prevent.¹² These appointments were designed to give fair and equal representation to all areas of the state. Almond stated, "It is my feeling that this is a matter of statewide importance, effecting [sic] every area, every hamlet and every citizen of Virginia."¹³ The major issue debated by the commission was a recommendation by segregationists to repeal Section 129 of the Virginia Constitution. Section 129 read, "The General Assembly shall establish and maintain an efficient system of public free schools throughout the state."¹⁴

As the Perrow Commission commenced its deliberations, public opinion in Virginia shifted toward the moderate solution of token integration.¹⁵ Statements from citizens urging acceptance of integration appeared in Charlottesville and Norfolk newspapers. At the same time Roy Wilkins, executive secretary of the National Association of the

Advancement of Color People (NAACP) urged Virginia's Negroes to apply to white schools, "not by twos and threes, but by the hundreds."¹⁶ This action on the part of Wilkins aroused public responses from segregationists. Critics of Wilkins believed that desegregation above token levels would result in "white flight" from the public schools. James Kilpatrick of the Richmond Times Dispatch described Virginia's problem as the result of the unreasonable policies of the NAACP. However, many Negro leaders felt the only way to achieve their goals was by continued pressure. Oliver Hill of the NAACP promised that there would be no let up in the activities of Negroes until they were granted the full and unremitted rights of American citizens.¹⁷

The Perrow Commission presented five basic recommendations to the governor in March. Described as a containment policy, the commission was intended to hold school integration to the lowest possible minimum.¹⁸ The members of the commission believed that a majority of the people of Virginia were unwilling to have the public school system abandoned; therefore, recommendations were made to bring about the greatest possible freedom on choice for each locality and each individual. The majority of the commission recommended

that: (1) scholarships be made available to children in every locality to attend nonsectarian private schools; (2) a flexible pupil placement plan to meet the varied conditions throughout the state; (3) a compulsory attendance law with safeguards which may be used by any locality; (4) additional legislation for disposal of surplus school property; and (5) local budgetary changes which gave local tax levying bodies full control over local expenditures.¹⁹ The recommendations were endorsed by Almond, and adopted by the General Assembly. They restored the compulsory attendance law on a local-option basis and provided tuition grants, without regard to the course of public school integration, for the education of children at nonsectarian private schools.

Token integration as intended in the containment plan followed the acceptance of the Report of the Commission on Education. The pupil placement board was able to curtail integration by rejecting many Negro applicants to white schools. By the fall of 1963, only 3,720--or 1.63 percent--of Virginia's Negroes were attending schools with white children.²⁰ The advantage offered by the plan was based on the principle of freedom of choice and avoidance of enforced integration.²¹ In practice, the placement board

primarily dealt with assignments which were appealed from the local level.

Gradually the containment plan became less effective. Under continued pressure from the federal courts the board announced a policy in May of 1963 that virtually abolished the criteria tending to restrict Negro entry of white schools. The board no longer considered the academic qualifications of black applicants and would assign Negro pupils to white schools if they lived within the geographic zone served by the school.²² Negroes still were required to apply for transfers to the white schools by the end of May and state their reasons for the request.²³ However, the relaxation of assignment criteria, coupled with the action of many localities to exercise their option to withdraw from the board's jurisdiction, gradually undermined the agency's usefulness, and it was abolished in 1966.²⁴

Tuition grants would allow a minimum scholarship of \$250.00, the actual cost of tuition at the school attended, or an amount equal to the total cost.²⁵ These grants were set up to prevent any student from being forced to attend a racially mixed school and to support the nonsectarian private schools that were generally patronized by middle and upper-class white families.

The evident intent behind the tuition grant program was to extend to lower and middle-income families the private school options available to the rich, although the poor could not afford private education even with the help of state grants.²⁶ Opposition was based on contentions that tuition grants (1) allowed expenditure of public funds for segregated education; (2) provided aid to private school pupils who never would have attended public schools in any event; (3) damaged and hampered the progress of public school systems; (4) cost too much; and (5) discriminated against pupils in parochial schools by excluding them from subsidies.²⁷ Local parent-teacher associations and the Virginia Education Association spearheaded criticism of the program, contending that state money subsidized the private education of those who had always preferred such schooling.²⁸ Dr. Robert Williams, editor of the Virginia Education Association (VEA) journal, wrote, of the VEA concern, "It is gravely concerned, however, with the misuse which is being made of the program by parents in certain areas of the State."²⁹ The association passed the following resolution, which was adopted by the VEA Board of Directors and unanimously approved by more than 1,000 members of the VEA Delegate Assembly meeting in Richmond in 1960:

While in accord with the intent of the program of State pupil scholarships, we point out that the use of these scholarships has been abused. We urge the State Board of Education to establish and maintain the necessary regulations to restrict the use of these scholarships to the purposes for which they were intended.³⁰

In the same year one editor wrote, "Tuition grants approved for Virginia school children is on the increase and will probably increase....The intent of the General Assembly since the Supreme Court outlawed compulsory racial segregation in 1954 has been to prevent enforced integration in public schools."³¹ The tuition grant program supported a private school boom. The General Assembly would continue to fund the tuition grants until 1969, when a three-judge district court held that tuition grants were unconstitutional.³²

The Perrow Plan would mark the beginning of a steady retreat on the school integration problem and, step by step, the massive resistance crusade was dismantled--the Pupil Placement Board was abolished, tuition grants were declared unconstitutional, and the state government withdrew from meaningful participation in the school issue.³³

The NAACP led the challenge against a variety of techniques aimed at token desegregation and upsetting Negro efforts to enter white schools. NAACP lawyers continued to oppose tactics which perpetuated a token

plan of desegregation and had a great amount of success in the Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals between 1959 and 1964. The local school districts had built their cases for tokenism on a 1955 ruling in which a three-judge federal district court decided that racially separate schools did not violate the Fourteenth Amendment as long as an assignment was racially neutral on its face.³⁴

School boards used a variety of placement methods which appeared unrelated to race, including academic testing, grade-a-year plans, dual attendance zones, minority transfers, and the neighborhood school concept. Yet only the very bright black students were considered for enrollment in the white schools. In Fairfax County fifteen Negro children had been refused admission to white schools because they did not fall within the prescribed grades of the school board's assignment plan.³⁵ The minority transfer plan was tested in Charlottesville. Students assigned to a school where the other race was the majority were permitted to transfer to a school where his or her race was predominate.³⁶ The plan permitted white students to attend the only white high school in the city and blacks were required to attend the only black high school unless they lived closer to the white school and

passed an aptitude test.³⁷

In overturning the high school transfer plan the judge found the use of academic testing discriminatory and ordered freedom of choice. Federal District Judge John Paul told the Charlottesville school board on October 24, 1961, that, "It had to make changes in its desegregation plan because Negroes were being discriminated against."³⁸ The Fourth Circuit Court of Appeals rejected an assignment plan in Roanoke which included dual attendance zones and a "feeder" system devised by the city. The feeder system required placement of students from elementary schools upon graduation into a school within the same zone. Initially all black children, regardless of their residence, had attended a black elementary school. A Negro who requested a transfer to the closer white school was required to score above the median of the white class he/she was attempting to enroll, with and if the applicants had a brother or sister they were required to score above the median of the classes which they chose to enter.³⁹ The Court of Appeals said that while Roanoke school officials maintain that sections are based on a neighbor system, "when it comes to Negro pupils there is no relationship between these sections and the vague geographic neighborhoods."⁴⁰ The Green v.

School Board of City of Roanoke decision in 1962, nullified dual-attendance zones and academic tests for Negroes only.⁴¹ The court concluded its opinion by saying that it will not order "immediate relief for all Negroes" in the city, provided Roanoke officials present to the District Court an acceptable plan for ending discriminatory practices.⁴²

With these victories and the nation's attention on the Civil Rights Act of 1964 integrationists in the state were ready for a full scale attack on what the NAACP's executive secretary described as "the largest and most successful token integration program in the country."⁴³ Lester Banks, executive secretary of the Virginia Conference of the NAACP announced that petitions were being sent to all 128 bi-racial schools districts asking them to desegregate their schools.⁴⁴ S. W. Tucker, chief attorney for the Virginia NAACP promised, "Only when there are no white and Negro Schools in Virginia, only public schools," will the NAACP's efforts end.⁴⁵

The NAACP focused its legal attention on convincing the federal courts that the Brown decision meant all Negro children had the right to attend desegregated public schools. In March of 1965 Negro lawyers filed eight suits asking the courts to order school boards to

take the initiative in desegregating their classrooms. Negro lawyers promised as many as fifty of the same suits were forthcoming unless the responsibility for desegregation was shifted from solitary Negroes to the respective school boards.⁴⁶ Desegregating the public schools remained the responsibility of black parents and students rather than the school officials. The deputy superintendent of the State Department of Education, Harry Elmore, who administered the state's compliance with the 1964 Civil Rights Act, thought that it was unwise and political suicide for the Department of Education to align itself with the federal government and refused to allow his office to become a means of getting information that the Department of Health, Education and Welfare Office should get from the local school division.⁴⁷ One writer suggested that the state department offered little leadership in this area because education in Virginia was pre-eminently a local responsibility.⁴⁸ The NAACP and black lawyers persisted in their legal attacks that the Brown decision prohibited segregation as well as discrimination. The plaintiffs argued that the existence of all Negro schools was evidence of discrimination.⁴⁹ Separate facilities became the issue of identification with a black or white school based on

its racial composition. Those schools with a majority black student enrollment, including teachers and administrators, were considered black schools, and were therefore considered a form of discrimination by the NAACP.

The integration effort slowly made its impact on the public schools in Virginia. In 1963 some 1,234 Negro students were enrolled in 137 former all-white schools.⁵⁰ That same year the Arlington County School Board adopted a policy that led to the first instance of Negroes teaching white children.⁵¹ By 1964, five percent of the black students in Virginia were enrolled in white schools.⁵² This figure increased to 11 percent in 1965 and 20 percent the following year.⁵³ Due to the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, the federal government provided supportive legislation to the Brown decision to combat involuntary school integration. Title IV of the Act prohibited discrimination in federally funded programs.⁵⁴ Thus, no new federal grants would be approved and no existing programs renewed until a desegregation plan was approved by Washington. This leverage was further strengthened when Congress increased the amount of federal funds for southern schools in the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.⁵⁵ In May of 1965,

the state finally submitted an acceptable desegregation plan.⁵⁶ The state merely agreed to end discrimination within the department itself, to inform local school divisions of their responsibilities under Title IV and assigned an assistant state superintendent the job of explaining the federal standards.⁵⁷ Local school divisions realized that nothing would be gained by avoiding a desegregation plan, in that they could be taken into federal court by the Justice Department acting under authority granted by Title IV of the Civil Rights Acts.

In 1966 the intervention of the federal government spelled out the full requirements through new guidelines of Title IV. Virginia's "freedom of choice plan" had permitted desegregation through procedures allowing student transfers across racial lines, but not integration through affirmative action from the local school division. Affirmative action was chiefly initiated by the NAACP and parents of black students seeking equal rights. Local divisions were put on the spot to enroll more black students and integrate their teaching staff. The Office of Education declared that the dual system must go. School systems that failed to move rapidly towards total desegregation or did not make "significant" progress toward an equal

distribution of white and black teachers in every school were warned that they faced not only loss of federal aid but also a Justice Department lawsuit.⁵⁸

These guidelines by the Department of Education put additional pressure on the local school superintendent who politically had to convince the citizens in the community it was best to comply with federal regulations. These regulations also put additional burdens on the NAACP and the state's black teacher organization to protect the rights of black teachers and principals who were being displaced as a result of integration. The directive demanding substantial faculty integration seemed impossible to superintendents working in communities convinced that no Negro could be intelligent enough to teach children of the "superior" race.⁵⁹ For example, on May 5, 1964, the Giles County School Board decided to close the county's two all-Negro schools to integrate the following year. On May 15, the superintendent sent a letter to the Negro principal and six Negro teachers informing them of the school board's decision and stating, "These two actions make it necessary to abolish your job...." The letter concluded, "May I take this opportunity to thank you for the years of service rendered the School Board of Giles County and

the children of your race."⁶⁰ That same year, Arlington County School Board voted to close the county's only all-Negro senior high school and to assign the children to the three predominantly white schools. The board declared that forty Negro teachers would be protected in the shutdown but did not spell out the details. The teachers and staff were quoted as saying, "There are advantages to a small school that would be lost by the shutdown and that all that is wrong with Hoffman-Boston is the facilities are inadequate and could be corrected by the expenditure of money for improvements."⁶¹

Local school divisions resented the new guidelines of the federal government; after all, many had believed their freedom-of-choice plans met compliance with federal regulations. There were protests from citizens in Henrico County, a suburban district outside of Richmond with only six percent black student enrollment in the white schools. The idea of forcing some white children to attend predominantly Negro schools could not be accepted.⁶² Two years passed before the Henrico officials and the Office of Education reached a satisfactory agreement on a desegregation plan. The county sacrificed \$290,000 in federal aid, while the Office of Education stalled about cutting off hundreds

of thousands of dollars.⁶³ The county paid the cost of busing Negro students past white schools to an inadequate separate school while negotiations were being discussed.⁶⁴

Sussex County, a rural black district, became the first to receive the full weight of federal power after refusing to obey the 1966 guidelines. Only 40 Negro students had entered white schools in 1966 out of a school population consisting of about three-fourths black enrollment and receiving one-fourth federal subsidies to the local school budget.⁶⁵ Sussex was one of many southern counties where not the slightest step toward recognizing the constitutional rights of black students had been taken between 1954 and the issuance of the 1965 federal guidelines from the Office of Education.⁶⁶ C.B. Jeter, supervisor of agriculture education, described the administration in Sussex County as being very prejudiced. He stated, "I visited the black agriculture program and the shop had a dirt floor and the students were using orange crates as seats."⁶⁷ The white residents on Sussex established a private school and took advantage of the tuition grant program. After two and one-half years of discussion, Sussex county became the first district to have federal funds terminated for failure to meet guidelines. The

Sussex and Henrico controversies had lessened the threat of federal bullishness as seen by local school divisions. For two years local black leaders and NAACP attorneys wondered whether desegregation efforts were actually hampered by a lack of assertiveness from the Office of Education by demanding the constitutional rights as so decided in recent court decisions. In addition to exhibiting the Office of Education's reluctance to enforce policy, the controversy may have hampered the educational progress of many black students in these and others counties. As one writer noted, "Adamant defiance of the law in the Southside forced HEW [The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare] to terminate funds in 1967 in a handful of districts...this action damaged education in divisions desperately needing help."⁶⁸

A combination of Supreme Court action, social change in the state, NAACP legal defiance, the Civil Rights Act, and the United States Office of Education and Justice Department intervention provided the necessary tools to begin the collapse of the "separate but equal" doctrine in Virginia. Districts operating under court-ordered desegregation plans were now forced to submit plans for final separate school systems. After five years of enforcement of the Civil Rights

Acts the schools of Virginia had been brought within sight of the objectives of the 1954 Supreme Court decision, which declared racial segregation in the public schools violated the Fourteenth Amendment.

INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAMS:1959-1969

As previously seen, public schools in Virginia began to open their doors during the 1959 school session, permitting black and white students to attend the same schools. Through federal and district legal court battles the number of blacks permitted to register in previously all-white schools would gradually increase. The closing of some black schools, name changes in others and the conversion of high schools to junior high and combination schools would serve as a gauge in determining the rate of school integration. The former assistant supervisor of Negro Education in Virginia wrote, "Some Negro schools were abandoned, some were reduced in grades, some had their names changed and some were closed outright by local school authorities. This was the effect on both elementary and high schools. However, the Negro high schools seems to have been affected most."⁶⁹ Not only industrial arts education programs but all discipline areas would be affected as schools were altered as a result of integration.

In 1959, at least one black school in 57 of the 129 school divisions in the state offered some type of industrial arts.⁷⁰ Ninety-one black industrial arts

teachers were employed that year to teach the subject areas of crafts, drafting, electricity-electronics, graphic arts, metalworking, power mechanics/auto mechanics, and woodworking. Ten years later 23 schools could be identified as having 31 black industrial arts programs.

Schools were classified as Negro and white until the mid-sixties and the difference in the value of school property clearly demonstrated the "separate but equal" philosophy. Property value of the black schools in 1959 was 20 per cent of the state's total school property value.⁷¹ Even in districts where black student enrollment exceeded white enrollments the property value was less than that of the white school. The value of furniture and equipment in the Negro schools was one fifth of the total state value in 1959.⁷² In Martinsville, for example, there was one black and one white high school; however, the furniture and equipment in the black schools was 31 percent of the total value. This property value difference suggested that industrial arts programs facilities in the black schools as a whole throughout the state were inferior to those in the white schools in regards to equipment, supplies, and property value.

Since there were no scheduled activities between

black and white teachers, black teachers were not aware of the conditions in the white schools and possibly vice versa. A teacher-educator who moved to Virginia by way of Illinois, Missouri, and Michigan stated, "The white and black industrial arts teachers were completely isolated from each other; only those who came into Virginia from the North or West had had any dealings with blacks if they were white or with whites if they were black. If they came up through the Virginia system, they [the blacks] did not know any white teachers."⁷³ Decisions at the local level determined who received what equipment and supplies and the amount of funds appropriated to manage each school. "At one particular time black and white schools had very little connections. You did not know the fellows [white industrial arts teachers] that well and half the time they would not speak to you."⁷⁴ A black assistant state supervisor with the Department of Education explained, "They kept a closed secret on what was happening in the white programs, but by being a supervisor I got to visit a white program every now and then and saw the inequalities and could make appropriate recommendations for improvements to local superintendents."⁷⁵

On the local level, black industrial arts teachers

requested equipment and supplies through a local supervisor, head teacher, or the school principal. A former teacher who worked in the Hampton and Richmond school systems explained, "Requests for supplies went through the principal's budget...Richmond City had a supervisor who worked with black and white programs alike and he proved to be very helpful to me personally....In Hampton we more or less got materials and supplies through the white teacher from Hampton High School."⁷⁶ In another school system the black teacher discussed a local policy where "your white counterpart or the department head or head teacher in the white school was automatically your local supervisor...we would submit requisitions to this person."⁷⁷

The number of industrial arts teachers increased statewide. In 1958 there were 404 industrial teachers of which 101 were black.⁷⁸ By 1965, there were 602 industrial arts teachers of which 135 were black. This appeared to be a trend in most programs as school enrollments increased 29 per cent between 1960 and 1969.⁷⁹

Teacher preparation programs for blacks were pretty much industrial education by curriculum design. More attention was given to job preparation and specialized

training. The associate director of Industrial Arts Education with the Department of Education explained, "At that time we had the Old Dominion University [which was white] of which the staff were purists [pure industrial arts training background], Virginia Polytechnic Institute [which was white] which would have been purist, Virginia State College [which was black] had one purist, and Norfolk State College [which was black] where Dr. Harry Johnson had to walk on both sides of the fence [industrial arts and industrial education]."80

By 1967, 23 school divisions reported the operation of industrial arts programs in 30 black schools throughout the state.⁸¹ Programs were being taught in facilities classified as unit, general unit and general comprehensive shops or laboratories. There were more general comprehensive shops followed by the general unit in the black schools in 1967. Facilities were designed so that one subject area or unit would be taught in the unit shop. The general unit confined subject matter to a single matter field--a general metal shop would expect to have equipment for instruction in sheet metal, ornamental iron, machine shop, hot metals and casting, metal finishing and possibly welding and spinning. General comprehensive

shops were designed to allow teaching in generally four subject areas. They were more appropriate for the small high school which could afford only one shop. Woodworking was the most popular subject offered, followed by drafting and electricity-electronics. Crafts, graphic arts, and power-mechanics/auto mechanics in that order, were taught least in the black schools during that school session.⁸²

In June of 1969, the Virginia Department of Education created the Industrial Arts Education Service. This new division was given the responsibility of statewide supervision of industrial arts education separate of the division of trade and industrial education. Emphasis was placed on introducing industrial arts personnel and school administrators to new curriculum materials and intensifying the supervisory visitations.⁸³ According to Gordon Fallensen, efforts were made in the late 50s by Joseph A. Schad of Virginia Tech and members of the Virginia Industrial Arts Association to establish industrial arts as a separate division of industrial education.⁸⁴ However, it was not until 1968 that dissent between the two was so evident that action was taken by the supervisor of industrial education, George Swartz. Thomas A.

Hughes Jr., assistant state supervisor of industrial education, was asked by Mr. Swartz to specify what the industrial education service could do to give more specific recognition and supervision to industrial arts through the current State Department of Education structure. On October 29, 1968, Mr. Hughes suggested in a letter to Mr. Swartz the following: (1) to designate staff personnel to work specifically with industrial arts programs at a decision making level equivalent to supervisors; (2) that designated personnel be clearly identified to supervise industrial arts programs; (3) that conferences, workshops, and in-service programs be sponsored specifically and solely for industrial arts teachers, supervisors and teacher educators; and (4) curriculum guides, resources units, and other instructional materials be developed...solely to the needs of improving instruction in industrial arts programs.⁸⁵ Shortly thereafter, the State Board of Education approved the establishment of Industrial Arts in the Division of Vocational Education and appointed Mr. Hughes as supervisor of the newly created service area.⁸⁶

In 1969, ninety-six school divisions offered courses in industrial arts in 366 secondary schools to a total enrollment of 66,942 students who were

instructed by 765 teachers.⁸⁷ After 1965, black and white programs were generally combined as one when reporting data for record keeping. Projects totaling \$224,541 for industrial arts equipment were approved under provisions of Title III of the National Defense Education Act.⁸⁸ Title III of public law 89-10 provided funds to localities for the purpose of developing exemplary education programs or demonstrating innovative approaches to educational problems.⁸⁹ Emphasis was placed on in-service programs to prepare teachers and supervisors to implement the new curriculum patterns which were researched and developed through national curriculum projects. Efforts were given to the "Maryland Plan" developed at the University of Maryland and the research of the Industrial Arts Curriculum Project (IACP) based at Ohio State University and the Olson Plan developed at North Carolina State University.⁹⁰ "Funds from the National Defense Education Act were used to build new industrial arts facilities in several localities for incorporating contemporary industrial arts programs."⁹¹

Because of the social change in the state, student and faculty integration of industrial arts programs and the establishment of an industrial arts service area separate of trade and industry, the need of an

itinerant teacher-educator to work with black programs had lessened considerably. The retirement of Dr. William T. Reed, whose responsibilities will be discussed at length in the next Chapter, would provide the final notice to the notion of unequal, separate Negro and white industrial arts education programs in the state. Dr. Reed's work had encompassed all sectors of trade and industrial education programs for blacks, with industrial arts programs as one component. In addition to industrial arts activities, he assisted women and girls in the health occupations, organized youth activities in the diversified occupations and industrial cooperative training which became a part of the Vocational Industrial Club Association in 1966, planned teacher in-service programs, district and state conferences, teacher-training and helped the state system make the statewide transition from a separate system based on race to the present structure.

Archie G. Richardson wrote, "The effect of desegregation of schools was disappointing to Negroes," and provided the following research (Table 9) from the January 1970 Virginia Educational Directory of the State Department of Education.⁹²

Table 9

Changes in Negro Schools, 1963 to 1970

N = 107

Types of Changes	Number of Schools
Change from Secondary to Junior High School (Names changed in many cases)	25
Negro Secondary Schools closed	31
Schools Changed from Secondary to Combined Schools	8
School Changed from Secondary to Center for Effective Learning	1
Schools that had no Organizational Change	28
Schools Changed from Secondary to Elementary	14

Chapter 4 Endnotes

1. Report of the Commission on Public Education to the Governor of Virginia. (Richmond: Commonwealth of Virginia Division of Purchase and Printing, 1959), p. 5. Hereafter cited as Report of the Commission.
2. Ibid.
3. Harrison v. Day, 105 S.E. 2d 636 (Va. Supp. Ct. App., 1959).
4. Journal of the Senate of Virginia. (Richmond: Commonwealth of Virginia Purchase and Printing, 1959), p. 4.
5. James W. Ely, Jr., The Crisis of Conservative Virginia. (Tennessee: The University of Tennessee Press, 1976), p. 124.
6. Richmond Times-Dispatch, (June 31, 1959), p. 6.
7. Richmond Times-Dispatch, (February 2, 1959), p. 1.
8. Ibid.
9. Ibid.
10. Ibid.
11. Report of the Commission, op. cit., p. 12.
12. Richmond Times-Dispatch, February 3, 1959.
13. Richmond Times-Dispatch, (February 5, 1959), p. 5.
14. Report of the Commission, op. cit., p. 12.
15. Ely, op. cit., p. 128.
16. Norfolk Virginian-Pilot, (February 16, 1959), p. 1.
17. Norfolk Virginian-Pilot, (March 7, 1959, p. 1.

18. Ely, op. cit., p. 6.
19. Report of the Commission, op. cit., p. 6.
20. Southern School News, May 1964, p. 1.
17. 21. Report of the Commission, op. cit., p.
22. Ely, op. cit., p. 134.
23. Ibid.
24. Ibid.
16. 25. Report of the Commission, op. cit., p.
26. Ely, op. cit., p. 135.
27. Southern School News, August 1961, p. 1.
28. Ely, op. cit., pp. 157-58.
29. Robert F. Williams, ed. "Pupil Scholarships: 1960-61", Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. LIV, No. 5 (Richmond: Virginia Education Association, Inc., January 1961), pp. 9-10.
30. Ibid.
31. Allan Jones, "Tuition Grants Increasing", Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. LIV, No. 6 (Richmond: Virginia Education Association Inc., February 1961), pp. 11-12.
32. Griffin v. State Board Of Education, 296 F. Supp. 1179 (E.D. Va. 1969).
33. Ely, op. cit., p. 135.
34. Briggs v. Elliott, 132 F. Supp. 776 (E.D. S. C. 1955).
35. Blackwell v. Fairfax County School Board, 5 Race Rel., L. Rep. 1056 (E.D. Va. 1961).
36. Allen v. School Board of City of Charlottesville, 203 F. Supp. 225 (E.D. Va. 1961).

37. Ibid.
38. Southern School News, November 1961, p. 1.
39. Allen v. School Board of City of Charlottesville, op. cit.
40. Southern School News, June 1962.
41. Green v. School Board of City of Roanoke, 304 F. 2d 118 (4th Cir. 1962).
42. Southern School News, June 1962.
43. Green v. School Board of City of Roanoke, op. cit.
44. Southern School News, June 1962 p. 16.
45. Southern School News, December 1963, pp. 1 and 5.
46. Southern School News, May 1964, p. 4-A.
47. Southern School News, January 1964, p. 2.
48. Gary Orfield, The Reconstruction of Southern Education: The Schools and the 1964 Civil Rights Act, (New York: Wiley-Interscience, A Division of John Wiley & Sons, 1969),p. 219.
49. Southern School News, April 1965, p. 7.
50. Orfield, op. cit., p. 218.
51. Southern School News, May 1963, p. 4.
52. Orfield, op. cit., pp. 218-260.
53. Southern School News, December 1964, p. 1
54. Civil Rights Act of 1964, Sec. 601, 78 Stat. 241 (1964), 42 U.S.C. 200d (1964).
55. Civil Rights Act of 1964, Sec. 601, 79 Stat. 27 (1965), 20 U.S.C. 236 (1965).
56. Orfield, op. cit., p. 218.

57. Orfield, op. cit., p. 220.
58. The Washington Post, March 30, 1966.
59. Orfield, op. cit., p. 229.
60. J. Rupert Picott, "Displacement of Experienced Teachers Without Due Process", NEA Journal, (Washington: National Education Association, Inc., December 1965), p. 4.
61. Southern School News, August 1963, p. 4.
62. Richmond News Leader, April 26, 1966.
63. Orfield, op. cit., p. 244.
64. Orfield, op. cit., p. 243.
65. Orfield, op. cit., p. 253.
66. Ibid.
67. Statement by Clifton B. Jeter, retired, former Assistant State Supervisor of Agriculture Education, Department of Education, Richmond, Virginia, in a personal interview, June 27, 1986.
68. Orfield, op. cit., p. 262.
69. Archie Richardson. The Development of Negro Education in Virginia: 1831-1970. Richmond: Phi Delta Kappa, Richmond Chapter, 1976), p. 112.
70. Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Vol. No. 2, (Richmond: Commonwealth of Virginia Division of Purchase and Printing, 1959), pp. 245-249. Hereafter cited as Annual Report.
71. Ibid., p. 282.
72. Ibid.
73. Statement by Harry L. Johnson, in a personal interview, June 19, 1986.
74. Statement by Joseph Rice, Industrial Arts Teacher, Gretna, Virginia, in a telephone interview,

June 19, 1986.

75. Statement by Clifton B. Jeter, in a personal interview, June 27, 1986.

76. Statement by H. E. Gwatney, in a personal interview, April 19, 1986.

77. Statement by Vernard Butler, in a personal interview, November 23, 1985.

78. Annual Report: 1958 , p. 213.

79. Annual Report: 1970, p. 28.

80. Statement by Thomas A. Hughes, Jr., in a telephone interview, July 29, 1986.

80. Directory of Vocational Industrial Education Programs and Industrial Arts: 1966-67, (Richmond: State Department of Education, 1966).

81. Ibid.

82. Annual Report: 1968-1969, op. cit., p. 159.

83. Statement by Gordon Fallensen, in a personal interview, April 18, 1986.

84. Letter from Tom Hughes to George Swartz, personal files of Chester Lane, October 29, 1968.

85. Letter from superintendent Woodrow Wilkerson to all local superintendents, personal files of Chester Lane, May 28, 1969.

86. Annual Report: 1960, op. cit., p. 163.

87. Ibid., p. 162.

88. Ibid., p. 189-190.

89. Ibid., p. 162.

90. Statement by Marshall O. Tetterton, in a personal interview, February 15, 1982.

91. Richardson, *op. cit.*, p. 112.

Chapter 5

STATE SUPERVISION OF INDUSTRIAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAMS

The Virginia Department of Education was established to provide leadership and assistance to local schools within the state. There were separate divisions under the Superintendent of Public Instruction which were established to offer more efficient program leadership. The Division of Vocational Education was designed to develop skills and understanding towards specialized training for useful employment and to develop qualities of mind and personalities necessary for making a living and building a life.¹ Vocational education consisted of the services of vocational agriculture, home economics, business, and trade and industrial education.² Trade and industrial education and industrial arts education was concerned with the vocational preparation of present and prospective workers in trade and industrial pursuits and with general education in the mechanical fields for high school students.³ In addition, industrial arts classes were concerned with materials, processes, and products of manufacturing and with the contribution of those engaged in industry.⁴

The supervision of Negro education through the

Department of Education maintained standards for certificates, buildings, instruction, vocational education and the like which were similar to white school supervision.⁵ In 1951, the Division of Vocational Education had four Negro staff members, namely assistant supervisors of agriculture and home economics and an itinerant teacher-trainer in trade and industry. Only one of the four was given full supervisory responsibilities equal to their white counterparts. C.B. Jeter, assistant supervisor of agriculture education, explained:

There were Grace Harris and Pauline Morton in home economics, W.T. Reed in trade and industry and myself. Women supervisors as Mrs. Harris stayed strictly with instruction because the superintendent did not like women interfering with administrative duties....Dr. Reed made recommendations regarding budgets, salaries, supplies and the like to the white supervisor in charge of industrial arts.⁶

However, unlike his white counterparts who had regional supervisory responsibilities, Jeter's area ranged from Accomack County on the eastern shore to the southwestern counties in the state. The same supervision territory held true for Dr. Reed.

The trade and industrial education service was supervised by a professional staff which usually included a state supervisor and six assistant state supervisors. Their responsibilities were regularly

assigned in budgeting, on-the-job-training for the Virginia Electric Cooperatives, preparation of industrial education bulletins, cooperative or diversified education, public service training (firemen, policemen, surveyors, plumbing and electrical inspectors), apprenticeship training, supervision of trade extension classes and trade classes for girls and women and the supervision and promotion of industrial arts programs.⁷

Because there was not a state supervisor of industrial arts education in Virginia, the responsibility of the position was delegated as a collateral duty to an assistant state supervisor of industrial trade and industrial education.⁸ This pertained to the supervision of industrial arts education programs for whites in the 50s and 60s.

In 1951, Dr. Benjamin Van Oot, state supervisor of trade and industrial education, in conjunction with Virginia State College accepted the appointment of Dr. William T. Reed as an itinerant teacher-educator with the division of trade and industrial education, and supervisor of colored programs and teacher-educator at Virginia State College, the state's black land-grant institution. Gordon Fallensen, assistant supervisor of trade and industrial education with assigned

responsibilities in industrial arts education, explained, "Dr. Reed worked out of Virginia State College and occasionally visited the state office. He worked with the black programs and would made recommendations to the state supervisor of trade and industrial education."⁹ Jeter further explained, "The president of Virginia State College hired Reed with an agreement to work with the Department of Education. Because he was a professor at the college the state reimbursed the college a certain proportion of his salary."¹⁰

The appointment of Dr. Reed was consistent with the efforts of state departments in other Southern states.¹¹ A few of these Southern states also employed itinerant teacher-trainers and resident teacher-trainers located at the black land-grant colleges to work with the development of federally funded secondary trade and industrial education programs in Southern black public schools.¹²

The assistant supervisor appointed to work with industrial arts education had the responsibility of providing "consultive" and direct advisory services to local educational, financial and administrative problems in industrial arts.¹³ Dr. Reed worked with trade and industrial education programs and coordinated

activities between the state department and trade and industrial education programs for Negroes. Specific responsibilities were to teach pre-service and in-service classes, to hold annual summer teacher conferences, to promote youth activities, to supervise local programs, to encourage the establishment of local programs, and to develop instructional materials.¹⁴

Negro supervision in the state had begun through the influence of the Anna T. Jeanes Foundation. Dr. Booker T. Washington of Tuskegee Institute and Dr. Hollis B. Frissell of Hampton Institute met with Miss Anna T. Jeanes, a Quaker from Philadelphia, in 1907 for providing financial assistance in developing Negro education.¹⁵ In 1908, Miss Jeanes gave, in perpetuity, the sum of \$1,000,000 with the stipulation that it be "devoted to the one purpose of assisting the Southern United States community, county or rural schools for the great class of Negroes."¹⁶ Funds were made available to local school boards to employ Negro supervisors to improve instruction in shopwork, homemaking, and other parts of the curriculum for Negro children. Duties generally included among other things establishing relationships between the home and the school, teaching industrial work and helping classroom teachers.¹⁷ Two-thirds of the salaries of the Jeanes

supervisors were paid by the state and Jeanes funds and one-third by the local school divisions.¹⁸

Miss Virginia Randolph of Henrico County became the first Jeanes Supervisor in the state and set a tradition to follow for many years.¹⁹ The following letter from the superintendent of schools in Henrico County to the president of the board set the stage for Negro supervision in the state:

Henrico Court House
Richmond, Va.
October 26, 1908

Dear Dr. Dillard:

I have secured Miss Virginia E. Randolph (colored) 813 Moore St., Richmond, as the industrial teacher for the Negro schools in the County, and her work in this field began today. I think we are fortunate in securing her, as she has had twelve years' experience in the public schools, and in her own school she has accomplished many of the results in industrial work that we now hope for in all schools. She possesses common sense and tact in an unusual degree and has the confidence of all who know her, both among white people and those of her own race....Our aim is to organize Improvement Leagues at each school and have the Negroes provide the equipment themselves....I am sure that Virginia Randolph will direct this work in a way that will be most valuable on the principle of self-help, making use of whatever material may be at hand.

Her salary is forty dollars a month (four weeks)....I should also be glad if you would let me know what reports you would like to have as to her work and how often, etc.

Very truly yours,

Jackson Davis²⁰

Jeanes supervisors contributed to the development

of Negro schools as community schools were designed primarily to improve living rather than merely to teach subjects. The supervisors found that the success of their work depended upon doing much more than teaching and supervision of industrial work.²¹ They found it necessary to form clubs, visit homes, encourage better health and living conditions, raise money for building schools, and cement the relations between the home and the school in order to convince the people that education was a necessity. Appropriations from the Southern Education Foundation were made to Virginia as part payment of Jeanes supervisors salaries. The Jeanes, Slater, Peabody and Virginia Randolph Funds were consolidated under the Southern Foundation in 1937. Each of these programs provided private funds for improving Negro education in the Southern states. These funds continued until April of 1958, when Mr. Thomas T. Hamilton, associate director of instruction, in the Virginia Department of Education (at the request of Dr. D.Y. Paschall, state superintendent of public instruction), wrote Dr. J.C. Dixon, vice president and executive director of the Southern Education Foundation, requesting termination of these funds.²² Sufficient funds were allocated in the State Board of Education Budget for the support of this activity

during the 1958-60 biennial.²³

Supervision of industrial arts education programs at the state level would continue as a component of the trade and industrial education service until June of 1969. The State Board of Education established an industrial arts education service separate from trade and industrial education and, with the retirement of Dr. W.T. Reed, programs were no longer regarded as black and white. Thomas A. Hughes, Jr., stated that, "Dr. Reed's age contributed to his retirement."²⁴ State employees were required to retire at age seventy.

OLD DOMINION VOCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

The Old Dominion Vocational Association (ODVA) was the statewide professional organization for Negro vocational teachers in the state from 1939 through 1967. The association began as a group designed to bring together people who were preparing or seeking to prepare Negro children for better jobs.²⁵ The prefix "Old Dominion" was given to each of the vocational services, as separate organizations were formed for business, home economics, agriculture, and trade and industrial education. The trade and industrial arts teachers formed the Old Dominion Industrial Teachers (ODIT) association²⁶ (see Appendix D for Constitution and Bylaws).

The ODVA disseminated information to its members through its newsletter entitled, "The Old Dominion Vocational Association News." Attention was given to activities from the four service areas including local programs, district meetings, conference announcements and highlights, memberships by service areas, and the president's corner. The "News" accepted the theme, "To promote vocational education."²⁷

The organization affiliated on the national level with the American Vocational Association. According to

Nancy Gholson, "the first national convention in which the organization was represented was held in Boston....Mr. C.B. Jeter, Mr. E.L. Morse, Mr. R.A. Bracey, Mr. W. W. Craighead, Mr. G.W. Davis and Dr. W.T. Reed attended and they got the chance to really find out what was happening in vocational education"²⁸ on the national level. In regards to setting a presidency on the national levels, Ms. Gholson states,

The Old Dominion Vocational Association was the first Negro affiliate to have official delegates on the floor of the American Vocational Association. All other Negro vocational associations in the South were represented at the AVA through their white organizations. They paid their dues through the white organization and they perhaps sit with the white organization...whatever number of delegates the white organization felt disposed to allow the Negroes to have was entirely within its jurisdiction. However, this did not pertain to the Old Dominion Vocational Association.²⁹

The objectives of the association as stated in the Constitution for the ODVA were as follows: (1) To assume and maintain active state leadership in the promotion of vocational education; (2) To render service to respective communities in stabilizing and promoting vocational education; (3) To unite all vocational education interests among people in the state through membership representation; (4) To provide a state forum for the discussion of all

questions involved in vocational education; (5) To maintain affiliation with the American Vocational Association; and (6) To emphasize and encourage the expansion of vocational adult education programs.³⁰

The organization held its annual business meetings during the yearly conferences of the vocational and industrial arts teachers. These conferences were held at Virginia State College from 1956 to 1966.³¹ Teachers from the four vocational service areas attended the week-long conferences. During these years the organization sponsored national and state speakers to address the membership at their annual conferences, recognized outstanding leaders of vocational education, and continued to increase the membership and participation as evidenced by conference registration and active dues-paying members.³²

On January 10, 1966, during an executive committee meeting in a private dining room of Hotel Petersburg, Mrs. Naomi Jeter, president of the ODVA, asked the body for reactions to the merger of the Old Dominion Vocational Association and the Virginia Vocational Association.³³ Mr. C.B. Jeter stated that a letter should be sent to the Virginia Vocational Association to discuss the pros and cons of merging the two organizations. A motion followed by Mr. E.L. Morse

that a committee be selected to meet with the executive committee of the Virginia Vocational Association (VVA). Mr. Jeter was given the responsibility of drafting a letter to the president of the VVA and exploring the possibilities of the merger.³⁴

On January 7, 1967, members of the ODVA and the Virginia Teachers' Association (VTA) met to discuss in an exploratory manner the steps to be taken in working toward the unification of both organizations with their white counterparts: the Virginia Vocational Association and the Virginia Education Association. The Virginia Teachers Association had closed its 75th Diamond Jubilee Annual Convention in 1962 with nine proposals towards a merger with the Virginia Education Association.³⁵ Mr. James R. Cardwell, president of the VTA, chaired the meeting in 1967. It was suggested that since the Virginia Education Association and the Virginia Teachers' Association, the parent organizations, were engaging in unification procedures which formally began January 1, 1967, that the vocational sub-divisions should be considering the same. According to the minutes of that meeting, Mrs. Jeter stated that:

The Old Dominion Vocational Association agreed 100 per cent with the Chairman's statement of

purpose, and that unification should be achieved at the earliest practical date. She said that the membership of the Old Dominion Vocational Association had been thinking and talking along this line for some time. Whatever is done we hope that we will not move completely out of our identity. To that end, we should like representation at local, state, and national levels. We would like to feel that we are a part of the organization.³⁶

The group discussed the committees of both organizations and suggested that the following recommendations be considered as a part of the merger. These recommendations were proposed: (1) That representatives of both groups be on each of the committees for a term of two-years. After some discussion it was suggested that the two year period be defined as running through two annual conventions; (2) It was unanimously agreed that the name of the organization follow the procedure that has been adopted in other states by taking the name of the state: the Virginia Vocational Association; (3) During the two-year transition period of the two annual meetings, the executive committee will include two members from the Old Dominion Vocational Association who would be recommended by the executive committee of the ODVA subject to the acceptance of the president of the Virginia Vocational Association; (4) It was agreed that the effective beginning date for unification would be July 1, 1967; (5) The representatives of the ODVA

recommended that the VVA authorize the sending of a delegate to the annual convention of the American Vocational Association with the same proportion of expenses reimbursed as for the president of the VVA; and (6) It was recommended that financial statements of each organization be submitted as of June 30, 1967, and that upon unification the books of both organizations be closed and the balances of both organizations be consolidated. As a part of this recommendation, it was stated that the financial statements of both organizations be mutually satisfactory to the respective treasurers.³⁷

It was agreed that the preceding recommendations be submitted to the executive boards of the VVA and the ODVA at their next meetings, and that the two executive boards follow up with a joint meeting for the purpose of considering the recommendations and determining procedures.³⁸ The recommendations were accepted by both organizations.

The fifth recommendation set July 1, 1967, as the effective date for unification of the two organizations. On this day Mrs. Naomi W. Jeter urged all members of the Old Dominion Vocational Association to give their full support to the new organization so that it would make a significant contribution to the

profession growth and development of its members and also to exert a developing influence upon the program of Vocational Education in this state and nation.³⁹

Members of the Old Dominion Industrial Teachers association (ODIT) and the Virginia Industrial Arts Association (VIAA) agreed upon a merger with overwhelming endorsement from both groups. VIAA archives indicate the unification was accomplished by appointing a joint committee from the two associations to study the possibility of a merger and to make recommendations to the executive committee.⁴⁰ The recommendations were accepted by the executive committee and placed before the membership of the VIAA by referendum. According to a member of that committee, who served as the last president of ODIT, the merger was not just another smooth transition. "VIAA leaders did not agree to a merger until the ODIT threatened to establish a dual organization under the American Industrial Arts Association and proposed attending the upcoming national convention as a dual state association."⁴¹ VIAA leaders realized this would be an embarrassment and encouraged the a merger.⁴² Another black leader stated, "We wanted to make it clear that we were not just joining a organization but joining the two organizations."⁴³

STATE CONFERENCES OF VOCATIONAL AND
INDUSTRIAL ARTS TEACHERS

The annual state conferences of the vocational education and industrial arts teachers were sponsored by Virginia State College in cooperation with the Division of Vocational Education of the State Department of Education. Negro teachers representing vocational agriculture, business, home economics, trade and industrial and industrial arts education, and supervisors and principals met on an annual basis from June 1956 to June 1965. According to Dr. Reed, "the conferences attempted to broaden the base of our horizons, expand the dimensions of our knowledge and understanding, thereby enhancing our overall professional growth resulting in timely upgraded efficiency of performance as we continue our efforts toward helping youth and adults become educated."⁴⁴

According to C.B. Jeter, the idea of a joint conference for Negro vocational educators emerged from a meeting with the Director of Vocational Education, Frank Cale, in the early 1950s. "Cale felt that the total program of vocational education would benefit by having a joint conference of all the service areas in vocational education. Plans were made to have a

joint conference of the white service areas of vocational education and he [Cale] wanted to know if we [Negroes in vocational education] were interested in planning a separate conference at Virginia State College."⁴⁵ In planning the conference, provisions were made for general and separate sessions for the four vocational services consisting of Agriculture, Home Economics, Business Education, and Trade and Industrial Education and Industrial Arts.⁴⁶ Each service planned its own program. Considered a joint conference for the service areas of vocational education the conference concerned itself with lectures, discussion, and demonstrations of teaching procedures and the cataloguing of teaching materials including pamphlets, articles, and supplementary books as well as audio visual types of aid.⁴⁷ Conference procedures were coordinated through the State Department of Education. Mr. R.E. Bass, director of vocational education wrote, to division superintendents regarding the conference:

This year joint conferences will be held for instructors in all fields of vocational education. The conferences for white instructors will be held at V. P. I.,...and for Negro teachers at Virginia State. Each conference will include teachers of vocational agriculture, homemaking, trades and industrial, distributive, business, and industrial arts education....Programs are being planned so that the conference participants may become acquainted with the

responsibilities of vocational education for developing economic understandings in our free-enterprise system; to study some of the problems confronting teachers; and come to some conclusions for a unified approach toward the improvement of instruction in vocational education as a part of the total program of the public schools.⁴⁸

The state department provided technical assistance through Negro area supervisors and land-grant college teacher-trainers. Mr. Cliff B. Jeter, area supervisor of agricultural education, Mrs. Grace E. Harris, area supervisor of home economics education, and Dr. Reed represented the State Department of Education. The state assisted with the teachers' expenses, including travel, board and lodging. The following is an excerpt from a letter sent to instructors regarding the conference:

Reimbursement will be made for the cost of board and lodging at the college and for travel to and from your school by public conveyance, less Federal Tax, or by automobile at the rate of seven (7) cents a mile to teachers bringing one or more teachers with them who will claim no reimbursement for travel. Reimbursement will be made at the rate of three and one-half (3 1/2) cents a mile to teachers who do not bring one or more teachers with them. If you expect to travel by public conveyance, write to me for tax exemption certificates. Expenses will be reimbursed on the basis of actual time spent at the conference.⁴⁹

The conference proceedings were usually one week in

length, beginning with an all-day registration and check-in, followed by an evening first general session held in the Virginia Hall Auditorium of Virginia State College. The four service areas began their separate sessions on the second day, followed by a memorial service and a recreation program, usually a card playing tournament and a dance.

The Old Dominion Vocational Association ODVA, the statewide professional organization for vocational teachers in Virginia, held its annual business meetings generally during the morning of the third day. A final general session concluded the conference activities. This session included an evaluation report of all events and a keynote address.

Steering committees were responsible for the overall planning and organization of the conferences. Representatives from the four vocational education service areas were appointed each year by the director of vocational education of the State Department of Education. Throughout the ten-year history of the conference Dr. Reed, Mrs. Grace Harris, and Mr. C. B. Jeter served on the committee. Teacher educators, area supervisors, and teachers (generally officers of professional organizations) constituted the make-up of the steering committees. The appointment of the

chairman was set up on a rotational basis, suggesting that each service area assume the leadership of planning the conference.⁵⁰

The committee met four times during the year at Virginia State College and followed a structured format from year to year. The first meeting was usually in February and its itinerary included

1. Review of recommendations presented by the evaluation committee from the prior year.
2. Appointment of a theme committee.
3. Make tentative committee appointments.
 - a. Registration
 - b. Publicity and Conference Proceedings
 - c. Exhibits
 - d. Evaluation
 - e. Recreation
 - f. Banquet
 - g. Hospitality
 - h. Memorial Service.
4. Consider recommendations for conference speakers for the three general sessions and the ODVA business meeting.

The committees worked diligently following each meeting in carrying out their responsibilities. The chairman investigated the availability of those speakers recommended and contacted individuals to serve as chairpersons of the various committees. The second meeting was generally held in March and included (1) Discussion and closure on conference theme and points of emphasis; (2) Review of committee assignments and

responses from those individuals contacted by the chairman; (3) Organization of conference program; and (4) Confirmation of speakers for the general sessions, if possible.

The third meeting was held sometime in April. Committee assignments were further discussed and confirmed, speakers for the general sessions were announced, and discussion was held on the implementation of the evaluation committee recommendations. Following this meeting the steering committee met with the director of vocational education and his staff to review the conference proceedings.

The fourth and last meeting before the conference was held in May or June. Final arrangements for lodging, facilities, pre-registration, and committee reports were made.

Throughout the nine-year history of the vocational and practical arts conferences a fifth meeting was held following the last general session. Committees made their final reports and the steering committee recommended a chairperson for the upcoming conference. The chairpersons were as follows:

YEAR	CHAIRPERSON	SERVICE AREA
1956-58	Mr. George Davis	School of Industries Virginia State College

		Industrial Education
1958-60	Dr. J. L. Lockett	School of Agriculture Virginia State College Agriculture Education
1960-62	Dr. Mildred N. Jordan	School of Home Economics Virginia State College Home Economic Education
1962-64	Mr. George Singleton	Department of Business Virginia State College Business Education
1964-66	Dr. William T. Reed	School of Industries Virginia State College Industrial Education

The conference theme and points of emphasis set the stage for the organization of the conference programs. Speakers and topics from the four service areas were selected based on the theme and points of emphasis. At the end of the 1966 conference Mr. Jeter suggested that the group go on record as supporting a joint conference between white and black teachers of vocational education, suggesting a merger between the Old Dominion Vocational Association and the Virginia Vocational Association. He further proposed that there were more advantages in a joint conference and that a letter to the state director of vocational education be drafted to this effect.⁵¹ After some discussion it was suggested that the matter of future conferences be tabled until a meeting of the Steering Committee could be called.⁵²

Black leaders in vocational education followed the patterns of the Virginia Teachers Association in promoting a merger with its white counterpart. This trend was consistent with the efforts made by the NAACP in encouraging blacks to cross the racial lines by all possible means. Black and white vocational teachers met in conference for the first time at the Hotel Roanoke in Roanoke, Virginia the week of August 7-11, 1967.

The question of what should be done with the fund balance from the annual conferences was debated in a meeting represented by the four service areas involved. Chaired by Dr. Reed, representing industrial education; Mrs. Grace Harris, home economics; C. B. Jeter, agriculture; and R. Charles Long, business education; the committee debated over the best way to utilize funds which had accumulated over the years from registration fees. In a letter to Mr. George Sandvig, director of vocational education in the State Department of Education, and Walter H. Quarles, Jr., acting president of Virginia State College, the committee wrote;

Several worthy causes to which this money might be applied was (sic) considered by this committee. Inasmuch as the Old Dominion Vocational Association (ODVA) made significant contributions to vocational education in

Virginia, we, the committee, think that among the important possibilities a record of the Association's activities and contributions should be made available to interested persons and a permanent volume placed at the Virginia State College Library and other locations in keeping with demand.

Therefore, first we recommend that the total balance of this fund be applied to the cost of developing a historical record of the ODVA by a graduate student, or researcher at the graduate level of education, at Virginia State College. Preferably, this should be a thesis written in partial fulfillment for the Master's Degree. In name it should be under "History of the ODVA" or a more appropriate title.

Second, we recommend that this production shall be done within a period of three years beginning September, 1968, and at the close of this period any unspent balance in the fund shall be donated to the Scholarship fund of the Virginia Vocational Association. In the event the fund is spent during these three years, the entire amount, including any accrued interest, shall be donated to the said Scholarship Fund of the VVA.⁵³

On September 19, 1968, Mr. Sandvig was able to report that a bound copy of a thesis written by Mrs. Nancy Elder Gholson had been completed. The thesis entitled "A History of the Old Dominion Vocational Association--1939-69," was prepared in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master of Science Degree at Virginia State College.⁵⁴ On July 24, 1969, a check in the amount of thirty-four dollars was drawn payable to Mrs. Gholson and the balance of one hundred thirty-three dollars and twenty-one cents

was donated to the VVA scholarship fund. These transactions terminated the account and funds possessed by the Summer Conference of Vocational and Practical Arts Teachers.⁵⁵

YOUTH ACTIVITIES

On July 28, 1952, Dr. William T. Reed presented the objectives and background of an organization known as the American Youth Industrial Education Association to Dr. Van Oot to obtain his reaction in starting a similar organization in Virginia. The general purpose of this organization was to encourage a greater interest in trades and handicraft among industrial students. Dr. Reed wrote

This organization is now entering its fourth year of existence...The movement had its origin in trade clubs developed in high schools of Mississippi. In expanding the activities of these clubs, competitive trade skills were set up between high school pupils and annual state meetings were held in which contests for excellency in performance were recognized by awards...Today, at least five southern states have joined this movement and an annual Regional Contest is held in May...The plan of organization is that the local schools develop clubs which become a part of the state association. The state associations join to form the national association. The best students in the contests, and the winners in the state contest become representatives for the national meeting and contest. The officers of the association are students and they are supervised by advisory boards and adult advisers...At each level the organization gives strong promise of being valuable for its motivation possibilities and for the experiences it affords the students. We, in Virginia, are invited to participate in the national program.⁵⁶

On July 31, Dr. Van Oot responded with support and encouragement to Dr. Reed by comparing the idea with the movement of the Future Homemakers of America and the Future Farmers of America sponsored by the Home Economics and Agricultural Services, respectively.⁵⁷ He (Van Oot) on October 10, 1952, wrote superintendents of schools and local directors of vocational and industrial education endorsing his support of planning youth organizations under Dr. Reed's leadership.⁵⁸

The first state meeting for the council of industrial clubs was scheduled for Saturday, March 27, 1954 at the assembly room in Simms Hall, Virginia State College. Because the indicated attendance was larger than expected the meeting was held in the R.O.T.C. Building Assembly Room.⁵⁹ The staff from the Virginia State College School of Industries worked together in coordinating the conference. Mr. George W. Davis, director of the division of mechanical arts, served as a general adviser. Mr. Calvin B. Powell, instructor of sheet metal work, Mr. Theodore Van Pelt Meekins, instructor of carpentry, and student assistants from the college organization met to plan registration procedures. Dr. Reed planned the morning session and Mr. W. J. Short the afternoon session. Mr. H.E. Fauntleroy summarized the events of the conference and

W.N. Cooper outlined the necessary introductions to the trade contests.⁶⁰

The conference was opened by members of the Vocational Club of Peabody High School in Petersburg, and Dr. Robert P. Daniel, president of Virginia State College extended a welcome to students and their sponsors, from fourteen schools. The program included (1) the organization and workings of clubs; (2) the formation a state organization; and (3) consideration of becoming a part of the national association.⁶¹ Mr. Lester V. Hill of Maggie Walker High School, Richmond, discussed the organization and operation of a local club. He addressed getting teachers, students, and patrons interested, planning effective meetings, adopting a constitution and by-laws, appointing permanent committees and procedures in applying to district and state clubs. Mr. Sylvester Blue of Peabody High School, Petersburg, led a discussion group on selecting officers and publicizing club activities.⁶²

The purpose and advantages of a state industrial club were talked over by Mr. B.F. French, from Hoffman-Boston High School of Arlington. The session on the purposes included opportunities in publicizing, coordinating aims and goals, creating interest,

fostering high ideals and dignity for work, cultivating high scholarship and standards, developing desirable public relations, guidance, and hobby and leisure time. The advantages were described as a tool to develop one's self-confidence, cooperation in working and living with others, developing leadership and followship skills, develop a sense of belonging and offered an opportunity for teachers to do a better job. Mr. J.D. Serrell, of Addison High School in Roanoke followed with a discussion on helping members to develop and coordinate activities at the local level.⁶³

Mr. S.C. Smith from A & T College in Greensboro, North Carolina, conducted the session on the purpose, organization, and operation of the American Youth Industrial Education Association,⁶⁴ the national organization with which the industrial club of Virginia would affiliate. It began in the state of Mississippi in 1948 and developed into a federation of trade and industrial education clubs located in eight Southeastern states with an annual paid membership of as many as 4,726 before it was dissolved in 1965.⁶⁵ Mr. Smith discussed the organization's constitution. The operation of the organization was carried on by students as were activities of the organization including--state contests in Mississippi, North

Carolina, and South Carolina. Officers and committees were elected on the national level. Mr. Dalton Randolph of George W. Carver regional high school, of Culpeper, led the discussion on these topics.⁶⁶

The remaining time of the session was spent on activities at a national trade contest, the election of state officers and committees, and plans for the next conference. The first officers to serve the organization were Leon A. Tynes, president; Audrey V. Robinson, secretary; and Walter Mitchell Jr., treasurer.⁶⁷

In a follow-up to the conference, Dr. Reed shared an outline with Dr. Van Oot on the proposed "steps in developing the Industrial Club of Virginia." They included the following: (1) an initial meeting of local club representatives on March 1954 at Virginia State College; (2) a council Meeting in November of 1954 to discuss a proposed Constitution; (3) a spring 1955 meeting to adopt the Constitution; (4) an executive committee meeting in the fall of 1955; (5) a spring meeting in March of 1956; and (6) an executive committee meeting in the fall of 1956.⁶⁸

On November 20, 1954, the first meeting of the Council of State Industrial Education Club was held at Virginia State College. The purpose of the meeting was

to formulate a constitution, elect permanent officers for the state club, and plan for the next state meeting.⁶⁹ Leon Tynes, the presiding officer, called the meeting to order and led the devotion in singing one verse of "America" and praying in unison "The Lord's Prayer." Dr. Reed, Mr. B.F. Dabney, director of public relations at the college, and Mr. Harold Berry, president of Virginia State College Industrial Club, extended greetings to the group.⁷⁰ The constitution committee presented a proposed constitution and by-laws with the organization's name as the "Industrial Club of Virginia" and annual membership dues of twenty-five cents per year for active and associate members. Article II described the purpose of the organization as follows: (1) To cultivate high scholastic standards among industrial students; (2) To aid students in the wise selection of industrial occupations; (3) To encourage greater interest in trade and industrial courses among high school students; (4) To become familiar with requirements and opportunities in the industrial field; (5) To develop leadership among industrial students; (6) To encourage fellowship among students enrolled in industrial courses; and (7) To exchange ideas and to cooperate in the development of them.⁷¹ The constitution and by-laws were adopted (see

Appendix C).

The nomination committee next presented a slate of officers to include

President	Leon Tynes Huntington High School Newport News, Va.
Vice-president	Robert Woodson Huntington High School Newport News, Va.
Assistant Secretary	Robert Mann Phoenix High School Hampton, Va.
Treasurer	Walter Mitchell Peabody High School Petersburg, Va.
Chaplain	Hardie Jones James S. Russell High Lawrenceville, Va.

Mr. Junius George of Huntington High School installed the newly elected officers and presented them with their list of duties.⁷²

The chairman of the sponsor club gave a summary of activities and projects to be carried out on a local and state level. The list included (1) working with under privileged children; (2) selling projects made in the shop; (3) setting up project exhibits; (4) taking pictures of projects and activities; (5) planning an open house; (6) having a club social; (7) awarding best students at graduation; (8) awarding best monthly projects; (9) encouraging high scholastic achievement; and (10) planning field trips to schools and

industry.⁷³

Between the 1955 and 1956 annual meetings, the Industrial Club of Virginia really began to function as a unit, according to W.B. Tynes.⁷⁴ The results of the efforts of the officers and the participation of the members were most gratifying. This was supported by Mr. Robert Woodson, president of the Industrial Club of Virginia, 1955-56. "The annual conference was the highlight of my tenure as state president, meetings were well attended and projects were judged and displayed from students throughout the state."⁷⁵ There were 26 schools represented with delegates at the 1957 conference. More than 52 projects were brought in for judging and the meetings were well planned and carried out. In addition, out of the 76 eligible junior and senior schools, 30 schools participated in the conference.⁷⁶ Student projects were set up for display and judging.

During the 1959 year the organization published its first newsletter called the "Industrial Club News." The first issue was printed in May of 1959 and the second in March 1960, by members of the Peabody High School Industrial Arts Club under the supervision of its sponsor, Mr. W.B. Tynes.⁷⁷

The club emblem was patented in 1959-60 and the

constitution and by-laws were amended to include a parliamentarian and corresponding secretary.⁷⁸ The total membership as of July 16, 1959 was 853, representing 26 schools and the college gymnasium was used for the first time in order to accommodate the increased number of projects exhibited.⁷⁹ More than 100 project awards were presented to students on the basis of the quality of thinking and doing and approximately 300 students accompanied by their sponsors attended the conference. A scrapbook was made and presented to the club by the Luther Jackson Industrial Club of Charlottesville, and the Craftsmen Industrial Club from Carter G. Woodson High School in Hopewell presented the Club a gavel.⁸⁰

One of the most attractive features of the annual conference was the "project contest." Students entered their projects to be judged on group classification and length of time enrolled in the course.⁸¹ Projects were classified according to the student's grade level. There was a group A for junior high school (regardless of age) students, a group B, for high school (regardless of age), and group C, vocational industrial (14 years of age and above). Projects were classified according to the time spent on projects: 9 weeks or 1-45 hours, 18 weeks or 46-90 hours, and 36 weeks or

91-180 hours. Any project made in the public school under the supervision of an industrial arts or trade and industrial instructor and which qualified under the divisions and classification were eligible to be entered and considered for judging. Projects were judged on the basis of (a) accuracy, (b) design, (c) amount of work involved, (d) finish, (e) neatness, and (f) usefulness. Certificates and ribbons were presented to the first, second, and third place winners.⁸² Projects were judged in the areas of:

1. Wood
2. Mechanical Drawing
3. Ceramics
4. Electrical
5. Graphic Arts
6. Jewelry
7. Leather
8. Metal
9. Plastics
10. Upholstery
11. Cosmetology
12. Barbering
13. Welding
14. Tailoring
15. Weaving
16. Food Preparation
17. Automotive
18. Other.

On March 7, 1968, a planning council was formed to discuss the future of the Industrial Club of Virginia, which was due to the social changes that integration had brought about in the schools. There was also a

decrease in membership and participation. Invitations to attend were extended to about twenty-one teachers to discuss the future of the Industrial Club of Virginia. Sixteenth Annual Convention Meeting of the Industrial Club was held March 29, 1969, in the Gymnasium of W.E. Waters Junior High School in Portsmouth. This marked the first time the convention had been held in a location other than Virginia's black Land-Grant College.

Dr. Reed, the state advisor of the organization since its inception, introduced Marshall O. Tetterton, assistant state supervisor of industrial arts education of the State Department of Education, who would eventually assume Dr. Reed's responsibilities as state director of the organization.

The members discussed the changes in schools throughout the state in that fewer members and schools were affiliating with local chapters and the state club. The group voted to reorganize under the auspices of the Virginia Industrial Arts Association.⁸³ The VIAA, a state teacher organization founded in October 1958 to obtain greater status, prestige, and reorganization for industrial arts education in Virginia, had recently merged in 1967 with its black counterpart, the Old Dominion Industrial Teachers

Association (for blacks). This was promoted by the unification of the VEA (Virginia Education Association for whites) and the VTA (Virginia Teachers Association for blacks).⁸⁴

Within the same spirit of its leaders the members continued to push ahead in building their organization. The body voted to pay travel expenses of officers in visiting different schools in order to promote membership during the year.⁸⁵ The amount of four cents per mile was set aside. Much discussion was given to extending the state convention to a two-day meeting which would allow more time for meetings, project exhibits, and public relations. The motion failed 95 for and 105 against.⁸⁶ Membership dues were increased for the first time in the organization's history from twenty-five cents per member to one dollar per member.

Following the conference, Dr. Reed contacted the VIAA with the request that the teacher organization assume leadership for the Industrial Club of Virginia. In a letter to Thomas Harris, president of the Industrial Club of Virginia, Dr. Reed wrote:

The granting of our request by the Virginia Industrial Arts Association for a charter to become a State organization means that there will be a few steps in the procedure to get the association into full operation.

At present the VIAA is considering an Industrial Arts Fair to be held during the month of May. In this we will have an opportunity to play an important part. As I see it, we do not need to hold the Convention in March, but put our very best efforts into the May Fair. At the last VIAA Executive Committee meeting in Richmond I was appointed to serve as Chairman of a committee responsible for this Fair....In the meantime, the members of our organization should proceed to get ready for the May, 1970 Fair.⁸⁷

The request for VIAA assistance meant the end of the eighteen-year old history of the Industrial Club of Virginia as organized for Negro students enrolled in industrial education courses. The Industrial Club of Virginia became the Virginia Industrial Arts Student Association and the Project Fair became the Industrial Arts Spring Festival. This statement is supported by the VIAA history committee in recording that:

The Association assumed the executive sponsorship of the Industrial Arts Spring Festival in Hopewell, May 16. The planning and rules committee consisted of Dr. W.T. Reed, Virginia State College, James Price, Nansemond County, and Walter Daggett, Hopewell. The plan of operation followed the pattern of the Council of Industrial Education Clubs [sec] Fairs with updating to serve Industrial Arts exclusively. Leadership activities for the Industrial Arts student clubs was a feature of the new Festival. Marshall Tetterton serves as State Director of the Virginia Industrial Arts Student Association and John Monroe of Nansemond County the State Advisor.⁸⁸

Chapter 5 Endnotes

1. Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the Commonwealth of Virginia: School Year 1955-1956: Vol. XXXIX, No. 3, (Richmond: State Board of Education, 1955-56), p. 80.

2. Annual Report: 1954-55, p. 82.

3. Ibid., p. 98.

4. Ibid.

5. Fred M. Alexander, Education for the Needs of the Negro in Virginia, (Washington, D. C.: The Southern Education Foundation, Inc., 1943), p. 144.

6. Statement by Clifton B. Jeter, in a personal interview, June 27, 1986.

7. Annual Report: 1955-56, op. cit., p. 100.

8. Gordon Fallensen, "Plan for State Supervision of Industrial Arts in Virginia", personal project, 1958-58, p. 1

9. Statement by Gordon Fallensen, in a personal interview, April 18, 1986.

10. Statement by Clifton Jeter, in a personal interview, June 27, 1986.

11. Clyde W. Hall, Vocational Technical and Industrial Arts Education, (New York: American Technical Society, 1973), pp. 184-186.

12. Ibid.

13. Fallensen, "Plan for State Supervision of Industrial Arts in Virginia", op. cit., p. 3.

14. Hall, op. cit., p. 186.

15. Archie G. Richardson, The Development of Negro Education in Virginia: 1831-1970 (Richmond: Phi Delta Kappa, Richmond, Virginia Chapter, 1976), p. 12.

16. Public Education In Virginia, "Historical Development of Virginia's Public School System:

1870-1970", Vol. 5, No. 4 (Richmond: State Department of Education, 1970), p. 18.

17. Alexander, op. cit., p. 146.
18. Ibid.
19. Ibid.
20. Richardson, op. cit., pp. 13 - 14.
21. Ibid.
22. Ibid., p. 16.
23. Ibid., pp. 16-17.
24. Statement by Thomas A. Hughes, Jr., in a telephone interview, July 29, 1986.
25. Nancy Elder Gholson, "A History of the Old Dominion Vocational Association--1939-1967" (unpublished masters thesis, Virginia State College, 1969), p. 16.
26. Statement by Radford Harris, in a personal interview, April 18, 1986.
27. Old Dominion Vocational Association Newsletter, Vol. II, No. 2, December 1958.
28. Gholson, op. cit., p. 18.
29. Ibid.
30. Minutes of the Old Dominion Vocational Association, January 10, 1966. (Hereafter cited as ODVA Minutes).
31. Programs and Proceedings of the Old Dominion Vocational Association, 1958-1965.
32. Ibid.
33. ODVA Minutes, January 7, 1967.
34. Ibid.
35. J. Rupert Picott, History of the Virginia Teachers' Association (Washington, D. C.: National

Education Association, 1975), p. 169.

36. ODVA Minutes, January 7, 1967.
37. Gholson, op. cit., p. 49.
38. ODVA Minutes, January 7, 1967.
39. ODVA Minutes, January 1, 1967.
40. John Frank, Thomas A. Hughes, Jr., Chester Lane, The Virginia Industrial Arts Association History: 1958-1978 (Richmond: Virginia Industrial Arts Association, 1978), p. 9.
41. Statement by Roland Walton, in a telephone interview, July 18, 1986.
42. Ibid.
43. Statement by Dr. Harry L. Johnson, in a telephone interview, July 18, 1986.
44. A "Welcome" Speech given by Dr. William T. Reed to The Vocational and Industrial Arts Teachers' Annual Conference, 1956, Reed personal files.
45. Statement by Clifton Jeter, in a personal interview, June 27, 1986.
46. Proceedings of the Third State Conference of Vocational and Practical Arts Teachers, June 23-27, 1958.
47. Letter from G. G. Singleton to Business Education Teachers, May 13, 1959, Reed personal files.
48. Letter from R. E. Bass, Director to Vocational Education, to Division Superintendent, January 15, 1960, Reed personal files.
49. Letter from George Sandvig to Mr. Frank Smith, Edward Wynth High School, May 10, 1961, Reed personal files.
50. Minutes of the State Vocational and Practical Arts Conference, March 28, 1963, p. 3.
51. Minutes of the State Vocational and Practical Arts Conference, June 25, 1965, p. 3.

52. Ibid.
53. Letter from Grace Harris, C. B. Jeter, R. Charles Long and William T. Reed, to Messrs. George Sandvig and Walter H. Quarles, Jr., February 14, 1969), Reed personal files.
54. Letter to George Sandvig from Dr. William T. Reed, September 19, 1969, Reed personal files.
55. Letter from Grace Harris to Dr. William T. Reed, Reed personal files.
56. Letter from Dr. William T. Reed, Itinerant Teacher-Trainer, Virginia State College, to Dr. Benjamin Van Oot, July 28, 1952, Reed personal files.
57. Ibid.
58. Letter from Dr. B. H. Van Oot to Dr. William T. Reed, October 10, 1952, Reed personal files.
59. Letter from Dr. William T. Reed to James C. Nelson, Coordinator of Student Activities, Virginia State College, June 19, 1954, Reed personal files.
60. Committee assignments for the Industrial Club of Virginia conference, Virginia State College, March 27, 1954, Reed personal files.
61. Ibid.
62. Ibid.
63. Ibid.
64. Ibid.
65. Hall, op. cit., p. 190.
66. Personal files of Dr. William T. Reed.
67. Committee assignments for the Industrial Club of Virginia conference, Virginia State College, March 27, 1954, Reed personal files.
68. Ibid.
69. Letter from Leon Tynes, Vice President Industrial Club of Virginia, to Dr. William T. Reed,

October 7, 1954, Reed personal files.

70. Minutes of the Council of Industrial Club of Virginia, March 26, 1955.

71. The Industrial Club of Virginia Newsletter, "Industrial Club News," 1st edn., May 1959.

72. Minutes of the Council of Industrial Club of Virginia, March 26, 1955.

73. Ibid.

74. Fallensen, "Plan for State Supervision of Industrial Arts in Virginia", op. cit.

75. Statement by Robert Woodson, President of Industrial Club of Virginia, 1955-56, in a telephone interview, May 18, 1986.

76. Fallensen, "Plan for State Supervision of Industrial Arts in Virginia", op. cit.

77. The Industrial Club of Virginia Newsletter, 3rd edn., 1961, p. 2.

78. The Industrial Club of Virginia Newsletter, "Industrial Club News," 1960.

79. Personal files of Dr. William T. Reed.

80. Ibid.

81. Ibid.

82. Ibid.

83. Minutes of the Council of Industrial Club of Virginia, 1955-1969.

84. Frank, Hughes, Jr., and Lane, op. cit., p. 9.

85. Minutes of the Industrial Club of Virginia, March 29, 1969.

86. Ibid.

87. Letter from Dr. William T. Reed, November 24, 1969, Reed personal files.

11. 88. Frank, Hughes, Jr., and Lane, op. cit., p.

Chapter 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a summary of the research findings and to draw conclusions from the study. In addition, recommendations for further research are listed based on the findings of the study.

Reiteration of the Problem

This study was designed to trace, reconstruct, and analyze industrial arts education programs in Virginia which were exclusively for blacks during 1951-1969. The 1951-1969 years included the period Virginia schools made the transition from the "separate but equal" philosophy to integration. It was also the period during which Dr. William T. Reed served as itinerant teacher educator for the State Department of Education in Virginia, with supervision responsibilities for Negro industrial education and industrial arts education programs.

The research was designed to focus on industrial arts education programs in Virginia with special attention directed to industrial arts programs offered to blacks. Specifically, the study dealt with

providing detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interactions, and observed behaviors drawn from experiences, attitudes, beliefs, thoughts and documents related to industrial arts education programs for blacks.

Reiteration of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was to provide an investigation of industrial arts education programs in Virginia that were offered to blacks from 1951-1969. Particular emphasis focused on the work of a "non-famous" individual who worked among adverse situations to suggest a positive and healthy perception of ethnic identity development. The study provided an analysis of attitudes, beliefs, and decisions that affected industrial arts education programs for blacks as the transition was made from the "separate but equal" philosophy in Virginia's public schools to a system which provided equal educational opportunities for all citizens within the framework of the Fourteenth Amendment.

Only a handful of people can be identified as having an understanding of the total setting of industrial arts education. A smaller number can be

identified for their comprehension of knowledge of blacks in industrial arts education. It was not surprising, therefore, to find a paucity of research dealing with the history of development of industrial arts education programs for blacks in Virginia and those individuals and groups who contributed to this effort. There seems to be a particular need, in education, for the historical study of important ideas that have influenced both the schools and public policies related to them. Education has so often moved through cycles of ideas only to return, ultimately, to the starting point. A better understanding of the history of ideas in education would prevent much activity that has been called "rediscovering the wheel."

A visit to the Virginia Department of Education, specifically to the program service area of trade and industrial education, where Dr. William T. Reed served as itinerant teacher educator from 1951-1969, revealed very little evidence of his identity. This conclusion was drawn after scrutinizing the archives of state supervisors' annual reports for trade and industrial education from Dr. Benjamin H. Van Oot to George Swartz.

In an interview with Thomas A. Hughes Jr., who is

the associate director of industrial arts education, for the Virginia Department of Education, and worked with Dr. William T. Reed from 1965-1969, Mr. Hughes commented on the importance of Dr. Reed and his work with industrial arts education programs for blacks as follows:

A study on the work and contributions of Dr. Reed to education and industrial arts is needed. He was a professional in all regards and very highly respected by those who came in contact with him. His contributions have indeed been many without due recognition. For example, Dr. Reed's work with youth organizations and student conferences gave the Virginia Association of the American Industrial Arts Student Association (AIASA) its beginning. The Industrial Club of Virginia was organized under his leadership along with the State Project Fairs, which are now called the Virginia Industrial Arts Spring Festival, our state wide annual student conference.

In a telephone interview with Clyde Hall, historian on Black Vocational Technical Education, Dr. Hall made these comments:

Very little work has been done in this area, much is needed. Virginia was one of fourteen states in the late 1940s and early 1950s which provided teacher-trainers for vocational education programs for blacks and much of their work has not been documented as a part of the history or vocational education. For example, it was not until 1965 that youth organizations for students enrolled in federal funded secondary trade and industrial education came into existence. The organization is known as VICA, the Vocational Industrial Clubs of America. However, black schools had made some progress in this direction as early as 1948 when the first

interstate meeting of trade and industrial education students took place at the South Carolina Area Trade School in Denmark. Dr. Reed began working with the Industrial Clubs of Virginia around 1951 and so did many of his counterparts in other states. Many of them--such as F.O. Woodward (Mississippi), S.C. Smith (North Carolina), A.Z. Traylor and William Nelson (Georgia), and Preston Stewart (Tennessee)--are still around. These men, as Dr. Reed did, have a bank of knowledge and experience which needs to be explored.

Mr. Rayford L. Harris, Sr., former public industrial arts teacher in Virginia from 1952-1969, professor of industrial arts education programs at Virginia State University from 1959 to present explained that:

Dr. Reed's responsibilities as supervisor of industrial arts education programs for blacks and teacher educator encompassed supervision of all activities for black teachers in trade and industrial education and industrial arts....Very little is mentioned today of the organizations and programs that existed for colored teachers only. Organizations as the Virginia Teachers Association, Old Dominion Vocational Association, and the Industrial Club of Virginia. The Virginia Teachers Association was the black state wide organization equal to the all white Virginia Education Association. Black teachers many times met in regions or Districts as A, B, C, D, etc. Different service areas met as English, Science, Math and Vocational Education. The Virginia Teachers Association had its own executive director who had a counterpart in the Virginia Education Association....The Old Dominion Vocational Association [Colored] was the counter part to the Virginia Vocational Association [white]. Under the Old Dominion Vocational Association we had the Industrial Teachers Association, Home Economics Teachers Association, Business Teachers Association, and the Agricultural Teachers Association....The Industrial Club of

Virginia was organization by Dr. Reed in the early 50s so students would have an opportunity to develop as leaders.

Unfortunately, studies of ethnic and minority leaders in education tend to center on a few famous individuals. Black leadership is often limited to discussions of Frederick Douglass, Booker T. Washington, W.E.B. Dubois, and the legal activists who built the pathway to the Brown decision. The full range of black leadership that must have emerged in many communities has not been integrated into the history of Virginia education.

Specifically, the study is an effort to state as clearly and as objectively as possible what the weight of historical evidence means concerning industrial arts education programs offered to blacks in Virginia from 1951-1969. The historical evidence is presented in an order to provide answers to these questions: (1) What were the characteristics of the publicly supported secondary programs of industrial art education which were offered to blacks in Virginia prior to the Brown v. Board of Education Supreme Court decision; (2) What effect did the Brown decision have on these programs; (3) How did the transition from segregated to desegregated schools affect industrial arts education programs; and (4) How were these programs supervised at

the state level?

SUMMARY

The phrase "loss of identity" is often used in conversation among blacks when discussing improvements made or needed in race relations with blacks and whites. Educational institutions have been and will probably continue to be used as instruments to create change, whether the issues are economical, political, social, or educational. In 1954, the United State Supreme Court ruled the doctrine of "separate but equal" unconstitutional, as blacks fought for equal rights through education as afforded them in the Fourteenth Amendment. Virginia led Southern states in opposition to this ruling and mounted an offensive to prevent implementation of desegregation plans allowing black and white students to be educated under the same roof. This study has investigated a specific educational area (industrial arts) in a conservative state to outline the organizational structure of these programs, with special attention given to those offered to blacks, over an eighteen-year period. Beginning with the controversial federal court ruling and ending with the reorganization of programs on the local and state levels, it is important that the struggles not be lost and that they be used to better understand the

development of education, specific program development and race relations.

Two important factors were considered as a part of the research design. To study and outline the history of Virginia education between 1951 and 1969 and to study the history of industrial arts education programs, with special attention given to those programs offered to blacks. The history of Virginia education between 1951 and 1969 was dictated by Virginia's reaction to the Brown v. Board of Education Supreme Court ruling. Political and legal battles followed in federal and district courts, and would expose attitudes and beliefs of individuals and groups as policies on education were interpreted. The history of industrial arts education programs, on the other hand, focused on the organizational structure of the division of trade and industry and industrial arts education of the Department of Education and the work of Dr. William T. Reed. Attention was given to program characteristics and changes which occurred as a result of Virginia's reaction and eventual actions toward compliance to statewide integration. The black schools, teachers, students and programs were affected most as decisions were made to close, combine, and/or lower grade levels.

CONCLUSIONS

The research conclusions generated from this investigation were guided by the following four questions:

1. What were the characteristics of the publicly supported secondary programs of industrial arts education which were offered to blacks in Virginia prior to the Brown v. Board of Education Supreme Court decision?

Industrial arts education programs prior to the Brown decision were considered a component of trade and industrial education. Because of their relationship with the trade and industrial education service and the preparation provided by the black teacher-training institutions, industrial arts education programs in the black schools were oriented more toward industrial education or skill preparation than general education or exploration. Most of the black industrial arts teachers were prepared in industrial education and taught the subject(s) most familiar to them. Industrial arts education programs were more common in the city school divisions and more common in high schools with grades eight through twelve. Facilities or shop designs were usually of the comprehensive type because of budget constraints, school size, and number of

industrial arts teachers employed within a school system. Local school divisions provided about 84 per cent of the funding and the state about 16 per cent and fewer funds were allotted to Negro industrial arts education programs.

In terms of black and white programs, teacher educators in white colleges were recruited with an industrial arts education background; thus more white teachers were prepared with a true industrial arts education training. Facilities in the white schools appeared to be better equipped; however, the demands for industrial arts were greater in the black schools.

2. What effect did the Brown decision have on industrial arts education programs?

The Brown decision did not have an altering effect until the mid-1960s on the characteristics of industrial arts education programs offered to blacks. Enrollments gradually increased and the same types of courses continued to be offered. Funding practices were consistent and supervision responsibilities at the state level were unaltered until 1969. School districts began integrating faculty and student populations in 1964. Many school systems either closed the black schools, converted the high schools to junior or combined schools and attempted to assign students and personnel of the black schools. In such cases, industrial arts education programs were altered, and teachers were relocated or assigned to teach different grade levels and subjects. Many of the black industrial arts teachers who had previously taught on the high school level were assigned positions in the junior high schools. This meant a change from teaching specific subject matter, as many were prepared in the teacher education institutions, to teaching a broad general curriculum. In addition, many of the black teachers who shared teaching assignments in industrial

education and industrial arts education programs were affected by teacher assignments as industrial arts education became a separate service area of the division of trade and industrial education.

3. How did the transition from segregated to desegregated schools affect industrial arts education programs?

A dual system of public education stood in place much like a boulder until legal attacks and social change chipped away at its foundation. Black and white industrial arts education programs remained unchanged until the mid-sixties as school systems began to establish policies to integrate faculty and student populations.

NAACP lawyers representing oppressed members of Virginia's population set the agenda for black leaders and educators to follow. The organization often reacted in defense to Virginia's conservative policies which makes it difficult to say that a victory emerged for the NAACP and followers. Yes, a majority of Virginia's public schools had integrated by 1970; however, the outcomes of the final agreements were harmful to black groups in that they were willing to compromise many of their gains to achieve full integration rights. Thus, many black schools closed, teachers were misplaced, programs discontinued and names of schools and organizations were changed. The Virginia Education Directory of the State Department of Education in 1970 listed 31 Negro secondary schools as closed. The same report showed 25 Negro secondary schools changed to

junior high schools and in many cases their names changed.

Federal guidelines in the mid-sixties required desegregation plans from local school divisions in order to receive federal funds from the Elementary and Secondary Education Act and to meet compliance with the Civil Rights Act. School divisions were instructed to integrate teaching staffs and student bodies. Many black teachers were dissatisfied with assignments. But because there was a growth in industrial arts education enrollments and a teacher shortage, most black industrial arts teachers were employed. Many of the secondary industrial arts teachers became junior high teachers and relocated to different localities in the state. Yet leadership opportunities for black students and industrial arts teachers in organizations were reduced to a select few as a result of the merger with the white industrial arts teacher association and the affiliation of the youth organization with the same white teachers' organization.

4. How were industrial arts education program offered to blacks supervised at the state level?

Industrial arts education programs between the years of 1951 through 1969 were supervised under the service area of the division of trade and industrial education and industrial arts education. Each year the director of trade and industrial education and industrial arts education of the Department of Education appointed an assistant state supervisor to assume the overall responsibilities of industrial arts supervision and instruction. This person worked with Dr. William T. Reed, an itinerant teacher-educator with part-time teacher education responsibilities at Virginia State College and part-time supervision duties with the Department of Education. Dr. Reed served as a liaison between the division of trade and industrial education and programs in that service area which were offered to blacks. Recommendations for program improvements were presented to the director of trade and industry or to the white supervisor in charge of industrial arts supervision and instruction.

Dr. Reed's work included supervision of all the program service areas under trade and industry which included on-the-job training programs, preparation of education bulletins, cooperative or diversified

education programs, extension classes and trade classes for girls and women in health occupations and the promotion of industrial arts education programs. His specific responsibilities were to teach pre-service and in-service classes, to plan and hold annual teacher conferences, to promote youth activities, to supervise local programs, to encourage the establishment of local programs and to develop instructional materials.

Separate student and teacher organizations, conferences, and activities were planned for blacks prior to 1967. Industrial arts teachers were members of the Old Dominion Industrial Teachers association (ODIT) which later merged with its white counterpart the Virginia Industrial Arts Association (VIAA). The ODIT was an affiliant to the Old Dominion Vocational Association (ODVA) which affiliated with the American Vocational Association. The American Vocational Association represented both black and white teacher organizations on the national level. The Old Dominion Vocational Association held annual conferences at Virginia State College, the black land-grant institution in the state.

Youth activities for blacks enrolled in industrial arts courses were available through the Industrial Club of Virginia, a statewide organization which planned

leadership development and project exhibits for students. The idea for starting the organization was conceived from the American Youth Association, a similar organization on the national level for black youth enrolled in industrial education and industrial arts education programs. Conference activities for the Industrial Club of Virginia were held annually at Virginia State College until membership declined as a result of integration forced the organization to affiliate under the Virginia Industrial Arts Association. The leadership conferences and project exhibits were promoted by the VIAA as a joint event for all students.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are listed as a result of this study for further research:

1. A study should be directed toward tracing the development and contributions of the American Youth Association.
2. A study should be conducted to evaluate segregated industrial arts education programs for blacks in respect to the issue of quality education.
3. A study should be undertaken to determine to what extent the traditional black land-grant college was affected as a result of public school integration.
4. A study should be directed toward tracing the original names of the black schools and the significance behind the names and reasons for changes.
5. A study should be directed toward investigating the contributions of the Jeanes Supervisors.
6. A study should be directed toward other vocational programs offered to blacks in agriculture, business, home economics and trade and industry.
7. A study should be directed toward the future of black colleges as federal legislation requires the desegregation of higher education institutions, and more black parents encourage their children to attend predominate white institutions.
8. A study should be conducted to investigate the role of the Virginia Teachers Association in the desegregation of Virginia's schools.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

A. PRIMARY SOURCES

1. INTERVIEWS:

The following people were instrumental in developing a understanding, clarity, and interpretation of the historical facts on industrial arts education programs offered to blacks in Virginia.

Berry, Harold. Telephone interview. Loudoun County, Virginia, June 17, 1986.

Butler, Vernard. Personal interview. Martinsville, Virginia, November 23, 1985.

Davis, George. Telephone interview. Petersburg, Virginia, May 17, 1986.

Doyle, James. Telephone interview. Norfolk, Virginia, March 3, 1986.

Fallensen, Gordon. Personal interview. Richmond, Virginia, April 18, 1986.

Gant, Rufus. Telephone interview. Hampton, Virginia, May 17, 1986, June 8, 1986, July 11, 1986.

Gwatmey, H. E. . Personal interview. Richmond, Virginia, April 19, 1986.

Johnson, Dr. Harry. Personal interview. Prince George County, Virginia, April 18, 1986, and July 18, 1986.

Johnson, H. Preston. Telephone interview. Manassas, Virginia, May 17, 1986.

Hall, Dr. Clyde W. Telephone interview. Savannah, Georgia, April 18, 1986.

Hughes Jr., Thomas A. Personal interview. Richmond, Virginia, March 7, 1985.

Harris, Sr., Rayford L. Personal interview. Petersburg, Virginia, April 18, 1986.

Jeter, Clifton. Personal interview. Richmond, Virginia, June 27, 1986.

Lane, Chester. Personal interview. Richmond,
Virginia, April 20, 1986.

Payne, Vincent. Personal interview. Petersburg,
Virginia, March 15, 1985.

Reed, Margaret. Personal interview. Petersburg,
Virginia, March 15, 1985.

Rice, Joseph. Telephone interview. Gretna, Virginia,
July 19, 1986.

Swartz, George. Personal interview. Roanoke,
Virginia, April 17, 1985.

Tetterton, Marshall O. Personal interview. Richmond,
Virginia, February 15, 1982.

Walton, Roland. Telephone interview. Medford,
Massachusetts, July 18, 1986.

Willcox, George. Personal interview. Richmond,
Virginia, June 19, 1986.

Woodson, Robert. Telephone interview. Hampton,
Virginia, May 17, 1986.

2. COURT CASES:

Allen v. School Board of City of Charlottesville, 203 F. Supp. 225 (E.D. Va. 1961).

Blackwell v. Fairfax County School Board, 5 Race Rel. L. Rep. 1056 (E.D. Va. 1960).

Blakeney v. Fairfax County School Board, 226 F. Supp. 713, 715 (E.D. Va. 1964).

Bradley v. School Board of the City of Richmond, 338 F. Supp. 67, 153 (E. D. Va. 1972).

Briggs v. Elliott, 132 F. Supp. 776 (E. D. S.C. 1955).

Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka, Shawnee County, Kansas 347 U.S. 483 (1954). Civil Rights Act of 1964, Sec. 601, 78 Stat. 241 (1964), 42 U.S.C. 2000d (1964).

Civil Rights Act of 1964, Sec. 601, 79 Stat. 27 (1965), 20 U.S.C. 236 (1965).

Green v. School Board of City of Roanoke, 304 F. 2d 118 (4th Cir. 1962).

Griffin v. State Board of Education, 296 F. Supp. 1179 (E. D. Va. 1969).

Harrison v. Day, 106 S.E. 2d 636 (Va. Sup. Ct. App., 1959).

NAACP v. Patty, 159 F. Supp. 503, (E.D. Va. 1958).

3. PUBLIC DOCUMENTS (State & National):

Journal of the Senate of Virginia, 1952. Richmond: Commonwealth of Virginia Purchase and Printing, 1952.

Journal of the Senate, 1950.

Journal of the Senate, 1954.

Journal of the Senate, 1956.

Journal of the Senate, 1958.

Journal of the Senate, 1960.

Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the Commonwealth of Virginia: School Year 1904. Richmond: Commonwealth of Virginia Division of Purchase and Printing, 1904.

Annual Report, 1951-1952.

Annual Report, 1952-1953.

Annual Report, 1953-1954.

Annual Report, 1955-1956.

Annual Report, 1956-1957

Annual Report, 1957-1958

Annual Report, 1959-1960.

Annual Report, 1960-1961.

Annual Report, 1963-1964.

Annual Report, 1964-1965.

Annual Report, 1965-1966.

Annual Report, 1967-1968.

Annual Report, 1968-1969.

Annual Report, 1970-1971.

Report of the Commission on Public Education to the
Governor of Virginia. Commonwealth of Virginia
Division of Purchase and Printing, 1959.

4. MINUTES:

MINUTES OF THE STATE VOCATIONAL CONFERENCE
PLANNING-STEERING COMMITTEE--1958-1965

State Vocational Conference Planning Committee, March
21, 1958.

- _____ . February 27, 1959.
- _____ . March 13, 1959.
- _____ . March 26, 1959.
- _____ . April 23, 1959.
- _____ . June 26, 1959.
- _____ . November 20, 1959.
- _____ . June 24, 1960.
- _____ . February 20, 1961.
- _____ . February 27, 1962.
- _____ . June 25, 1962.
- _____ . June 29, 1962.
- _____ . March 13, 1962.
- _____ . March 23, 1962.
- _____ . March 26, 1963.
- _____ . April 25, 1962.
- _____ . February 2, 1963.
- _____ . April 9, 1963.
- _____ . May 14, 1963.
- _____ . June 28, 1963.
- _____ . February 7, 1964.
- _____ . February 18, 1964.

- _____ . March 17, 1964.
- _____ . March 26, 1964.
- _____ . June 22, 1964.
- _____ . June 26, 1964.
- _____ . February 3, 1965.
- _____ . February 7, 1965.
- _____ . February 15, 1965.
- _____ . June 25, 1965.

**MINUTES OF THE OLD DOMINION VOCATIONAL
ASSOCIATION EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE--1960-1967**

The Old Dominion Vocational Association, Executive
Committee, September 24, 1960.

- _____ . February 18, 1961.
- _____ . February 17, 1962.
- _____ . January 14, 1963.
- _____ . December 21, 1963.
- _____ . September 22, 1964.
- _____ . October 12, 1964.
- _____ . January 25, 1965.
- _____ . October 11, 1965.
- _____ . October 25, 1965.
- _____ . January 10, 1966.
- _____ . September 26, 1966.
- _____ . January 7, 1967.
- _____ . June 5, 1967.

_____. July 1, 1967.

Minutes of The Old Dominion Vocational Association
Industrial Arts Curriculum Workshop, (Richmond: Maggie
Walker High School, February 6-7, 1959).

Minutes of The Old Dominion Vocational Association
Constitution and By-Laws Committee, November 2, 1962.

Minutes of The Old Dominion Vocational Association
Industrial Teachers Business Annual Session, June 26,
1963.

MINUTES OF THE COUNCIL OF INDUSTRIAL CLUB
OF VIRGINIA

Meeting of the Executive Board of The Industrial Club
of Virginia, March 26, 1955.

_____. March 29, 1969.

5. PROGRAMS:

**PROGRAMS OF THE STATE CONFERENCE OF VOCATIONAL AND
INDUSTRIAL ARTS TEACHERS 1957-1964**

**State Conference of Vocational and Industrial Arts
Teachers, June 24-28, 1957.**

- _____ . June 23-27, 1958.
- _____ . June 22-26, 1959.
- _____ . June 26-30, 1961.
- _____ . June 25-29, 1962.
- _____ . June 24-28, 1963.
- _____ . June 22-26, 1964.
- _____ . June 21-25, 1965.

**PROGRAMS OF THE OLD DOMINION VOCATIONAL ASSOCIATION
1961-1962**

**The Annual Business Meeting of The Old Dominion
Vocational Association, The American Vocational
Association and The Virginia Teachers Association,
November 3, 1961.**

- _____ . November, 1962.

6. PROCEEDINGS:

**PROCEEDINGS OF THE STATE CONFERENCE OF VOCATIONAL AND
INDUSTRIAL ARTS TEACHERS 1958-1965**

**Proceedings Of The Third State Conference Of Vocational
and Industrial Arts Teachers, June 23-27, 1958.**

_____. **Fifth Annual State Conference, June 20-24,
1960.**

_____. **Sixth Annual State Conference, June 24-30,
1961.**

_____. **Ninth Annual State Conference, June 22-26,
1964.**

_____. **Tenth Annual State Conference, June 21-25,
1965.**

7. NEWSLETTERS:

Jennie Dean Echo, Vol. I. No. 1. Manassas: Jennie Dean High School, (November 8, 1962). Van Oat, Benjamin, Henry. Ties. Vol. IX. No. 5. Richmond: Trade and Industrial Education Service, State Department of Education, 1956.

The Industrial Club of Virginia Newsletter, 1st. edn., 1959.

- _____ . 1960.
- _____ . 1962.
- _____ . 1963.
- _____ . 1966-1967.

The Old Dominion Vocational Association Newsletter, Volume II, No. 1, June 1958.

- _____ . Volume II, No. 2, December 1958.
- _____ . Volume III, No. 1, June 1959.
- _____ . Volume IV, No. 1, June 1960.
- _____ . Volume IV, No. 2, December 1960.
- _____ . Volume V, No. 1, April 1961.
- _____ . Volume V, No. 2, June 1961.
- _____ . Volume V, No. 3, September 1961.
- _____ . Volume VI, No. 1, June 1962.
- _____ . Volume VIII, No. 1, June 1963.
- _____ . Volume VIII, No. 1, February 1964.
- _____ . Volume VIII, No. 2, June 1964.
- _____ . Volume IX, No. 1, June 1965.
- _____ . Volume X, No. 1, April 1966.

8. NEWSPAPERS:

Charlottesville Daily Progress, October 16, 1958.

Norfolk Virginian-Pilot, October 31, 1958.

_____. September 17, 1958.

_____. February 16, 1959.

_____. March 7, 1959.

Richmond News Leader, May 20, 1955.

_____. April 26, 1966.

Richmond Times-Dispatch, June 1, 1955.

_____. February 2, 1956.

_____. February 25, 1956.

_____. May 18, 1954.

_____. June 5, 1955.

_____. June 8, 1955.

_____. September 18, 1956.

_____. June 31, 1959.

_____. February 2, 1959.

_____. February 3, 1959.

_____. February 5, 1959.

Southern School News, February 5, 1959.

_____. July 6, 1955.

_____. September 3, 1954.

_____. August, 1961.

_____. November, 1961.

----- . June, 1962.

_____ . August, 1963.

_____ . December, 1963.

_____ . January, 1964.

_____ . May, 1964.

_____ . April, 1965.

_____ . December, 1964.

The Washington Post, March 30, 1966.

9. ARTICLES, BOOKLETS, BULLETINS, AND PAMPHLETS:

American Vocational Association, "A Guide to Improving Instruction in Industrial Arts". Washington, D. C.: Industrial Arts Policy and Planning Committee, 1953.

Derthick, Lawrence G. Trade and Technical Education in the Race for Survival. New York: National Association of Industrial Teacher Educators, American Vocational Association, 1958.

Directory of Vocational Industrial Education Programs and Industrial Arts Programs: Public Schools of Virginia, Session 1966-67. Richmond: State Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Industrial Education Service, (October), 1966.

Frank, John, Thomas A. Hughes, Jr., and Chester Lane, The Virginia Industrial Arts Association History: 1958-1978. Richmond: Virginia Industrial Arts Association, 1978.

Guide For Planning the Industrial Arts and Trade and Industrial Departments. Richmond: Virginia State Department of Education, 1948.

Houchens, H. Clay. Report of Director of Manual Training. Richmond: Richmond Public Schools, 1921-1922.

Howard, Jeff and Ray Hammond. "Rumors Of Inferiority", Voc. Ed. (September), 1985.

Industrial Arts Education: Purposes, Program, Facilities, Instruction, Supervision. Washington, D. C. American Industrial Arts Association, 1969.

Manassas Regional High School Handbook, Manassas, Virginia, 1954-1955.

Moody, Ferman. "The History of Blacks in Vocational Education", Voc. Ed., (January), 1980.

NEA Journal, "De Facto Segregation", (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, October 1965), pp. 34-36.

Regulations Governing the Certification of Teachers and the Qualifications of Administrators and Supervisors. Vol. XXII. No. 6. Richmond: State Board of Education, Division of Purchase and Printing, 1940.

Schwartz, Arthur H., Virginia Industrial Arts Association: The History, (August), 1969.

State Curriculum Guide For Industrial Arts and Vocation, "Electricity Electronics". Richmond: Virginia State Department of Education, 1967.

State Department of Education. "Course Outline For Electricity". Industrial Arts Bulletin No. 5. Richmond: Trade and Industrial Service, 1958.

State Department of Education. "Course Outline For General Drawing". Industrial Arts Bulletin No. 6. Richmond: Trade and Industrial Service, 1960.

State Department of Education. "Course Outline For Woodworking". Industrial Arts Bulletin No. 3. Richmond: Trade and Industrial Service, 1957.

Virginia Industrial Arts Association. Industrial Arts in Seventy-Six. Prince William County: Garfield High School, 1976.

Virginia Industrial Arts Handbook: Tentative Edition. Richmond: The State Board of Education, Division of Vocational Education, Trade and Industrial Education Service, 1948.

10. VEA/NEA JOURNALS:

Baker, James. "Integration in Virginia Schools". Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. LVI, No. 3. (November), 1962.

Gibbs, Nancy H. "Unification-VEA-VTA". Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. 60, No. 4. (December), 1966.

Jones, Allan. "Tuition Grants Increasing". Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. LIV, No. 6. (February), 1961.

Picott, J. Rupert. "Displacement of Experienced Teachers Without Due Process". NEA Journal. (December), 1965.

Ridley, Walter N. "NEA-ATA Unification". NEA Journal. (September), 1966.

Williams, Dr. Robert F., ed. "Pupil Scholarships: 1960-61". Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. LIV, No. 5 (January), 1961.

Williams, Dr. Robert F., "Unification". Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. 60, No. 3 (November), 1962.

_____. "Governor's Follow Up". Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. 60, No. 3 (November), 1962.

_____. "Education Pays---Again". Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. 60, No. 3 (November), 1960.

_____. "The Teacher and His Staff". Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. 60, No. 3 (November), 1960.

Public Education In Virginia, "Historical Development of Virginia's Public School System: 1870-1970", Vol. 5, No. 4 (Winter), 1970.

11. PERSONAL FILES/LETTER FILES:

Dr. William Thomas Reed's personal files were provided by his wife.

Gordon Fallensen personal files.

H. Preston Johnson personal files.

Chester Lane personal files.

Stanley letter file, Virginia State Archives.

B. SECONDARY SOURCES

1. PUBLISHED WORKS:

Alexander, Fred M. Education For the Needs of the Negro in Virginia. Washington, D. C.: The Southern Education Foundation, Inc., 1943.

Aronoff, E. Joseph. Report of the Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education. Vol. I. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1914.

Ashmore, Harry S. The Negro and the Schools. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1954.

Bartley, Numan V., and Hugh D. Graham. Southern Politics and the Second Reconstruction. Baltimore: The John Hopkins University Press, 1975.

Bartley, Numan V. The Rise of Massive Resistance: Race and Politics in the South During the 1950's.. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University, 1969.

Barzun, Jacques and Henry F. Graff. The Modern Researcher. 3rd. edn. San Diego: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1977.

Beauchamp, Edward R. Dissertations in the History of Education 1970-1980. New Jersey: Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1984.

Bennett, Charles A. History of Manual and Industrial Education Up to 1870. Illinois: Chas. A. Bennett Co., Inc., 1926.

Best, John H., ed. Historical Inquiry in Education: A Research Agenda. Washington, D. C.: American Educational Research Association, 1983.

Billington, Ray Allen. Allan Nevins on History. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1975.

Blaustein, Albert P., and Clarence C. Perquson, Jr. Desegregation and the Law: The Meaning of the School Segregation Cases. New York: Vintage Books, 1962.

- Bond, Horace, M. The Education of the Negro in the American Social Order. New York: Octagon Books, Inc., 1966.
- Boyle, Sarah Patton. The Desegregated Heart: A Virginian's Stand in Time of Transition. New York: William Morrow & Company, 1962.
- Breisach, Ernst. Historiograph: Ancient, Medieval, & Modern. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1983.
- Brickman, William W. Educational Historiography: Tradition, Theory, and Technique. Cherry Hill, New Jersey: Emeritus, Inc., Publishers, 1982.
- _____. Research in Educational History. New York: New York University Bookstore, 1973.
- Brunner, Henry S. Land-Grant Colleges and Universities. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Bulletin 1962, No. 13. Washington, D. C.: United States Government Printing Office, 1962.
- Buck, J. L. Blair. The Development of Public Schools in Virginia 1607-1952. Vol. XXXV. No. 1. Richmond: Commonwealth of Virginia State Board of Education, 1952.
- Bullock, Henry Allen. A History of Negro Education in the South: From 1619 to the Present. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1967.
- Buni, Andrew. The Negro in Virginia Politics, 1902-1965. Charlottesville: The University Press of Virginia, 1967.
- Campbell, Ernest Q. When a City Closes Its Schools. Chapel Hill: Institute for Research in Social Science University of North Carolina, 1960.
- Dabney, Virginius. Virginia: The New Dominion. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1971.
- Ely, James W. Jr. The Crisis of Conservative Virginia. Tennessee: The University of Tennessee Press, 1976.
- Evans, Rupert N. Foundations of Vocational Education.

- Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1971.
- Fitzsimons, Matthew A., Alfred G. Pundt, and Charles E. Nowell. E. The Development of Historiography. New York: Kennikat Press, Inc., 1954.
- Friddell, Guy. Colgate Darden: Conversations With Guy Friddell. Charlottesville: University Press of Virginia, 1978.
- Friese, John Frank. Course Making in Industrial Education. Illinois: Chas. A. Bennett Co., Inc., 1946.
- Gates, Robbins L. The Making of Massive Resistance: Virginia's Politics of Public School Desegregation, 1954 - 1956. Chapel Hill: North Carolina Press, 1962.
- Giachino, Joseph W. and Ralph O. Gallington. Course Construction in Industrial Arts, Vocational and Technical Education. 3rd ed. Chicago: American Technical Society, 1967.
- Gottmann, Jean. Virginia in Our Century. Charlottesville: The University Press of Virginia, 1969.
- Gottschalk, Louis. Understanding History: A Primer of Historical Method. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1950.
- Gray, Wood and others. Historians Handbook: A Key to the Study and Writing of History. 2nd ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1964.
- Hall, Clyde W. Black Vocational Technical and Industrial Arts Education. New York: American Technical Society, 1973.
- Harlan, Louis R. Separate and Unequal: Public School Campaigns and Racism in the Southern Seaboard States 1901 - 1915. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1958.
- Hockett, Homer Carey. The Critical Method in Historical Research and Writing. 3rd edn. rev. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1955.

- Hoots, W. R. "Philosophical Positions", Industrial Arts for the Elementary School. Twenty-third Yearbook, ed. R. G. Thrower. Bloomington: McKnight Publishing Company, 1974.
- Hutchins, Clayton D., Robert R. Muse, and Edna D. Booher. Federal Funds for Education: 1952 - 53 and 1953 - 54. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. Bulletin 1954. No. 14. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1954.
- Johnston, James Hugo. Race Relations in Virginia & Miscegenation in the South, 1776-1860. Amherst: The University of Massachusetts Press, 1970.
- Kaestle, Carl F. Pillars of the Republic: Common Schools and American Society: 1780 -1860..
- Keller, Franklin J. Principles of Vocational Education: The Primary of the Person. Boston: D.C. Heath and Company, 1948.
- Key, Jr., V. O. Southern Politics in State and Nation. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1950.
- Kilpatrick, James Jackson. The Sovereign States: Notes of a Citizen of Virginia. Chicago: Henry Regnery Company, 1957.
- Kurland, Philip B., and Gerhard Casper. Landmark Briefs and Arguments of the Supreme Court of the United States: Constitutional Law. Vol. 49. Brown v. Board of Education (1954 & 1955). Virginia: University Publications of America, Inc., 1975.
- Lawson, Steven F. Black Ballots: Voting Rights in the South, 1944-1969. New York: Columbia University Press, 1976.
- Lewis, Stephen Johnson. Undaunted Faith...The Life Story of Jennie Dean, 1st. edn. Catlett: The Circuit Press, 1942.
- Martin, Eugene G. Ed.D. ed. Industrial Arts Education: Retrospect, Prospect, 28th Yearbook 1979. Illinois: McKnight Publishing Company, 1979.
- Mohraz, Judy J. The Separate Problem: Case Studies of Black Education in the North, 1900-1930.

- Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1979.
- Mouly, George J. The Science of Educational Research. New York: American Book Company, 1963.
- Muse, Benjamin Virginia's Massive Resistance. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1960.
- _____. Ten Years of Prelude: The Story of Integration Since the Supreme Court's 1954 Decision. New York: Viking, 1964.
- McMillen, Neil R. The Citizens' Council: Organized Resistance to the Second Reconstruction, 1944-64. Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1971.
- Miller, W. R. "Evolution of Industrial Arts in the Elementary School Curriculum", Industrial Arts Education: Retrospect, Prospect. Twenty-eight Yearbook of the American Council on Industrial Arts Teacher Education, ed. G. E. Martin. Bloomington: McKnight Publishing Company, 1979.
- Orfield, Gary. The Reconstruction of Southern Education: The Schools and the 1964 Civil Rights Act. New York: Wiley-Interscience A Division of John Wiley & Sons, 1969. O'Shea, M. V. Public Education in Virginia: Report to the Educational Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Educational System of the State. Richmond: Davis Bottom, Superintendent Public Printing, 1928.
- Picott, J. Rupert. History of the Virginia Teachers' Association. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1975.
- Preston, Michael B., Lenneal J. Henderson, and Paul Puryear. eds. The New Black Politics: The Search For Political Power. New York: Longman Inc., 1982.
- Reeves, William J. "Neither Victims nor Masters: Ethnic and Minority Study", Historical Inquiry in Education: A Research Agenda, ed. John Hardin Best. Washington, D. C.: American Educational Research Association, 1983.
- Research in Industrial Education: Summaries of Studies 1930 - 1955. Bulletin No. 264. Series No. 65, U. S. Department of Health, and Welfare, Office of

Education. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1957.

Richardson, Archie G. The Development of Negro Education in Virginia: 1831-1970. Richmond: Phi Delta Kappa Richmond Virginia Chapter, 1976.

Roberts, Roy W. Vocational and Practical Arts Education. 2nd edn. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1965.

Rorer, Henry S. History of Norfolk Public Schools: 1681-1968. Library of Congress Number 77-206, 1968.

Saratt, Reed. The Ordeal of Desegregation: The First Decade. New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1966.

Sears, William Paul, Jr., PH.D. The Roots of Vocational Education: A Survey of the Origins of Trade and Industrial Education Found in Industry, Education, Legislation and Social Progress. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1931. Shafer, Robert J. A Guide to Historical Method. Illinois: Dorsey, 1974.

Spivey, Donald. Schooling For the New Slavery: Black Industrial Education, 1868 - 1915. Connecticut: Greenwood Press, Inc., 1978.

Stombaugh, Robert. A Survey of the Movement Culminating in Industrial Arts Education in Secondary Schools. New York: Bureau of Publication, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936.

Taylor, Alrutheus Ambush. The Negro in the Reconstruction of Virginia. Lancaster, Pa.: Lancaster Press, Inc., 1926.

Travers, Robert M. W. An Introduction to Educational Research. 4th edn. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company, Inc., 1978.

Tyack, David B. The One Best System: A History of American Urban Education. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1974.

VanDalen, Deobold B. Understanding Educational

Research: An Introduction. New York: McGraw-Hill
Book Company, Inc., 1962.

Wilkinson III, J. Harvie. Harry Byrd and the Changing
Face of Virginia Politics: 1945-1966.
Charlottesville: The University Press of Virginia,
1968.

2. UNPUBLISHED WORKS:

Baxter, William Thomas. "Status of Industrial Arts in Virginia". Unpublished masters thesis: George Peabody College For Teachers, 1931.

Gholson, Nancy Elder, "A History Of The Old Dominion Vocational Association--1939-1967". Unpublished masters thesis: Virginia State College, 1969.

Hairston, Leon T. "Reaction To The 1954 Desegregation Decision, As Seen In Five Virginia Newspapers, 1954 to 1957". Unpublished masters thesis: Virginia State College, 1974.

Harmon, C. Michael. "The History of Industrial Arts in Three Selected Virginia Public School Divisions". Unpublished masters thesis: Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, 1981.

Hawkes, Robert Thomas. "The Career of Harry Flood Byrd, Sr., to 1933". Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation: University of Virginia, 1975.

Henriques, Peter Ros. "John S. Battle and Virginia Politics: 1948-1953". Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation: University of Virginia, 1971.

King, Cecil E. "The Teaching Of Woodworking In Virginia High Schools". Unpublished masters thesis: The University of Tennessee, 1940.

Morton, Richard L. "The Negro in Virginia Politics, 1865-1902". Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation: University of Virginia, 1918.

Reed, William Thomas, "A Partial Selection Of Curriculum Content For The Improvement Of Industrial Teacher Education In Colleges For Negroes". Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation: University of Pittsburgh, 1947.

Samples, Jewell K. "The Industrial Arts Program as Organized in Virginia". Unpublished masters thesis: The University of Tennessee, 1948.

Swain, Ann. "Christiansburg Institute: From Freedman's Bureau Enterprise To Public High School". Unpublished masters thesis: Radford

College, 1975.

Thurman, Henry Louis, "A Study Of Industrial Educational Programs In A Selected Number Of Secondary Schools For Negroes In Virginia". Unpublished masters thesis: Hampton Institute, 1946).

Tynes, Walter Burnette, "A Program Of Industrial Arts For Peabody High School Petersburg, Virginia". (Unpublished masters thesis: Virginia State College, 1953.

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A
PERSONAL INTERVIEW LETTER

405 Turpin Walk
Christiansburg, VA. 24073
April 10, 1986

Mr. Rayford Harris, Sr.
Virginia State University
Petersburg, VA.

Dear Mr. Harris:

This is a follow-up letter to our phone conversation on April 4, 1986. Thank you for agreeing to assist in this research effort by allowing me to interview you on April 18, at 2:00 pm at Virginia State University.

The research will attempt to trace, reconstruct and analyze industrial arts programs offered to blacks in Virginia from 1951-1969. As you know, these were the years of which Dr. William T. Reed served as itinerant teacher-educator with the Department of Education and Virginia State College. This study will focus around the work of Dr. Reed.

In reviewing documents for the study, it appears that you have been a very active industrial arts educator. If not mistaken, you graduated from Hampton Institute, began your first teaching assignment at Blackwell Junior high school in Richmond, held several leadership positions with the Old Dominion Vocational Association, Virginia Teachers Association and worked very close with Dr. Reed with the Industrial Club of Virginia and other activities, as the State Project Fairs.

To give you an idea as to my concerns, here are a few of the many questions, you may be able to help with in my attempt to reconstruct industrial arts programs and activities offered to blacks.

1. Industrial arts on the elementary level was designed as an integral part of the elementary school curriculum to be taught by the regular classroom

teacher. Were there elementary programs in Virginia in the 50s and 60s, if so where were they located and were they treated any different than the junior or high school industrial arts programs?

2. How did the idea of the Virginia Project Fair develop and who were the leaders responsible for initiating the idea? Was there a similar activity for white programs?

3. How were industrial arts programs funded on the local and state levels? What formulas were used to determine the amount of fund allotted?

4. What were Dr. Reed's position responsibilities and how did you and other black classroom teachers work with him?

5. What was the state's philosophy for industrial arts programs in general? Was there a difference in black and white programs? and Were there problems with distinguishing industrial education programs and industrial arts programs?

6. Do you know of documents that focus on industrial arts programs for blacks?

7. Were there state conferences for black industrial arts teachers?

8. Following the Brown decision which ruled the "separate but equal" philosophy in Virginia's public schools unconstitutional, what impact did the massive resistance effort have on industrial arts programs? Was there tension, resistance or complaints directed toward the state education agencies from local programs? How did black teachers and professional organizations react to the state's reaction, i.e., the Gray Commission Report, articles in the Richmond Times Dispatch, closing of schools, the Perrow Commission, Governors Stanley and Almond's local option plans? How did Dr. Reed and other leaders respond to Virginia's political reactions?

9. The term "centers" was used in describing black schools in the early years, please explain?

10. What happen to black teacher and student organizations as the system moved to desegregate in the late 1960s?

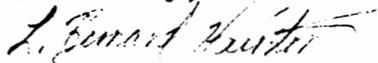
11. Do you know of others who may have information to contribute to this study?

12. How were black schools, industrial arts teachers, students and programs affected as a result of the desegregation efforts? What were advantages and disadvantages of school integration?

Ray, these questions provide examples to some of my unanswered questions. As you can see I have a tough assignment and I will appreciate any assistance you may provide.

I will look forward to seeing you and recording your comments. It is very important that we not lose sight of our history. I thank you again for your support.

Sincerely,



L. Bernard Hairston

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

STRUCTURE OF VIRGINIA PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
1951-52
THE PEOPLE OF VIRGINIA

State Board of Education
Formulation of Policies

Superintendent of Public Instruction
Executes Policies of State Board, Secretary of Education
Secretary of Board
Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction

Director
Division of
Research and
Planning

Director
Division of
Rehabilitation
and
Special Education

Director
Division of
Instruction

Director
Division of
Vocational Education

State
Supervisors
Research
School Buildings
& Transportation

State Supervisors
Rehabilitation
Special Education
Woodrow Wilson
Rehabilitation Center

Associate
Directors

State Supervisors
Vocational Agriculture
Home Economics
Business Education
Distributive Education
Trade & Ind. Education
Veterans Training
Surplus Property

State Supervisor
Secondary Education
Elementary Education
Guidance
Art
Music
Physical Education
Textbooks & Library
Teaching Materials
Film Production

Division Superintendents

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

THE INDUSTRIAL CLUB OF VIRGINIA CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS

ARTICLE I

NAME

The name of this organization shall be the Industrial Club of Virginia.

Members of local chapters are hereinafter referred to as members of The Industrial Club of Virginia.

ARTICLE II

The purposes for which this organization is formed are as follows:

1. To cultivate high scholastic standards among industrial students.
2. To aid students in the side selection of industrial occupations.
3. To encourage greater interest in trade and industrial courses among high school students.
4. To become familiar with requirements and opportunities in the industrial field.
5. To develop leadership with requirements and opportunities in the industrial field.
6. To encourage fellowship among students enrolled in industrial courses.
7. To exchange ideas and to cooperate in the development of them.

ARTICLE III

ORGANIZATION

Section A. The State Industrial Club of Virginia is a state wide organization of affiliated local chapters in schools having organized

training programs for the development of industrial students.

Section B. Local chapters of the Industrial Club of Virginia shall be established only in schools which offer organized instruction in industrial subjects.

ARTICLE IV

MEMBERSHIP

Section A. Membership shall be limited to clubs in the State of Virginia who are interested in the purpose of this club and in its educational moral, and sound measures. Members may be active, associate, or honorary.

Section B. The executive committee shall present the name of an applicant club for membership in writing. If the applicant receives an affirmative vote of three-fourths of the members present, that club shall be elected to membership upon payment of dues.

Section C. The Annual dues shall be 25 cents per year for active members and 25 cents per year for associate members.

Section D. Associate members shall have all the privileges of the club, excepting those of voting and holding office, and shall be expected to take part in the program.

Section E. Any local club desiring to resign from the State Club shall present the resignation in writing to the secretary who shall present it at the next annual meeting of the club for action.

ARTICLE V

ADVISORY BOARD AND ADULT ADVISERS

Section A. Advisory Board will be composed of each individual club sponsor, with a chairman and vice chairman.

ARTICLE VI

OFFICERS

- Section A. The officers of this club shall be president, vice president, secretary, treasurer, assistant secretary, chaplain, corresponding secretary, and parliamentarian.
- Section B. At the annual meeting held in March _____, a nominating committee of five shall be appointed by the president and two nominated by the floor. It shall be the duty of this committee to nominate candidates for the office to be filled and to represent the list of candidates at the annual meeting in March. All officers shall be elected to serve one year or until their successors are elected.
- Section C. No officers shall be eligible to two consecutive terms in the same office except the treasurer.
- Section D. No senior can hold the office as vice president but seniors are eligible to hold any other office.

ARTICLE VII

MEETINGS

- Section A. The regular meeting of the Industrial Club of Virginia shall be held in the month of March on a Saturday. The Executive Board or the Advisory Council may make any necessary changes.
- Section B. The regular meeting held in March shall be known as the Annual Meeting and shall be for the purpose of electing officers, receiving annual reports, and any other business that may arise.
- Section C. Special meetings may be called by the president or executive board, or the request of fifteen members.

ARTICLE VIII

THE EXECUTIVE BOARD

Section A. The officers of the club shall constitute the Executive Board.

Section B. The Executive Board shall have general supervision over the officers of the club between its business meetings. The Executive Board is subject to the orders of the club and none of its acts shall conflict with actions taken by the body.

Section C. Regular meetings of the Executive Board shall be held once a year in the month of November.

Section D. Five members of the Executive Board shall constitute a quorum.

ARTICLE IX

AMENDMENTS

This constitution may be amended at any regular business meeting of the club by a two-thirds vote provided the amendments have been submitted in writing at the previous business meeting.

ARTICLE X

EMERGENCY CLAUSE

In case of emergency, all officers may be retained until the emergency ends.

ARTICLE XI

BY-LAWS

Section A. State dues for active and associated members of the Industrial Club of Virginia shall be 25 cents per year. State dues are payable on or before February 1, annually.

Section B. The club colors shall be Blue and Gold.

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

THE OLD DOMINION INDUSTRIAL TEACHERS
CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS

CONSTITUTION

Article I

Name

- Section 1. The name of this organization shall be The Old Dominion Industrial Teachers.

Article II

Purpose

- Section 1. To promote within the teacher group the highest type of professional practices; to encourage active participation of all teachers in the solution of school problems, and to encourage the exchange of ideas among industrial teachers.

- Section 2. To encourage every member of the profession to improve the quality of instruction in industrial education by assisting educators, students and all others concerned to keep instructional contents, methods and equipment current, and to arouse allegiance to a genuine spirit of professional ethics.

Article III

Membership

- Section 1. Membership in this organization shall be either regular or student.

Article IV

Officers and Executive Committee

- Section 1. The officers of this organization shall be a president, first vice president, second vice president, recording secretary, corresponding secretary,

treasurer, chaplain, parliamentarian and the district representatives as appointed by the president. The second vice president shall be elected from the student membership.

Section 2. The executive committee shall consist of the above named officers, the immediate past president and others as designated by the executive committee.

Article V

Affiliation

Section 1. This organization shall affiliate with The Old Dominion Vocational Association and The American Vocational Association.

Article VI

Amendments

Section 1. An amendment to the Constitution may be introduced at any regular meeting of the House of Delegates, to be acted on at a subsequent regular meeting, but not later than two subsequent regular meetings of this organization. A copy of such amendments shall be mailed to the membership at least 30 days prior to date for adoption.

Section 2. Amendments shall pass upon a majority vote of the House of Delegates.

BY-LAWS

Article I

Duties and Terms of Officers

- Section 1. All officers shall be elected by ballot and installed at the annual meeting. Each officer shall serve for two years. If a vacancy occurs in an office, it shall be filled by appointment of the executive committee, excepting the office of the president and the person so chosen shall serve only to the end of the unexpired term.
- Section 2. The president shall preside at all meetings of the organization and of the executive committee. He shall, with the recording secretary, sign all vouchers authorized by the executive committee. He shall appoint all committees not otherwise provided for, and shall be an ex-officio member of all committees.
- Section 3. The first vice president shall assume all duties of the president in the absence of the president. The second vice president shall assume all duties of the president and shall preside over any separate meetings of the student membership.
- Section 4. The recording secretary shall keep a record of all meetings of the organization and of the executive committee. He shall prepare and keep on file a correct list of the names and addresses of the members and of the executive committee. Together with the president he shall sign all vouchers. The corresponding secretary shall be appointed by the president and be responsible for all communications of this organization.
- Section 5. The treasurer shall have charge of all funds of the organization, shall deposit them in the bank in the name of the

organization and shall disburse them as authorized.

Section 6. The chaplain shall open and close all meetings or designate someone to carry out the same.

Section 7. The parliamentarian shall be the authority for all parliamentary procedures of this organization.

Article II

District Representatives

Section 1. The district representative shall be responsible for the organization of the district which he represents and should encourage membership in this organization The Old Dominion Vocational Association and The American Vocational Association.

Article III

Executive Committee

Section 1. The executive committee shall expedite in every possible way the legislative and executive business. This committee shall meet at least twice during the year and at the call of the president.

Article IV

Nominations and Elections

Section 1. The nominating committee, appointed at the summer conference, shall submit a slate of officers to be voted on at the next annual meeting.

Article V

Meetings of Members

Section 1. The annual business meeting shall be held during the summer conference.

Section 2. Other meetings may be arranged as deemed

necessary by the executive committee.

Article VI

Types of Membership

- Section 1. Regular membership shall be open to all persons who are engaged in industrial education as teachers, supervisors, or teacher educators.
- Section 2. Student membership shall be open to all persons enrolled as an industrial education student.

Article VII

Dues

- Section 1. The annual dues shall be \$2.00 for The Old Dominion Industrial Teacher and the assessed dues for The Old Dominion Vocational Association and The American Vocational Association.
- Section 2. Those members paying dues at the annual meeting shall have their dues credited for the remainder of the current membership year and for the next membership year.

Article VIII

Miscellaneous

- Section 1. The fiscal year and membership year of this organization shall be from July 1st to June 30th of the succeeding year.

Article IX

Quorum

- Section 1. A quorum for the annual meeting of this organization shall be 10 members and a quorum for committee meetings shall be a majority of the members of the committee.

Article X

Amendments

- Section 1. An amendment to the By-Laws may be introduced at any regular meeting of the House of Delegates, to be acted on at a subsequent regular meeting but not later than two subsequent regular meetings of this organization. A copy of such amendments shall be mailed to the membership at least 30 days prior to date for adoption.
- Section 2. Amendments shall pass upon a majority vote of the House of Delegates.

Article XI

Rules of Order

- Section 1. Robert's Rules of Order, Revised shall be the authority on all questions of procedure not specifically stated in this Constitution and By-Laws.

VITA

Personal Date:

Born: June 26, 1952
Martinsville, Virginia

Family: Married to Gwendolyn L. Hairston

Education:

Martinsville Senior High School,
Martinsville, Va. (1970)

Norfolk State University, B.S. degree
Norfolk, Va. (1974)

Virginia State University, M.Ed.
Petersburg, Va. (1976)

Employment:

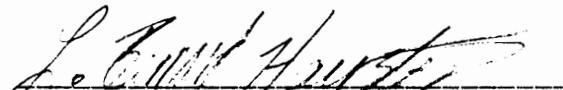
Stafford County Public Schools, Teacher
Stafford, Va. (1975-1979)

State Department of Education, AIASA Specialist
Richmond, VA. (1980-1983)

Virginia Tech, Graduate Assistant
Blacksburg, Va. (1983-1985)

Virginia Tech, Financial Aid Administrator
Blacksburg, Va. (1985-1986)

Roanoke City School, Vocational Administrator
Roanoke, Va. (present)


L. Bernard Hairston