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A study of the dropout problem with emphasis on educational programs and services for potential dropouts in the Richmond Public Schools

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A STUDY OF THE DROPOUT PROBLEM WITH EMPHASIS ON
EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AND SERVICES FOR
POTENTIAL DROPOUTS IN THE
RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS

A Thesis
Presented to
The Graduate Faculty of
The University of Richmond

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Science in Education

by
Marshall Lewis Waring

June 1967

APPROVAL SHEET

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Teachers and administrators in the field of public education realize that some of the nation's youth do not remain in school for the years which are provided for them. The public in general has been unaware of the challenge presented by the dropout. The late President John F. Kennedy, in his State of the Union address in January 1963, spoke of the problem as a "waste we cannot afford":

The future of any country which is dependent on the will and wisdom of its citizens is damaged, and irreparably damaged, whenever any of its children is not educated to the fullest extent of his capacity, from grade school through graduate school. Today, an estimated four out of 10 students in the fifth grade will not even finish high school -- and that is a waste we cannot afford.

This would appear to be a national disgrace. However, it must be remembered that in most nations of the world, education beyond a minimum stage is the privilege of only a fairly small and select group. "In Canada two-thirds of the students leave before graduation from high school, while in Mexico 98 per cent drop out before finishing grade 6."¹ Since the philosophy of education in the United States is different from that of other countries, a comparison may not be valid.

¹Daniel Schreiber, (editor), Guidance and The School Dropout (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association and the American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1964), p. 2.

In the United States from 1900 to 1904 only twenty per cent of those entering elementary school reached the ninth grade.² Eighteen years ago the national high school dropout rate was more than fifty per cent; however in 1950, for the first time in the history of the United States, more students graduated from high school than dropped out.³

Much has been written in the last few years about dropouts. One can scarcely read a newspaper without some reference being made to dropouts. Why is so much emphasis being directed toward the dropout? Why has the dropout become a problem?

Probably the most important factor is the population "boom." In the last few years the "war babies" have become of age to enter the labor market.

In the next ten years, 30 million young people will be added to the work force . . . 7.5 million of these will be without a high school diploma and 2.5 million will not have finished the eighth grade.⁴

In addition to the number seeking employment, automation will take its toll. It may be debatable whether automation creates as many jobs as it eliminates, and it certainly changes the types of

²Joseph Rotella, "Factors Influencing the Holding Power of the School" (unpublished Master's thesis, The University of Richmond, Virginia, 1941), p. 5, citing Edward L. Thorndike, "Elimination of Pupils from School," U. S. Office of Education Bulletin No. 4, 1907 (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office).

³Schreiber, loc. cit.

⁴Rufus W. Beamer, "Changes in Vocational Education," Virginia Journal of Education, February 1966, p. 27, citing The Educational Record, Fall 1964.

workers needed. Automation creates jobs usually requiring a high degree of skill. Therefore, automation will make it more difficult for the dropout to find employment.

Also, there is some concern about the shift in population that is and will be taking place. Job opportunities are rapidly declining in the rural areas, since ". . . in 1950, there were 9.5 million persons, ages 10-19, living in rural areas; in 1960, 10 years later, there were 6.1 million persons, ages 20-29, living in such areas."⁵ This is a decrease of thirty-six per cent in this employable age bracket in rural areas.

The dropout has become a problem because of the dim future he faces in a world in which there is a diminishing place for him.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

Students remain in the Richmond Public Schools as long as their educational experiences at school are interesting and meaningful. The public schools of the city of Richmond are restricted in providing interesting and meaningful experiences for all students. Therefore, the problem that some pupils drop out of school exists.

⁵Schreiber, op. cit., p. 3.

II. PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study are (1) to describe the dropout situation and provide statistics concerning this problem in the United States, Virginia, and Richmond and (2) to describe the programs and services for potential dropouts which tend to improve the holding power of Richmond's public schools.

Value of the Study

This thesis provides background information necessary for a better understanding of the dropout situation.

There exists no one source from which teachers, administrators, and laymen can learn about the various programs and services offered by the Richmond Public Schools to deal with the dropout problem. This problem is becoming more acute with the passing of time. Facts need to be assembled to determine the courses of action to take for the future. Laymen need to be well informed. If the public understands the problems, it should be more willing to support programs directed toward solutions. This study should show, to some extent at least, what Richmond is attempting to accomplish in this area. Therefore, this study should prove helpful to those interested in the progress of the city of Richmond.

III. DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Dropout. Any pupil who terminates his education before high school graduation, or before completion of a program of studies and without transferring to another school, is a dropout. Other studies examined did not include "death" as a cause for leaving school before graduation. However, it will be included in this study since Richmond includes it in the city's statistics on dropouts.

Potential dropout. A potential dropout is any pupil who displays many of the symptoms usually associated with dropouts.

Dropout rate. The dropout rate is found by dividing the number of dropouts by the enrollment.

Holding power. Holding power is determined by the number of pupils who entered grade nine in a given year and the number who graduated four years later. The United States Office of Education starts with grade five as a base to determine the holding power. One study used grade ten as a starting point.⁶

Rate of holding power. This statistic is found by dividing the number of graduates by the number of students who entered the grade used as a base.

⁶Daniel Schreiber, Holding Power/Large City School Systems (Washington, D.C.: The National Education Association, 1964), p. 13.

Vocational school. A vocational school is designed to offer education or training in skilled or semi-skilled occupations, such as agriculture, homemaking, business, distribution, or industry.

Industrial arts. Industrial arts is a course in the junior and senior high schools designed to aid students to discover their interests and aptitudes.

Technical institute. A technical institute is a school at the post-high school level but lower than college level offering training between the skilled and professional level. Such courses might include electronic, mechanical, industrial, chemical, civil, and refrigeration technology.

IV. SOURCES OF DATA

Much of the material for this study was obtained from personal interviews with those connected with public education in the city of Richmond and those concerned with the welfare of children.⁷ Some of the statistical information used in this thesis was obtained from the Department of Research and Development of the Richmond Public Schools, the Virginia State Department of Education, the Virginia Education Association, the Virginia Employment Commission, and the National Education Association.

⁷Infra, Chapter IV, et passim. (Also Bibliography).

V. PREVIEW OF THE STUDY

In Chapter II an attempt will be made to give the reader a description of the Richmond Public Schools and plans for the school system's future growth and development.

Chapter III will provide a description of the dropout problem in general with a detailed analysis of the problem in Richmond.

Chapter IV will describe the programs and services for potential dropouts offered by the Richmond Public Schools.

Chapter V will contain the summary and conclusions with recommendations and suggestions to improve the situation in Richmond.

CHAPTER II

RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS

This chapter will attempt to help the reader understand the Richmond Public Schools by presenting some background information about the city's school system.

I. DESCRIPTION OF CONTEXT WITHIN WHICH THESE SCHOOLS OPERATE

Introductory Data

The Richmond Public Schools serve an area of 39.9 square miles.¹ The budget has grown from over \$11.2 million for the 1958-59 school year to over \$19.8 million for the 1965-66 school year.²

Personnel Positions and Administrative Organization

The number of personnel positions for 1965-66 school year was 2,804.³ Included in this number are thirty-two administrative positions. The line and staff type of administrative organization is used, but actual practice sometimes dictates flexibility. This is particularly true when the administrative assistant to the superintendent will act for the superintendent.

¹Richmond Chamber of Commerce, Richmond Area Facts in Figures (Richmond, Virginia: Chamber of Commerce, 1966.)

²Richmond Public Schools, School Board Budget, (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, 1958-59, 1965-66), p. 11.

³Ibid.

Value of Buildings

The buildings, including contents, are valued at more than fifty-five million dollars. The land on which the buildings and playgrounds are located is valued at slightly less than three million dollars.⁴

Number and Organizations of Schools by Grades.

The Richmond Public Schools operate sixty-one school facilities, with a total of 1,604 classrooms, located in various parts of the city. These consist of thirty-eight elementary schools, ten junior high schools, five senior high schools, two ungraded schools, and six schools for special education.⁵ These figures are somewhat misleading. Table I shows the diversity of the organization of these schools. A school with a JPl-9 organizational structure is counted as a junior high school. Yet it is actually an elementary-junior high combination.

Courses of Study Offered

The Richmond Public Schools offer three courses of study, academic, business, and general, leading to a diploma. These are shown in Table II with the minimum requirements for each. The student has some flexibility in choosing his courses which is done with the help of his parents and counselor. The academic, however, is the

⁴Richmond Public Schools, School Board Budget, 1965-66, op. cit., p. 8.

⁵Richmond Public Schools, Facts about Your Schools (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, April 1965), p. 1.

TABLE I
 THE ORGANIZATION OF THE RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS
 BY GRADE LEVELS 1965-1966

Grades	No. of Schools
JP1-JP3*	1
JP1-JP2	1
JP1-4	2
JP1-5	1
JP1-6	29
JP1-7	2
JP1-8	1
JP1-9	2
JP1-3 and 7-9	1
2-6	1
6-9	1
7-8	2
7-9	3
8-12	1
9-12	2
10-12	2
Special Education	6
Ungraded	2

* JP is the abbreviation for Junior Primary, which includes two semesters of kindergarten (JP 1-2) and two semesters of first grade (JP 3-4).

TABLE II

THE THREE COURSES OF STUDY OFFERED BY THE
 RICHMOND PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS WITH THE
 MINIMUM DIPLOMA REQUIREMENTS FOR EACH

Subjects	Academic Units	Business Units	General Units
English	5	5	5
Mathematics	4	3	3
U. S. History (grade 8)	1	1	1
World History and Geography	1	1	1
Va. and U. S. History	1	1	1
Government and Economics	1	1	1
Laboratory Science	3	3	3
Foreign Language	3	0	0
Health & Physical Ed. or Military	1	1	1
Additional units for specific program	0	3 to 5	3 to 5
Electives	<u>3</u>	<u>2 to 4</u>	<u>2 to 4</u>
Total	23	23	23

Source: High School Requirements (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, February 1965).

least flexible of the three. Chapter IV presents the alternatives available to students not inclined toward academic work.

Comparison of Operating Expenditures with Virginia and the United States

Richmond compares favorably with Virginia and the United States in a comparison of operating expenditures as is shown in Table III. It is interesting to note that Richmond spends more of its budget for instruction than the average for Virginia or the United States.

Cost of Operation Per Pupil

The cost of operation per pupil in average daily attendance has continuously increased in Richmond, as it has for the entire state. Richmond maintained its rank in the state until 1962-63 when it dropped from third to seventh place. Table IV shows that for the seven-year period, 1958-59 through 1964-65, Richmond's cost per pupil increased more than \$100, while the median for cities increased less than \$90, and the state of Virginia increased the median cost per pupil more than \$110.

Population Problems

One of the biggest problems facing the Richmond Public Schools is the city's changing population. In the first place, the population of Richmond is very mobile. According to the Richmond Chamber of Commerce more than one hundred thousand people moved into or away

TABLE III
 COMPARISON OF OPERATING EXPENDITURES
 BY BUDGET CATEGORIES - 1964-1965
 (Percentages)

	Richmond	Virginia	U. S.
Administration	1.7	1.9	3.8
Instruction	81.7	79.4	75.1
Other School Services	1.9	6.2	4.9
Operation of Plant	9.0	7.6	9.6
Maintenance of Plant	5.4	3.8	3.2
Fixed Charges	<u>0.3</u>	<u>1.1</u>	<u>3.4</u>
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Budget Highlights (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, 1966-1967).

TABLE IV

THE COST OF OPERATION PER PUPIL IN A.D.A.*
 FOR THE YEARS 1958-59 -- 1964-65
 IN VIRGINIA, CITIES IN VIRGINIA, AND RICHMOND

Year	Median for State **	Median for Cities **	Richmond **	Richmond's Rank in State ***
1958-59	\$242.67	\$272.29	\$300.91	3
1959-60	256.07	278.66	317.14	3
1960-61	273.80	294.36	338.77	3
1961-62	290.42	313.83	355.31	3
1962-63	312.40	329.32	366.48	7
1963-64	329.45	337.46	386.35	6
1964-65	353.18	361.75	408.78	6

* Debt service and capital outlay excluded.

** Annual Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction (Volumes 42-48, Richmond, Virginia: State Board of Education, 1958-65).

*** "Ability and Effort and Cost of Education," VEA Research Service (Richmond, Virginia: The Virginia Education Association, 1961-65).

from the metropolitan Richmond area between 1955 and 1960.⁶ For further evidence of Richmond's mobility, the 1960 United States Census Bureau reports the following facts regarding persons in Richmond five or more years of age who were reported as living in the same house on the date of enumeration in 1960 and five years prior to enumeration:⁷

	<u>No. of White</u>	<u>No. of Non-white</u>	<u>Total</u>
Persons five years and over in 1960 who were residents in 1955	118,788	80,115	198,903
Residents in 1955 who were living in the same house in 1960	59,202	37,904	97,106
Number moved	59,586	42,211	101,797

These figures, showing the number moved, do not necessarily mean that these people left the city. The move could have been within the city's boundaries. Yet, the shifting of more than one half of the residents makes the planning and administering of the school system more difficult.

Secondly, there is a decrease in the total population; the more affluent white population is leaving the city and moving to

⁶News item in the Richmond Times-Dispatch, September 2, 1965, citing the Richmond Chamber of Commerce research bulletin, September 1, 1965.

⁷United States Bureau of the Census, Eighteenth Census of the United States: 1960. Population (Washington: Government Printing Office).

the suburbs. The decrease of the white population, the increase of Negroes and other races, as well as the change in the total population, is shown by these figures from the United States Census Bureau:⁸

	<u>1950</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>Change</u>
White	157,228	127,627	-29,601
Negro	72,996	91,972	18,976
Other races	<u>86</u>	<u>359</u>	<u>273</u>
Total	230,310	219,958	-10,352

Thirdly, although the total population has declined, the school census shows an increase in the number of children, as can be seen from Table V. This table reveals that the number of white children declined approximately five thousand from 1955-65 and the number of Negro children increased almost ten thousand. Also, it shows that the number of males was nearly equal to the number of females with the exception of 1965 when there was a slightly higher number of males, both white and Negro, than females.

Pupil-teacher Ratio

The pupil-teacher ratio has generally improved since 1959-60 with the exception of 1962-63 when the number of teachers decreased eleven and the enrollment increased more than one thousand. Table VI shows this general improvement of pupil-teacher ratio in both the elementary and secondary schools.

⁸United States Bureau of the Census, Seventeenth Census of the United States, 1950. Population, and Eighteenth Census of the United States, 1960. Population (Washington: Government Printing Office.)

TABLE V

SCHOOL CENSUS FOR RICHMOND BY RACE AND SEX, 1955-1965
AGES 7-19, INC.

Year	White			Negro			White & Negro
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Total
1955	10,649	10,879	21,528	7,049	7,182	14,231	35,759
1960	9,535	9,385	18,920	8,968	8,930	17,898	36,818
1965	8,626	8,057	16,683	12,030	11,790	23,820	40,503

Source: Annual Report, Superintendent of Public Instruction (Volumes 42, 43, and 48.
Richmond, Virginia: State Board of Education. 1958-60 and 1964-65).

TABLE VI

NUMBER OF TEACHERS AND PUPIL-TEACHER RATIO
 RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS -- 1959-1965

Year	Number of Teachers*	Pupil-teacher Ratio**		
		Elementary	Secondary	Combined
1958-59	1504	27.9	24.0	26.5
1959-60	1536	27.2	24.5	26.2
1960-61	1597	27.5	23.6	26.0
1961-62	1650	27.2	23.1	25.6
1962-63	1639	27.3	23.9	26.0
1963-64	1706	26.8	23.4	25.5
1964-65	1770	25.7	23.2	24.9

*Annual Report of the Richmond Public Schools (Richmond, Virginia: The School Board of the City of Richmond, 1958-65).

**School Board Budget (Richmond, Virginia: The City of Richmond, 1960-61 and 1965-66).

Rank of Richmond in Ability and Effort

The rank of Richmond in the state of Virginia in regard to the city's ability per child in average daily attendance has dropped considerably beginning with 1962-63. Although the city's rank in ability dropped from five in 1958-59 to twenty-four in 1964-65, the city has maintained its rank in effort for this seven-year-period as shown in Table VII.

Federal Aid

The decline in the total population, the increase in the number of Negroes who share a lower proportion of the tax burden, a continued increase in the school enrollment, a continued effort to lower the pupil-teacher ratio, an increase in the cost of education, and an increase in the demand for the services provided, made it necessary for the city of Richmond to seek available financial aid from the federal government.

Through the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, the Richmond School Board accepted in June 1965 a grant for more than a million dollars from the Office of Economic Opportunity to finance compensatory educational activities such as summer school for 4,500 pupils, a summer program for 1,251 preschool children, a remedial reading program for 1,500 pupils, and a school-community coordination program designed to focus the resources of the school and community on the problems of 13,600 disadvantaged children.⁹ These compensatory educational

⁹James W. Tyler, "Federal Funds Bring New School Programs," RPS Report Card (Vol. I, No. I. Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, March 1966), pp. 2-4.

TABLE VII

RANK OF RICHMOND WITH THE STATE OF VIRGINIA
IN ABILITY AND EFFORT FOR 1958-59 - 1964-65

Year	Based on True Values for Year	Ability* per Child in ADA	Rank	Effort** (True Rate)	Rank
1958-59	1956	\$32,902	5	\$.78	7
1959-60	1956	32,763	5	.81	7
1960-61	1956	31,895	6	.88	8
1961-62	1962	37,343	7	.78	5
1962-63	1962	29,542	14	.99	7
1963-64	1962	26,197	21	1.07	6
1964-65	1964	27,655	24	1.06	7

*Wealth back of each school-child taxable for school purposes.

**Local tax rate for schools per \$100 true value of property.

Source: VEA Research Reports 1958-65.

activities are known as the "Human Development Programs." Some of the aspects of these programs will be presented in more detail in Chapter IV.

After the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, the Richmond Public Schools received \$1,353,637 to increase the educational opportunities of educationally deprived children through programs such as a summer program for cultural development of seven thousand children in economically and educationally deprived areas, employment of teacher aides for schools in low income and culturally deprived areas to enable more individual instruction of 2,060 children, the employment of additional teachers to reduce the pupil-teacher ratio in schools having a high concentration of children from low-income families, a provision for elementary counselors to serve 1,198 elementary school children, the purchase of mobile laboratories to be used for the instruction and testing of children with visual handicaps, speech impediments, hearing, and reading difficulties, and the construction of a special educational facility for 150 children in the vicinity of the Woodville Elementary School.¹⁰

II. PLANS FOR FUTURE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Richmond, in its plans for the future growth and development of its school system, will attempt to provide additional school

¹⁰Ibid.

facilities, some of which should be beneficial to potential dropouts by relieving present crowded facilities, offering additional opportunities, and a general improvement of present facilities.

Richmond is planning to build six new schools, add to the cafeteria at Armstrong High School, construct a special education facility, air condition the auditoriums in the five senior high schools, and add elementary classrooms as needed. Table VIII lists these projects with their costs, years of construction, and capacity of buildings.

The new schools are to be built to relieve present crowded facilities, as well as to meet the needs of various areas where the pupil population is expected to continue to increase. Some are needed now to relieve already crowded facilities.

The Navy Hill Replacement is necessary because the present facility will be demolished to allow the construction of an interchange for Interstate Routes 64 and 95.

The new Virginia Mechanics Institute (vocational-technical school), the largest item on the list, will replace the present inadequate facility at the old Virginia Mechanics Institute. This new technical, vocational, and educational center, to be located near Acca Bridge, will serve to supplement the technical and vocational facilities of Richmond's five existing high schools. It will also serve as a facility for post-high-school technical education of less than college level, as well as provide for the adult educational needs of the community. (It may be of interest to mention here that the Richmond Public Schools is attempting at the present time to

TABLE VIII

PROJECTS FOR FUTURE GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT
OF THE RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS THROUGH 1970
WITH TOTAL COST, YEAR OF CONSTRUCTION, AND CAPACITY OF SCHOOL

Schools or Project	Estimated Total Cost	Year of Construction	Capacity of School
Junior high school near George Wythe High School	\$1,826,000	1968-69	1,000
Junior-senior high school in East End	2,728,500	1966-67	1,500
Elementary school in East End	1,191,000	1965-66	1,000
Navy Hill Replacement	401,000	1966-67	600
Junior high school in near West End	2,501,000	1969-70	1,500
New Virginia Mechanics Institute	3,791,000	1965-66	Not specified
Special education facility	801,000	1967-68	Not specified

TABLE VIII(continued)

Schools or Project	Estimated Total Cost	Year of Construction	Capacity of School
Undesignated elementary school projects	1,800,000	1967-70	20 additional classrooms per year
Addition and alterations to cafeteria and kitchen at Armstrong High School	180,000	1965-66	Not specified
Air conditioning auditoriums in five senior high schools	<u>400,000</u>	1967-68	Not specified
Total Cost	<u>\$15,619,500</u>		

Source: School Board Budget (Richmond, Virginia: The City of Richmond, 1965-66).

obtain the necessary funds to establish a Mathematics-Science Center at this same location.)

The special education facility is needed for mentally retarded junior and senior high school pupils who are now housed in inadequate facilities and operating from two locations. This new building will bring these groups together at a site yet to be determined.

Elementary school enrollments are expected to continue to increase to the extent that approximately twenty additional classrooms a year will be needed over the next five years. These are listed as undesignated elementary school projects since their locations are not known at this time.

An addition to the cafeteria at Armstrong High School is needed because of an increase in the number of pupils being fed in this school. This school was originally designed to accommodate fifteen hundred pupils, yet the enrollment for the past few years has been near two thousand. Also, the dining areas are adaptable to provide for large group instructional facilities which are needed at the school.

The auditoriums in the five senior high schools need to be air-conditioned because they are in constant use by large numbers of students for instructional purposes. Also, public meetings are often held in these facilities if there is no conflict with the school's program.

III. SUMMARY

This chapter presented some background information about the Richmond Public Schools and plans for its future growth and development.

The city's school budget almost doubled from 1958 through 1966. The school system's employees number nearly three thousand. The sixty-one buildings and grounds used by the schools are valued at slightly less than sixty million dollars.

The Richmond Public Schools offer the academic, business, and general courses of study which may lead to a diploma.

Richmond compares favorably with Virginia and the United States in a comparison of operating expenditures and spends more of its budget for instruction than the average for Virginia or the United States. However, Richmond has dropped in its rank in the state with regard to the cost of operation per pupil.

The city of Richmond has a changing population. Since the population is very mobile, school planning is made more difficult. A decrease in the total population, an increase in the school population, and the exodus of the more affluent white population have created additional problems for the city.

Although the city's rank in ability per child in average daily attendance has dropped, it has improved its pupil-teacher ratio and maintained its rank in effort to support public education.

The city has received available financial aid from the federal government to help with problems the city faces in providing educational programs for the city's educationally disadvantaged children.

The city's planned school facilities should be beneficial to potential dropouts.

CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION OF THE DROPOUT PROBLEM

I. THE DROPOUT SITUATION

General Background

Unfortunately, too few people are aware of the seriousness of the dropout situation. They do not grasp the consequences, and therefore, do not feel any sense of urgency to do very much about the problem. The future must be considered when "this decade's expected 7.5 million dropouts will be all but useless in a world where, by 1970, not more than five per cent of all available jobs will be of the unskilled variety."¹

It is somewhat ironic that "one of the major problems confronting the leaders of our Nation today is the acute shortage of competent manpower."² This is further documented by "the fact that the number of available, but unfilled, skilled jobs in the United States is generally equal to the number of those unemployed because they possess no skills."³

¹Daniel Schreiber, "School Dropouts," NEA Journal, (May 1962), p. 52.

²U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Office of Education. Retention in High Schools in Large Cities (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1960), p. V.

³Schreiber, "School Dropouts," loc. cit.

Those dropouts who overcome the difficulty of obtaining useful employment may find that the jobs available to them are of the lowest level, offering little hope for advancement. This adds to the dropout's frustration and despair.

The 1966 World Almanac reports that approximately 5,200,000 young people aged 14 to 24 were not high school graduates and were not enrolled in school in October 1963. This should not be surprising considering the fact that 750,000 drop out of school each year in the United States and that "two-thirds of the unemployed men and women in the United States possess less than a high-school education."⁴

The sixteen thousand children who drop out of high school in Virginia each year, or an annual dropout rate of 4.7 per cent, exceeds the total population of such localities as Fredericksburg, Waynesboro, or Fairfax.

In Richmond the number of dropouts from secondary schools averages about one thousand pupils per year. This means about 5.5 students drop out of school per school day or the equivalent of over thirty-three classrooms with thirty students in each in a year's time. This is indeed a tragic situation. What is being done to improve this condition will be presented in Chapter IV.

Publicity

There has been an increased effort to bring the dropout situation

⁴Ibid.

to the attention of the public through much publicity in recent years.

One such attempt was a televised program in Richmond over WCVE, Channel 23, on October 21, 1964. The program gave illustrations of some of the problems involved such as reading difficulties, the desire for material things -- consequently the "need" for a job, parental difficulties in handling certain situations, the loneliness of dropouts since most of them have few friends, and some of the possible alternatives open to a potential dropout. Also, a statement was made that certainly potential dropouts should keep in mind that "the dropout is last to be hired and the first to be fired."

A local television program, "Dialing for Dollars," had as panelists those persons on the local level connected with the dropout situation who could give information to the public about the problems involved. This program was telecast each Friday morning during the month of July 1965.

Even the comic strips have referred to the problems of the dropout. "Judge Parker" and "Coach Gil Thorp" had stories about dropouts during the latter part of the summer of 1965.

There are several pamphlets printed by the United States Government designed especially for the potential dropout,⁵ the parents of

⁵U. S. Department of Labor and Bureau of Labor Standards, School or What Else? (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1962).

these students,⁶ and anyone interested in the subject.⁷

Inadequacies

There exist certain inadequacies in the accounting of dropouts. Children who drop out of a private school are not included in most statistics on dropouts. These dropouts are simply left out of the picture.

Some attempt is usually made to account for those children who drop out during the summer months, but this is difficult and the count not accurate. This is done in Richmond by having each teacher check on those students who do not return in September. The check may be merely asking other students if they know the status of the missing pupils.

For those students who have moved out of a locality, it is presumed that they are attending school at their new residency. Therefore, these are not counted as dropouts even though they may not be in attendance.

One of the reasons, usually not included in the statistics on dropouts, is death. However, it is included in the figures for Richmond. Yet this does not distort the figures greatly because

⁶U. S. Department of Labor and Bureau of Labor Standards, Keep Them in School (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1963).

⁷U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Office of Education, High School Dropouts (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1963).

from 1958-59 through 1964-65 only twenty-one secondary pupils died as compared with the total number of dropouts of 6,969 during this period.

When a locality's holding power is determined, no provision is made to account for the transfers. This should be done since this could change the results considerably if the number of transfers is very significant.

If a dropout re-enters school and later drops out again, he is counted as another dropout. It is not known to what extent this has happened, but this duplication would distort the statistics.

A variation in enrollment may significantly influence the dropout rate. For example, if a school, near the end of the year, had an enrollment of eight hundred and at that time eighty pupils had dropped out, the dropout rate would be ten per cent. However, if two hundred additional pupils were to enroll, the dropout rate would drop to eight per cent.

Also, the number of pupils retained at a certain grade level could affect the dropout rate, especially for that particular grade level. The number of repeaters may increase the enrollment for that grade level the next year and, therefore, have an effect on the dropout rate for that grade level. The number that must repeat the terminal grade level of a particular school may increase the school's enrollment the following year and thus have an effect on the school's dropout rate.

The dropout rates of secondary schools are not comparable among school systems which have different organizational structures. Seventh grade students would not be counted in the systems which consider the seventh grade as part of the elementary school.

Some dropouts will undoubtedly complete their secondary education or its equivalent at a later date through night school, an armed forces school, or trade school. Donald E. Super, professor of psychology, Columbia University, found that nearly half of a group of dropouts subsequently obtained high school equivalency diplomas.⁸

Forty-eight dropouts and nineteen graduates, eleven years after leaving high school, were questioned in a study reported in the NEA Research Memo. It was found that all the graduates and eighteen of the dropouts obtained additional education; thirty dropouts received no more education.⁹

A survey conducted in Richmond found that

drop-outs who have established themselves in jobs do, in encouragingly large numbers, seek further training. Of 1,783 adults enrolled in evening school at the time of the survey, 1,200 had dropped out prior to high school graduation.¹⁰

⁸Donald E. Super, "Vocational Development of High School Dropouts," Guidance and the School Dropout, Daniel Schreiber, editor. (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association and the American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1964), p. 69.

⁹NEA Research Division, NEA Research Memo (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1963), p. 6.

¹⁰Citizens' Committee on Vocational and Adult Education, Report to the School Board of the City of Richmond (March 28, 1963), p. 7. (Mimeographed.)

Campaign Conducted to Aid the Dropout Problem

This campaign was initiated in the summer of 1963 by President Kennedy on a national basis and was financed by \$250,000 from the President's emergency funds. The campaign had two main purposes:

- (1) the mounting of a nationwide publicity campaign
- (2) the use of school counselors and other personnel to identify dropouts and potential dropouts and persuade them to return to school in the fall ¹¹

In addition to much publicity on both the national and local levels, the following are some of the results of this national campaign with results in Richmond in parenthesis: 1,375 (14) counselors and other workers participated in the campaign and were paid by the fund; 59,301 (493) dropouts and potential dropouts identified by these workers were contacted during the campaign; 30,361 (158) or 51.5 per cent (32 per cent) of the total, returned to school that fall; 28,078 (127), or 92.4 per cent (80.4 per cent), who returned to school as a result of the summer campaign were still enrolled as of November 1, 1963.¹² Richmond did not do as well as was accomplished nationally. Later national figures are not available, but in Richmond, in June 1964, 102 or 64.6 per cent were still in school; six graduated in June 1964.¹³

¹¹U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Office of Education, The 1963 Dropout Campaign (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1964), p. 2.

¹²Ibid., p. 5.

¹³Mrs. Rebie H. Lassiter, "Summary of Special Summer (August-September 1963) Dropout Project Financed through the President's Emergency Fund" (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, 1964), (Mimeographed.)

The following are some of the factors identified as aiding in the decision of many dropouts and potential dropouts to go back to the classroom:

- (1) a change in the concept of the value of an education
- (2) the experience some had encountered in obtaining jobs with unsatisfactory income and little promise for the future
- (3) the inability of some to obtain work
- (4) the influence of the publicity of the campaign on parental pressure to encourage their children to return to the classroom
- (5) the services of community agencies through welfare and medical aid
- (6) the adaptation of school program and change in scheduling to suit the requirements of individual students
- (7) the personal interest shown the individual by school staff and the community¹⁴

Methods for Identifying Dropouts and Potential Dropouts

The main sources of information pertaining to dropouts and potential dropouts come from teachers, counselors, parents, school administrators, welfare workers, visiting teachers, cumulative records, and the students themselves. The appendix contains criteria for identifying potential dropouts provided by the Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

Federal Legislation

In the past several years certain legislation in the field of education has been passed by Congress. Particular parts of these

¹⁴U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. The 1963 Dropout Campaign, op. cit., pp. 18-19.

acts concern those children who are dropouts or potential dropouts.

The Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Mental Health Centers Construction Act of 1963 (Public Law 88 - 164, effective October 31, 1963) in part is concerned with the need for two hundred thousand teachers with specialized training to educate the nation's handicapped. The lack of teachers is one reason why only one fourth of approximately five million handicapped American children are enrolled in schools of any kind. The Act also provides for needed research for new classroom methods and materials and for finding the causes of mental retardation as well as ways to prevent and mitigate it.¹⁵

The Vocational Education Act of 1963 (Public Law 88 - 210, Part A) became effective on December 18, 1963. This Act is directed to 58 million workers who will need additional training to keep pace with new methods, new materials, and new opportunities by 1970. These include high school students, unemployed high school dropouts, adult employees, and jobless or under-employed adults who need specialized training to become fully employable. It will help in building area vocational technical schools where unemployed and out of school youth between ages fifteen and twenty-one will live and learn a useful occupation. The Act provides for special training for persons with academic, socioeconomic, or other handicaps which prevent them from

¹⁵U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Office of Education, Milestones in Education, What the 88th Congress Did for American Schools and Colleges, January 1963-October 1964 (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1965), pp. 3-4.

succeeding in the regular vocational education program.¹⁶

The 1917 Smith-Hughes Act and the 1946 George-Barden Act authorized grants to the states for programs in vocational agriculture, trades, industry, practical nursing, and highly skilled technicians. These grants were allowed to continue under the Vocational Education Act of 1963.

Section 13 of the Act creates a new work-study program

to encourage and enable youths between the ages of 16 and 20 who otherwise would drop out of high school or discontinue their education after completing high school to continue in school in order to acquire the necessary occupational training to equip them for meaningful employment. The 'work-study' program would provide part-time employment of not more than 15 hours a week in public schools or in other public agencies.¹⁷

The original Manpower Development and Training Act (Public Law 87 - 415), passed in 1962, surveys employment opportunities, selects those needing training because of undereducation -- especially high school dropouts, pays them training allowances, and helps place them in jobs. To be eligible for allowances youths must be either a high school graduate or "must have been out of school a year and be considered beyond the reach of traditional schooling. The reason is to encourage dropouts to return to school."¹⁸

¹⁶Ibid., pp. 9 and 10.

¹⁷Daniel Schreiber, Guidance and The School Dropout (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association and the American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1964), p. 255.

¹⁸U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Milestones in Education, op. cit., p. 24.

The amended Act (Public Law 88 - 214), signed by the President on December 19, 1963, "calls for special programs to test, counsel, select and refer youths 16 years of age and older for occupational training."¹⁹

The Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offenses Control Act, Amendments of 1964 (Public Law 88 - 368) was signed into law on July 9, 1964, and is an attempt to combat juvenile delinquency. Since a lack of education and joblessness are some of the causes of delinquency, this act may prove to be helpful to the dropout and potential dropout. The Act has three main purposes. The first is to establish experimental programs to counteract delinquency. These range from new techniques for training workers involved in youth problems to the encouragement of cooperation among those concerned with the fate of young people. The second purpose is the establishment of fourteen training centers to prepare youth workers in the fields of health, welfare, correction, and law-enforcement. The third purpose is to make studies of problems, trends, and projects related to youth crime and delinquency. One of these is a special study of the impact of compulsory school attendance and child labor laws on delinquency.²⁰

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰Ibid., p. 29.

The Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, Education Provisions

(Public Law 88 - 452) became effective on August 20, 1964.

The Act was passed to mobilize the Nation for the rescue of 30 million Americans from the brutalizing conditions which are spawned by poverty and perpetuated by joblessness, illness, dilapidated housing and despair -- but most of all by ignorance and illiteracy.²¹

Some of the benefits of this Act as they affect Richmond are presented on page nineteen of this thesis.

Several approaches are provided for by the Act. One of these is the establishment of the Job Corps which will enroll young men and women from the ages of sixteen through twenty-one who come from impoverished environments and who are unemployed because they lack the education and job skills. Those selected after careful screening will be given another chance for education and vocational training by being placed in Job Corps Centers where they can develop skills and self-confidence.

Members of the Job Corps will receive a living allowance of \$30 a month, room, board, clothing and medical and dental care. They will also have set aside for them a readjustment allowance of \$50 for every month of satisfactory service spent in the Job Corps, to be paid upon termination of enrollment.²²

The focus of another section of the bill is on teenagers who are headed toward dropping out of school and those who have already left but might be induced to return. . . .

²¹Ibid., p. 31.

²²Job Corps Screening Handbook (Washington, D.C.: Office of Economic Opportunity, 1965), p. 4.

Envisioned for them is a half-time job and half-time school arrangement. . . . Hopefully, the arrangement will sufficiently change the outlook of young people headed for trouble to encourage them to continue their schooling.²³

The Act will also help students of low-income families to attend college by offering them useful part-time work through a work-study program. This work could consist of tutoring younger students who come under other parts of the Act.

Another provision of the bill is the support of Community Action Programs. The idea behind these programs is to encourage each community to devise its own plan of self-help to strike at the causes of poverty.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (Public Law 89 - 10) was passed on April 11, 1965. This Act provided for the increase of educational opportunities of educationally deprived children, the purchase of school library resources, textbooks, and other instructional materials, and the development of supplementary educational centers and services. Some of the benefits of this Act as they affect Richmond are presented on page twenty-one of this thesis.

Multiplicity of the Problem

Certainly one of the main difficulties with any attack upon the dropout is the multiplicity of the problem and the diversity of the dropout population. The dropout problem has been described as

²³U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Milestones in Education, op. cit., p. 31.

a social, political, educational, psychological, and economical problem.

One of the most dramatic descriptions of the dropout problem was that used by James B. Conant, former president of Harvard University, when he spoke to the National Committee for Children and Youth in 1961. He described the problem as being "social dynamite."²⁴

Nadine Lambert, research consultant, California State Department of Education, described the dropout as the manifestation of a larger social problem, ". . . the inability of school and society to meet the needs of a large proportion of school age pupils."²⁵

When asked what happens to the high school dropouts, the principal of a high school in Ohio answered,

In one short but significant statement, he becomes a potential social problem. The high-school dropout is making a significant contribution to our national rising crime rate; he adds to the unemployment pool of his community, and he produces a negative effect on the student currently enrolled who is looking for an excuse to drop out of school.²⁶

²⁴Daniel Schreiber, Holding Power/ Large City School Systems (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1964), p. 31, citing Conference on Unemployed, Out of School Youth in Urban Areas, Social Dynamite, p. 26.

²⁵Nadine Lambert, "The High School Dropout in Elementary School," Guidance and the School Dropout, Daniel Schreiber, editor (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association and the American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1964), p. 63.

²⁶Robert R. Ritchie, "The High School Dropout - An Educational Dilemma," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Volume 46 Number 277 (Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, November 1962), p. 46.

Another writer, S. M. Miller of Syracuse University's Youth Development Center, discusses the dropout as a political problem.

Schools and education cannot be expected to solve the blight of poverty and inhumanity; the entire society and economy are implicated. And, it may be that, by our stress on eliminating dropouts, we are not politicalizing the important issues.²⁷

Robert R. Ritchie, principal of Tippecanoe High School, Tipp City, Ohio, refers to the problem of the high school dropout as "An Educational Dilemma" in his article written in 1962.²⁸

Another reference to the dropout as being an educational problem appeared in the August 1966 Reader's Digest entitled, "Dropouts Anonymous, one woman's answer to America's most challenging educational problem."²⁹ Mary Stewart has worked with more than 2,000 dropouts through "Dropouts Anonymous" in Rosemead, California, during the past four years. She discovered that the basic problem was the inability to read. This would indicate that the dropout problem is indeed an educational one.

Research by John H. Rohrer of the psychiatry department, Georgetown University, shows that the dropout is a psychological problem. He has found that approximately thirty thousand young

²⁷S. M. Miller, "Dropouts - A Political Problem," The School Dropout, Daniel Schreiber, editor (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1964), p. 24.

²⁸Ritchie, op. cit., pp. 45-47.

²⁹Don Weldon, "Dropouts Anonymous," The Reader's Digest, (August 1966), pp. 17-20.

adolescent men a year are discharged from the Armed Services because of personality disorders. In reference to this, he claims,

If one were to eliminate those adolescents who had dropped out of school at the tenth-grade level or lower, one would eliminate approximately 80 per cent of the personality disorder discharges from the Armed Services.³⁰

The question that is brought to mind here is whether the young man had a personality disorder before he dropped out of school, or whether the disorder was brought about as the result of being a dropout.

The dropout is certainly an economic problem although no source was found that referred to it as such. However, it was implied in several references.

It was found in Lynchburg, Virginia, that next to the school budget, welfare was the second largest item on the city's budget, and "that most of the recipients of welfare payments were persons who had dropped out of school."³¹

Speaking in regard to unemployed youth, Raymond F. Male, Commissioner, New Jersey Department of Labor and Industry, said, "The solutions to today's problems are not impossible. They may be expensive but failing to apply them will be more expensive."³²

³⁰John H. Rohrer, "Psychosocial Development," The School Dropout, Daniel Schreiber, editor (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1964), pp. 55-56.

³¹M. L. Carper, "Some Virginia School Programs Designed to Help the Reluctant Learner," Summary of the Conference on the Reluctant Learner, (Roanoke, Virginia: Virginia Education, Nov. 29-Dec. 1, 1962), p. 14.

³²Vital Speeches of the Day, Vol. XXX, No. 23 (Pelham, N.Y.: City News Publishing Co., Sept. 15, 1964), p. 736.

A Citizens' Committee report on vocational and adult education for Richmond stated that the second thing in importance, next to flexible vocational and adult training centers, is the curtailment of dropouts and had this to say in regard to expenses: "As to the question of cost, it is well always to weigh the cost of accomplishment of these ends against the greater cost of not accomplishing them."³³

Lucius F. Cervantes, professor of sociology, St. Louis University, in an attempt to show that the parent must be "reached" in order for the child to receive a better start in life than many are now getting, says, "It will cost society less to work with parents while the children are still babies than try to make up the deficiencies later."³⁴

To demonstrate the relation between education and economics it was found that cities with a population ranging from 100,000 to 250,000 with the highest educational level also had the highest average per capita in retail sales. The report added, "This correlation between sales and education should prompt every businessman

³³Citizens' Committee on Vocational and Adult Education, Report to the School Board of the City of Richmond, (March 28, 1963), p. 13. (Mimeographed.)

³⁴Lucius F. Cervantes, The Dropout, Causes and Cures (Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1965), p. 202.

to work for and support good and productive schools in his community."³⁵

Hugh B. Wood, professor of education at the University of Oregon and consultant to a Job Corps Center, claims in defense of the Job Corps that

it can be demonstrated that every trainee placed in productive labor saves the taxpayer \$100,000 or more in lifetime unemployment and relief payments, lost income, lost taxes paid, increased crime and sickness, and lost buying power.³⁶

With this in mind, certainly more money should be channeled to aid in keeping potential dropouts in school in order that they may obtain the necessary skills for useful employment.

Richard C. Holmaquist, executive director of the Virginia Industrialization Group, states, "Ignorance has always been much more expensive than education. Education is the foundation of economic growth, and the type of education provided usually determines the type of economy that follows. . . ." ³⁷

The level of education usually determines the income received. It would perhaps aid a potential dropout to remain longer in school if he understood this fact. Income should not be the sole consideration for obtaining additional education, but it offers a good argument.

³⁵Education Department, Chamber of Commerce of the U. S., Education an Investment in People (Washington, D.C.: Chamber of Commerce of the U. S., 1965), p. 6.

³⁶Hugh B. Wood, "The Tongue Point Job Corps Center," Topics, Helen Thal, Editor (New York, N.Y.: Education Division, Institute of Life Insurance, Fall 1965), p. 10.

³⁷Editorial in the Richmond Times-Dispatch, November 6, 1964, quoting Richard C. Holmaquist.

Table IX shows the difference of lifetime income for males by various levels of education. The big difference in the lower and upper limits may be because of the wider range they include. This can be better understood by looking at the college level of four years or more. This level would include the doctors, dentists, engineers, and many of the businessmen in the upper income brackets.

Even the teaching of economics in high school has been influenced by the dropout. In the spring of 1964, Woodrow Wilkerson, the Virginia State Superintendent of Public Instruction, told of some of the State's plans for strengthening economics instruction in the schools. One step in the plan "was to move farther down in the curriculum -- to the eighth or ninth grade civics course -- in hopes of reaching youngsters who may drop out of school before the junior or senior year."³⁸

Reasons for Dropping Out

Why do children quit school? What are the most frequent reasons given for dropping out of school? Many times boys and girls, who drop out of school, do not know the reason, but are only aware of the last incident, "the straw that breaks the camel's back," that occurred prior to quitting.

H. J. Dillon, author of Early School Leavers, lists these as symptoms of vulnerability to early school leaving:

³⁸Lon Savage, "Economic Studies Come Into Focus," Richmond Times-Dispatch, Spring 1964.

TABLE IX
 ESTIMATED LIFETIME INCOME FOR MALES, AGE 18 TO DEATH,
 BY LEVELS OF EDUCATION COMPLETED:
 UNITED STATES, 1961

Level of education	1961	Difference of Income by Levels of Education
Elementary:		
Less than 8 years	\$151,348	
8 years	204,530	\$ 53,182
High school:		
1 to 3 years	234,960	30,430
4 years	272,629	37,669
College:		
1 to 3 years	333,581	60,952
4 years or more	452,518	118,937

Source: U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States; and unpublished data, 1961.

1. Fairly consistent regression in scholarship from elementary to junior to senior high school.
2. Frequent grade failures in the elementary school.
3. High frequency of grade or subject failure in the junior and senior high school.
4. Marked regression in attendance from elementary to junior to senior high school.
5. Frequent transfers from one school to another.
6. Evidence of a feeling of insecurity or "lack of belonging" in school.
7. Marked lack of interest in school work.³⁹

Lloyd Sevan, director of pupil guidance in Canton, Ohio, noted eleven recurring problems in a study of dropouts. He claims that "any student to whom any four of these apply must be considered a potential high school dropout."⁴⁰ The signs of a dropout, as given by Lloyd Sevan, can be found in the Appendix.

Daniel Schreiber lists these as reasons why students drop out of school:

1. reading retardation
2. grade retention
3. subject failure
4. low intelligence
5. family attitudes -- economic level, occupation of parents, siblings
6. school -- size, organization, location, double sessions

³⁹Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Why Do Boys and Girls Drop Out of School and What Can We Do About It? Report of Representatives of School Systems in Cities of more than 200,000 population, circular no. 269 (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1950), p. 14, quoting H. J. Dillon, Early School Leavers.

⁴⁰Francis W. Matika and Rebecca Scheerer, "Are the Causes of Dropouts Excuses?" quoting Lloyd Sevan, The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Nov. 1962), pp. 41-42.

7. self-image
8. dislike of school
9. lack of interest in school⁴¹

Some of the reasons for early school leaving are repetitious but are included to provide the reader with a list as complete as possible and to show that there is some agreement among authorities concerning the reasons for dropouts.

It appears, among those closely connected to the problem of dropouts, that they generally agree on these as the most frequent reasons for children leaving school before the completion of a program of a terminal nature:

1. Reading difficulties
2. Grade failure in elementary school
3. Low grades and subject failures
4. Lack of stimulating home environment, low socioeconomic level, lack of confidence, and a feeling of insecurity
5. A dislike for school and a feeling of not being a part of it.

However, there are many factors involved that influence a dropout situation so that the entire problem becomes somewhat complex. It has been so described by several writers. One writer says, "The pattern of dropout behavior is complex. . . . This complexity should

⁴¹Daniel Schreiber, "The School Dropout - Fugitive from Failure," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, May 1962), p. 237.

not, however, detract from the seriousness of the problem."⁴² Another writes, "There is no easy, over-all solution to the complex problem of school malfunctioning or early school-leaving."⁴³

A publication from the Office of Education states,

There are many factors operating on any potential dropout, such as parental background, community attitude toward the school, the racial backgrounds in our cities, the economic status of the individual, the emotional makeup of the individual himself.⁴⁴

The situation is further complicated by the many negative factors that affect the learning process. Some of these are:

Broken homes; emotional tensions
 Frequent moves
 Both parents working; shift work
 Lack of proper diet, rest; vital health problems neglected
 Lack of an ordered routine at home
 Financial insecurity; unwise spending of a limited family budget
 Parents' lack of education and vocational skill
 Parents' unhealthy self-concepts
 Crowded conditions; no place for study
 Inadequate after-school supervision
 Unwholesome influences in the neighborhood
 Limited cultural opportunities in the home such as books, good music, trips, discussion⁴⁵

⁴²A. Hugh Livingston, "High School Graduates and Dropouts - A New Look at a Persistent Problem," The School Review, Vol. 66, Summer 1958, p. 200.

⁴³Solomon O. Lichter, and others, The Drop-Outs, (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press of Glencoe, 1962), p. 253.

⁴⁴Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, Why Do Boys and Girls Drop Out of School and What Can We Do About It? op cit., p. 20.

⁴⁵Richmond Public Schools, Summer Centers for the Extension of Cultural Opportunities and Enrichment of Experiences (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, Summer 1961), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

To illustrate further the complexities of the dropout situation, the appendix includes Goodwin Watson's list of factors relating to motivation of a student and the differentiation between high and low achievers.

II. A DETAILED STUDY OF RICHMOND'S DROPOUT SITUATION

A detailed study of some dropout statistics for Richmond and other items of interest in regard to early school leaving should give a better perspective to the dropout situation in the city.

What are some of the reasons given by Richmond's youths for dropping out of school? Are some of these reasons justified? How do the secondary schools of the city compare with each other in regard to dropout rates? What is the Richmond Public School's projected outlook in regard to dropouts?

Statistics in this thesis are confined to the secondary schools since those dropouts under sixteen are thoroughly investigated by the Department of Pupil Personnel Services. Also, most of the dropouts are from secondary schools.

Holding Power

The holding power of the Richmond Public Schools and the state of Virginia has improved in recent years. Table X shows the increase in holding power for the city and Virginia for the classes of 1962 through 1965. It can be seen that the state is consistently maintaining a higher holding rate than Richmond.

TABLE X
 INCREASE IN HOLDING POWER
 OF THE RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS
 AND STATE OF VIRGINIA
 1958-1965
 (CLASSES OF '62-'65)

Class	Grade 9	Grade 10	Grade 11	Grade 12	Graduated	Rate of Holding Power*
<u>1962</u>						
Richmond	2,441	2,219	1,814	1,594	1,423	58.3%
Virginia	54,678	47,369	40,880	37,081	33,396	61.1
<u>1963</u>						
Richmond	2,432	2,266	1,848	1,597	1,448	59.5
Virginia	54,798	48,054	41,385	37,915	34,217	62.4
<u>1964</u>						
Richmond	2,548	2,415	1,963	1,799	1,595	62.2
Virginia	59,135	53,148	46,774	43,352	39,298	66.4
<u>1965</u>						
Richmond	2,941	2,827	2,398	2,092	1,934	65.7
Virginia	70,818	64,487	58,002	54,085	49,108	69.3

* Grade 9 as base

The state of Virginia ranked thirty-first in 1964-65 in the United States in holding power.⁴⁶ Since Richmond's holding power is less than that for the state, it leaves much to be desired for the city.

A study of the holding power rates, conducted in 1963 of 128 school systems in cities with a population of over ninety thousand, shows Richmond with a rate of 65.7 per cent; 109 cities had a higher holding power than did Richmond.⁴⁷ This study used grade ten as a base to determine the holding rate.

Compulsory Attendance

In April 1959 the Virginia General Assembly repealed the compulsory attendance law and enacted a new attendance law applicable only in those localities which adopted it. This was done because many people objected to their children being forced to attend integrated schools. Even in those localities which adopted the new law, a child could not be forced to attend school if the parent conscientiously objected to his attendance.⁴⁸

⁴⁶Research Service, Where Virginia Ranks (Richmond, Virginia: Virginia Education Association, March 1966), p. 11.

⁴⁷Daniel Schreiber, Holding Power/Large City School Systems (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1964), p. 55.

⁴⁸Editorial in the Richmond Times-Dispatch, November 9, 1963.

After some effort on the part of various civic organizations in Richmond, the City Council adopted the new law on November 11, 1963. Even though parents cannot be forced to send their children to school, the ordinance, according to School Superintendent H. I. Willett, would be useful since "it would give the school board and the courts some legal machinery."⁴⁹ A child's compulsory attendance is excused when the parent or guardian makes a sworn statement attesting to his objections. Previous to the submission of such a statement, the school board can force the child's attendance.

Dropout Rates

Table XI shows the dropout rates for Richmond from 1957 through 1965. The dropout rate increased after the repeal of the compulsory attendance law and decreased the year of its re-establishment. This was particularly true for the junior high schools. The attendance law certainly had an influence on early school leavers. There are, of course, other factors which also have an effect. The decrease in 1963-64 was influenced by the Dropout Campaign during the summer of 1963 which was described on page thirty-four of this thesis.

Is Richmond improving in its dropout rate within the state of Virginia? According to a report by the Virginia Education Association for 1961-62, Richmond's dropout rate of 7.4 per cent ranked twenty-

⁴⁹Ed. Grimsley, "Forced Attendance School Law Adopted," quoting Dr. H. I. Willett, Richmond Times-Dispatch, November 12, 1963.

TABLE XI

NUMBER AND RATE OF DROPOUTS IN THE RICHMOND
PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS FROM 1957-1965

Kind of School	Years							
	57-58	58-59*	59-60	60-61	61-62	62-63	63-64**	64-65
<u>Senior High</u>								
No. of Dropouts	657	720	639	598	561	623	604	662
% of Dropouts to Secondary School Enrollment	9.1	9.5	8.9	7.4	7.1	7.4	6.8	7.7
<u>Junior High</u>								
No. of Dropouts	285	413	349	374	338	339	281	468
% of Dropouts to Secondary School Enrollment	4.6	6.8	5.3	6.0	5.3	5.2	4.2	5.8
<u>Senior and Junior High Combined</u>								
No. of Dropouts	942	1133	988	972	899	962	885	1130
% of Dropouts to Secondary School Enrollment	7.0	8.3	7.2	6.8	6.3	6.4	5.7	6.8

*Compulsory attendance abolished

**Compulsory attendance re-established

Source: Annual Report of the Richmond Public Schools, (Richmond, Virginia: The School Board of the City of Richmond, 1957-65).

eighth of thirty-one Virginia cities.⁵⁰ Only the cities of Covington, Hopewell, and Norfolk has a higher dropout rate than Richmond.

In a similar report for 1964-65 Richmond's improved rate of 6.8 per cent ranked the city twelfth in a list of 123 counties and cities.⁵¹ There is a reversal in the rank in the study mentioned for 1961-62. In other words, only twelve counties and cities had a higher dropout rate than Richmond. With the removal of the counties from this ranking, there are only three cities, Lynchburg, Winchester, and Norfolk with a higher rate than Richmond. Therefore, even though Richmond's rate dropped from 7.4 per cent to 6.8 per cent, its rank among Virginia's cities remained the same.

In Table XII the five senior high schools in Richmond are ranked according to the percentage of the total number of dropouts by race for 1961-62 through 1964-65. As can be seen from this table, the percentage of white dropouts is generally increasing, particularly George Wythe and Thomas Jefferson High Schools. The rank of the five senior high schools has remained the same for the four years stated with the exception in 1961-62 of John Marshall and George Wythe High Schools when their position was reversed.

One cannot help but notice the wide variation between John Marshall High School, a predominately white school, with 11.1 per

⁵⁰Virginia Education Association, Virginia's Variable Asset/Statement of Condition (Richmond, Virginia: Virginia Education Association, 1963), p. 13.

⁵¹Virginia Education Association, How Does Your Locality Measure Up? (Richmond, Virginia: Virginia Education Association, March 1966), pp. 28-29.

TABLE XII

RANK OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS
 ACCORDING TO PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL NUMBER OF DROPOUTS BY RACE***
 FOR 1961-62 -- 1964-65

School	Rank	Per cent of Total Dropouts for 1961-62 -- 1964-65			
		61-62	62-63	63-64	64-65
John Marshall	1	15.0*	11.6	10.9	11.1
George Wythe	2	13.1	14.5	16.2	17.9
Thomas Jefferson	3	15.5	15.7	20.4	21.6
Maggie Walker (N)**	4	20.9	21.0	22.9	22.0
Armstrong (N)	5	<u>35.5</u>	<u>37.2</u>	<u>29.6</u>	<u>27.4</u>
		<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>

*John Marshall ranked second for the year 1961-62; George Wythe ranked first.

** (N) Negro.

***It is assumed that dropouts from predominantly white schools are white and those from predominantly Negro schools are Negroes.

cent of the senior high school dropouts in 1964-65 and Armstrong High School, a Negro school, with 27.4 per cent of the senior high dropouts for the same year.

With a comparison of two normal years when no particular emphasis is being placed on the dropout by big campaigns and the "dust" has settled from compulsory attendance laws a better perspective may be seen of the dropout rates for both junior and senior high schools. Table XIII shows the average rates for the secondary schools of Richmond by race for 1960-61 and 1964-65. The following observations are made: the white high schools' rates have increased while the rates for the Negro high schools have decreased; the white junior high schools' rates have decreased while the Negro junior high schools' rates have increased; the combined white junior and senior high schools' rates have decreased while the Negro junior and senior high schools' rates have increased. The totals for 1960-61 and 1964-65 remained about the same.

When each public secondary school in Richmond is ranked according to number and percentage of dropouts, one may get a more complete idea of Richmond's dropout problem. Table XIV lists the junior and senior high schools of Richmond according to the number and percentage of dropouts for 1964-65 by race. An interesting fact which can be observed from the table is that 43 per cent of the dropouts from secondary schools in Richmond in 1964-65 dropped out of the last three Negro schools listed, Maggie Walker, Mosby, and Armstrong.

TABLE XIII

AVERAGE OF DROPOUT RATES* FOR RICHMOND JUNIOR AND SENIOR
HIGH SCHOOLS BY RACE**
FOR 1960-61 AND 1964-65

Type of School	1960-61		1964-65	
	White	Negro	White	Negro
Senior High School	6.0	10.0	6.8	9.1
Junior High School	4.7	5.7	3.6	6.5
Combined Junior and Senior High School	5.2	7.1	4.7	7.3
Total Average for Year	6.0		5.9	

*Number of dropouts to enrollment.

**It is assumed that dropouts from predominantly white schools are white and those from predominantly Negro schools are Negroes.

TABLE XIV
 THE NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF DROPOUTS
 FROM THE RICHMOND PUBLIC
 SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY RACE**
 1964-1965

Schools	Number of Dropouts	Percentage of Dropouts
Westhampton	1	.1
Chandler	8	.7
Albert H. Hill	14	1.2
Bainbridge	22	1.9
Blackwell (N)*	29	2.6
Randolph (N)	35	3.1
Binford	55	4.9
East End (N)	68	6.0
John Marshall	74	6.6
Benjamin Graves (N)	76	6.7
George Wythe	119	10.5
Thomas Jefferson	143	12.7
Maggie Walker (N)	146	12.9
Mosby (N)	160	14.2
Armstrong (N)	<u>180</u>	<u>15.9</u>
Totals	<u>1130</u>	<u>100.0</u>

*(N) Negro.

**It is assumed that dropouts from predominantly white schools are white and those from predominantly Negro schools are Negroes.

Another fact of interest is that 61.4 per cent of the dropouts are Negro and 38.6 per cent are white.

It is interesting to notice the wide disparity in the number of dropouts from the various schools. One is cautioned when comparing one school with another in terms of the number of dropouts, since the enrollment of one may vary significantly from the other. For instance, Westhampton Junior High School had only one dropout in 1964-65 compared with 160 for Mosby Junior High School. However, the former had an enrollment of 261 compared with 1,561 for the latter.

The Richmond Public Secondary Schools are ranked in Table XV according to the dropout rate and race for 1964-65. Since the dropout rate is based on the enrollment, a more accurate comparison can be made among schools. At first glance the rank appears the same as found in Table XIV. However, there are several noteworthy changes. First, Armstrong is twelfth instead of being last. This is interesting since Armstrong's enrollment of 1,976 in 1964-65 makes it the largest in the city. Secondly, Binford Junior High School is seventh in Table XIV but fifteenth in its dropout rate as seen in Table XV.

Reasons Given for Dropping Out of the Richmond Public Schools

Table XVI lists the reasons for children dropping out of Richmond public secondary schools in order of magnitude for the seven year period, 1958-59 - 1964-65. An examination of some of the reasons may be helpful to a better understanding of Richmond's

TABLE XV
 RANK OF RICHMOND PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS
 ACCORDING TO THE DROPOUT RATE AND RACE**
 1964-65

Schools	Dropout Rate
Westhampton	0.4
Chandler	1.0
Albert H. Hill	1.8
Bainbridge	3.5
Randolph (N)*	4.0
John Marshall	5.0
James Blackwell (N)	5.2
East End (N)	5.9
George Wythe	6.6
Benjamin Graves (N)	7.4
Thomas Jefferson	8.1
Armstrong (N)	9.0
Maggie Walker (N)	9.3
Mosby (N)	10.2
Binford	11.5

*(N) Negro.

**It is assumed that dropouts from predominantly white schools are white and those from predominantly Negro schools are Negroes.

TABLE XVI

REASONS FOR DROPPING OUT IN RICHMOND PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS
1958-59 - 1964-65

Reasons	58-59	59-60	60-61	61-62	62-63	63-64	64-65	Totals for 7 Years	Per cent of Total
Indifference	368	339	359	370	402	258	330	2,426	35
Went to work	181	180	166	128	167	153	209	1,184	17
Personal illness	142	125	129	121	122	143	185	967	14
Miscellaneous	166	98	104	92	80	79	214	833	12
Marriage	81	61	74	55	63	70	67	471	7
Military service	47	48	45	47	47	54	47	335	5
Conduct	69	42	33	34	21	28	29	256	4
Failure	27	40	16	12	7	41	5	148	2
Home duties	20	27	23	16	16	27	18	147	2
Unable to trace	9	7	7	5	15	16	15	74	1
Financial insecurity	15	13	7	6	13	10	8	72	1
Lack of ability	6	5	6	11	6	-	1	35	.5
Deceased	2	3	3	2	3	6	2	21	.3
Totals	1,133	988	972	899	962	885	1,130	6,969	100.8

Source: Annual Report of the Richmond Public Schools, (Richmond, Virginia: The School Board of the City of Richmond, 1958-65).

dropout situation. It is difficult to determine the true reasons why a child leaves school before the completion of his school program. These reasons listed are those sent to the research department by the individual schools concerned. Even though some of the reasons given overlap and are difficult to define in terms to fit each individual student, they are accepted as the best that are available.

At the top of the list of reasons is indifference which generally includes such underlying factors as dislike for school, unable to get along with teachers and classmates, or a lack of enthusiasm for school work. Also, there may be some overlapping of indifference with other reasons listed such as conduct, failure, and lack of ability. Certainly the schools' failure to meet the needs of these students is related to the students' indifference.

Since few high school students are drafted into the military services, those listed could be combined with those who went to work. The difference between "went to work" and "financial insecurity" is possibly one of employment. Are these reasons justified? Do children in Richmond have a real need to go to work at an early age? According to the U. S. Census of 1960, 24.3 per cent of all families in Richmond earn less than \$3,000; according to James Tyler, Richmond Public Schools' Director of Research and Development, 7,500 children in Richmond come from families making less than \$2,000.

Certainly many students go to work because it has apparently been available. Richmond has a relatively low unemployment rate when compared to the state of Virginia and the United States as can be seen

in Table XVII. This table shows the unemployment rate for Richmond, the state of Virginia, and the United States from 1958 through 1965. Not only does Richmond's unemployment rate compare favorably, but since 1958, there has been a general decline in unemployment.

Personal illness is listed in third place as a major reason given for dropping out of school. This term is generally used for those forced out because of pregnancy.

It is noteworthy to mention here that lack of ability is not one of the major reasons given for the child's termination of school. While it is true that some dropouts are below normal in intelligence, ". . . 80 per cent of high school dropouts, if they possessed enough motivation and were given proper guidance, could finish regular high school courses."⁵²

Causes of Early Withdrawal of Richmond's Senior High School Students

Table XVIII lists in order of magnitude the major causes of pupil withdrawals from Richmond public senior high schools by race for 1964-65.

Top on the list is "moved away or attending local private schools," which shows that four times as many white students as Negroes fall into this category. This reflects the exodus of the white population from the city public schools.

⁵²Robert F. Williams, "A Rich Lode and One Way to Tap It," Virginia Journal of Education, October, 1964, p. 12.

TABLE XVII
RATE OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN RICHMOND,
VIRGINIA, AND THE UNITED STATES
1958-1965

Year	Richmond	Virginia	United States
1958	3.7	5.1	6.8
1959	3.2	4.2	5.5
1960	3.0	4.2	5.6
1961	3.3	4.7	6.7
1962	2.3	3.9	5.6
1963	2.2	3.6	5.7
1964	2.2	3.4	5.2
1965	1.9	3.0	4.6

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1966.

TABLE XVIII

MAJOR CAUSES OF PUPIL WITHDRAWALS IN RICHMOND PUBLIC
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS BY RACE* FOR 1964-65

Cause	Negro Schools			White Schools			Total Whites	Total Both Races
	Arm- strong	Maggie Walker	Total Negroes	Thomas Jeffer- son	George Wythe	John Marshall		
Moved away or attend- ing local private schools**	17	16	33	34	62	40	136	169
Indifference	69	41	110	20	12	23	55	165
Went to work	26	17	43	42	46	14	102	145
Personal illness	48	25	73	18	8	12	38	111
Miscellaneous	9	42	51	37	10	10	57	108
Marriage	7	5	12	9	23	8	40	52
Military service	10	4	14	11	16	3	30	44
Home duties	5	6	11	1	3	1	5	16
Conduct	2	4	6	5	-	3	8	14
Financial insecurity	4	2	6	-	1	-	1	7
Total withdrawals	197	162	359	177	181	114	472	831
Total no. of dropouts	180	146	326	143	119	74	336	662

*It is assumed that withdrawals from predominantly white schools are white and those from predominantly Negro schools are Negroes.

**Not counted as dropouts.

Source: Annual Report of the Richmond Public Schools, (Richmond, Virginia: The School Board of the City of Richmond, 1964-65).

"Personal illness" among the senior Negro high schools is doubled that for the white schools indicating a higher rate of pregnancies among Negro students.

Three times as many white senior high school students withdraw from school because of marriage as do Negroes.

Since the total enrollment of the white senior high schools in 1964-65 was 5,047 and that of Negro senior high schools was 3,551, the total withdrawals of 472 and 359 respectively are in proportion. However, the total number of dropouts, 336 and 326, are about even for the two races.

The 1964-65 enrollment of 5,148 in the Negro junior high schools is not quite double that of the white junior high enrollment of 2,952. Yet, the 368 junior high Negro dropouts more than triples the white dropouts, which numbers one hundred.

Future Outlook of Richmond's Dropouts

What is the projected outlook in regard to dropouts in the Richmond Public Schools? According to figures by the Research Department of the Richmond Public Schools, the rate in 1980 is expected to be the same as it was in 1964-65. However, the number of dropouts is expected to increase about four hundred. The difference in the number of white and Negro dropouts will become even greater by 1980. This, of course, is partly because of the anticipated drop in the white enrollment and an increase in the Negro enrollment.

The number of Negro dropouts in 1970 from junior high schools is expected to exceed the number from the senior high schools as is shown in Table XIX. However, in 1980 the reverse will be true. Also, the total dropouts for the junior high school will be greater than the senior high by 1970 and near the senior high number by 1980. Traditionally, the number of senior high dropouts has been almost doubled that of the junior high as can be seen from Table XI on page fifty-five of this thesis.

III. SUMMARY

This chapter described the dropout problem in general and presented a detailed study of Richmond's dropout situation.

The predictions indicate that unskilled jobs will become scarce. Therefore, those students who leave school before the completion of a program designed to equip them with a marketable skill should find little hope or encouragement for a productive life.

Much publicity has been directed recently toward the dropout situation through such media as television, comic strips, newspapers and pamphlets.

Certain inadequacies exist in the accounting of dropouts. Private school dropouts are not counted. The count of children who drop out during the summer is not accurate. The mobility of students, duplications, the number and grade level of retentions, and variations in enrollment are other factors that add to the inadequacies in the accounting of dropouts.

TABLE XIX

PROJECTED NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF DROP-OUTS
IN 1970 AND 1980 FOR THE
RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS*

Year	Senior High School			Junior High School			Senior and Junior High Combined		
	White	Negro	Total	White	Negro	Total	White	Negro	Total
<u>1970</u>									
Proj. June Enrollment	2,968	4,230	7,198	3,957	7,614	11,571	6,925	11,844	18,769
Proj. No. of Dropouts	154	419	573	178	457	635	332	876	1,208
Percentage of Dropouts	5.2	9.9	7.9	4.5	6.0	5.5	4.8	7.4	6.4
<u>1980</u>									
Proj. June Enrollment	2,426	6,537	8,963	3,236	10,350	13,586	5,662	16,887	22,549
Proj. No. of Dropouts	126	647	773	146	621	767	272	1,268	1,540
Percentage of Dropouts	5.2	9.9	8.6	4.5	6.0	5.6	4.8	7.5	6.8

* Projected by Department of Research, Richmond Public Schools.

A successful campaign was conducted in the United States in the summer of 1963 to identify dropouts and potential dropouts and persuade them to return to school in the fall. Over fifty per cent of those contacted returned to school.

Congress has passed certain legislation in the past several years of concern to children who are dropouts or potential dropouts.

The dropout problem is one of multiplicity since the dropout has been described as a social, political, educational, psychological, and economical problem.

Since there are many factors involved in the decision of a child to leave school, the dropout situation is a complex one.

A detailed study of Richmond's dropout situation revealed the following facts: (1) the holding power for Richmond is lower than the state of Virginia and many other cities in the United States, (2) the dropout rate of Richmond fluctuates and was apparently influenced by the campaign of the summer of 1963 and the compulsory attendance law, (3) the city's dropout rate is rather high compared to other localities in the state, (4) wide variations of dropout rates exist among various Richmond secondary schools, (5) over sixty per cent of the dropouts from the city's secondary schools are Negro, (6) a difference in ranking occurs among the city's secondary schools when ranked by number of dropouts and the dropout rate, (7) three major reasons for dropping out of Richmond Public Schools, which account for sixty-six per cent of the total over a seven-year period,

are indifference, went to work, and personal illness, (8) in 1964-65 the Negro senior high dropout rate was about the same as the white senior high dropout rate, but the Negro junior high rate was more than triple the white junior high rate, and (9) the projected number of dropouts in 1980 will increase about four hundred over those in 1970.

CHAPTER IV

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AND SERVICES FOR RICHMOND'S POTENTIAL DROPOUTS

All students are potential dropouts. However, some are more likely to drop out than others.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe briefly the various programs offered by the Richmond Public Schools which would have the most influence upon those who are likely to withdraw from school before the completion of an educational program of a terminal nature.

Alfred Curtis, former director of Pupil Personnel Services, and James Tyler, director of Research and Development, aided the writer in determining which programs and services would be of the most benefit to the potential dropout.

Programs and services sponsored or conducted by state, federal or other agencies, such as Project Upward Bound which is an attempt to stimulate high school students from slum areas to seek a college education and the Neighborhood Youth Corps which provides needed temporary employment to keep underprivileged students in school, will be excluded from this thesis. Although some of the programs, such as those mentioned, have contact with the schools, they are not controlled, financed or supervised by the city.

The categories into which the services and programs are divided are pre-school and elementary level, the secondary level,

special education, schools for the socially maladjusted, and special programs and services.

I. PRE-SCHOOL AND ELEMENTARY LEVEL

Early Childhood Education

Richmond has provided kindergarten classes since 1906. However, it was not until 1966 that the Virginia General Assembly passed legislation to establish a state kindergarten system in 1968. Richmond-Henrico Delegate J. Sargeant Reynolds said the bill "is 'especially necessary' for children of lower income families to prevent their falling behind others and dropping out of school later to become society's charges."¹ Daniel Schreiber, National Education Association Project Director on School Dropouts, expressed this view, also.

Over the long haul, programs in the nursery and kindergarten areas will probably be most beneficial in preventing dropouts. The various approaches include summer kindergartens and centers at which four and five year olds get educational experiences they would otherwise miss.²

E. L. Lambert, superintendent of the schools in Norfolk, Virginia, summed up the value of kindergarten when he said, "The money spent is going to do more to cure the dropout problem than all other programs we put together at the secondary level."³

¹Hamilton Crockford, quoting Richmond-Henrico Delegate J. Sargeant Reynolds, "House Passes 35 Measures, Advances 42," Richmond Times-Dispatch, February 26, 1966.

²Cervantes, quoting Daniel Schreiber, op. cit., p. 202.

³Robert F. Williams, quoting E. L. Lambert, "Editorials," VEA Journal of Education, Vol. 60, No. 5, January, 1967.

H. I. Willett, superintendent of the Richmond Public Schools, described early education as the most fruitful answer to the dropout problem when he stated,

Often the seeds that lead to early dropout have been sown when the child reaches school at five and six years of age. Consequently, emphasis on early childhood education offers the most fruitful answer to the dropout problem.⁴

The Educational Policies Commission, which is sponsored jointly by the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, said in a statement on May 31, 1966, that all the nation's children should begin school at age four. The Commission also stated that such a program would not be focused on reading, writing, and arithmetic but on the promotion of curiosity, growth of language, and readiness for intellectual activities. The Commission further suggested that early schooling would promote the child's sense of security and self-respect, would help the child develop relationships with other children and adults, and would devote considerable attention to the child's physical well-being and development.⁵

Since September 1964 Richmond has been experimenting with pre-school education. It established a class for four year-olds in a predominantly Negro neighborhood at the Webster Davis Elementary

⁴The School Board of the City of Richmond, Richmond's Classroom - Opportunities for All, Superintendent's Annual Report, 1965-1966 (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, 1966), Forward.

⁵News item in the NEA Reporter, June 17, 1966.

School. This program was financed largely with Ford Foundation funds.

The Early Childhood Education Program, a component of the Human Development Programs, which was presented on pages nineteen and twenty-one, consisted of providing educational experiences throughout the 1965-66 school year for four-year-olds in four schools. These experiences served "to help the child's preparation and readiness for the Junior Primary program and for each successive stage of life."⁶

During the current 1966-67 school year there are six centers, financed primarily with federal money, where Early Childhood classes are in operation.

A new program, financed with local funds, for approximately 150 three-year-olds and one or both of their parents was begun on March 7, 1967. These participants come from five school areas, but the classes are held at the Albert V. Norrell School Annex, 200 Wickham Street, once a month for two hours. The children are under the supervision of kindergarten teachers while their parents attend classes designed to help parents with the preparation of their children for school. Demonstrations of child-rearing techniques are included. H. I. Willett, superintendent of the Richmond Public Schools, said that although the need for this program is more acute for those children and parents of deprived homes, it is hoped that a program of this kind can be offered for all parents of three-year-

⁶The School Board of the City of Richmond, Richmond's Classroom - Opportunities for All, op. cit., p. 29.

olds in the city.⁷

Project Head Start, another component of the Human Development Program, was a summer program that began on June 21, 1965, for culturally disoriented pre-school children and continued until August 13, 1965. More than 1,250 children were enrolled in eighteen centers.⁸ The project operated during the summer of 1966 for 1,200 underprivileged five-year-olds coming from an area embracing twenty-four schools.⁹ Application has been made to the Office of Economic Opportunity for a Project Head Start program for the summer of 1967.

The project operated under the guidance of the administrative staff of the Richmond Public Schools. Its three main objectives were to improve the children educationally, socially, and physically. The schedule provided for field trips, activities such as crafts, puppetry, painting, drawing, clay modeling, cooking, serving, woodwork, drama, and musical activities.¹⁰

Great strides in the growth and development of those participating children were evident in their adjustment to school as a result

⁷Robert Holland, quoting Dr. H. I. Willett, "Schools Plan Center for 3-Year-Olds Here," Richmond Times-Dispatch, December 1, 1966.

⁸The School Board of the City of Richmond, Richmond's Classroom - Opportunities for All, op. cit., p. 28.

⁹Robert Holland, "City Schools Plans Grow for Summer," Richmond Times-Dispatch, May 18, 1966.

¹⁰The School Board of the City of Richmond, Richmond's Classroom - Opportunities for All, loc. cit.

of the Head Start program.¹¹

Holding Grades

In the summer of 1963 a program was begun in three Richmond elementary schools for certain children who were not progressing well because of serious learning difficulties. Their abilities usually ranged between the mentally retarded and the average. They were extremely slow learners with serious achievement difficulties and meager experiential backgrounds. Other factors considered for placement in this holding and enrichment program were immaturity, overprotectiveness, child neglect, and low reading level and achievement in basic skills.

These holding grades are usually located at the end of first, second, fourth, or fifth year levels. There are now two classes in each of the Chimborazo, William Fox, and Robert E. Lee elementary schools and one in each of the Stuart Elementary and Chandler Junior High School, which has several elementary grades. Class size is limited to no more than twenty children. "It is hoped that by locating and acting early to help each child learn and develop at his unique rate, many frustrating experiences which lead to early drop-outs, may be eliminated."¹²

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Richmond Public Schools, Elementary Holding Classes, Course of Study (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, August 1963), p. 1 (Mimeographed.)

The consent of the child's parents is necessary for placement in or removal from the program. A child may be removed from the program when improvement suggests a change.

The measurement of success of a program such as this is difficult especially in a relatively short span of years. However, according to Freda Harrell, the director of the program, there are outward signs of success: improvement of attendance, lessening of resentment, and a difference in attitude shown by an increase in reading interests. She notes that most of the children placed in the holding grades are deficient in the language arts.¹³

II. SECONDARY LEVEL

The Certificate Program

The need for a program suited for those students in junior and senior high schools who were below average in ability had existed for many years. Therefore, after the school administration recognized this need, a program was begun in the Richmond Public Schools for the 1960-61 school year. This program is called the Certificate Program or simply the "C" Program.

The general guidelines for the "C" Program are as follows:
I.Q. of 75-90, ages 13-14 (if oversized, age might be lowered), about two years educationally retarded, without emotional or behavior problems. Of course, other factors such as achievement scores and

¹³Statements by Freda Harrell, personal interview, August 24, 1965.

teachers' evaluations are considered. Parents' consent is mandatory for admission to the program. Class size is limited to twenty. Many of those who could possibly enter the program are recommended by their former elementary school teachers.

The classes for the "C" groups include history, English, mathematics, and science. The emphasis placed on each subject area is more from a practical standpoint. For instance, in mathematics, for the eighth grade it is suggested that the fundamentals be retaught and a broad enrichment program be used with emphasis on practical applications of consumer mathematics.

Since it is recognized that the children need to appear as much a part of the normal schedule as any of the other students, no separate program is offered for electives and physical education. They are not segregated in homerooms, for lunch periods, or in non-academic school activities.

Most of the youngsters who qualify for the "C" Program would never get a high school diploma by attending regular classes and meeting failure after failure. They would simply drop out of school as soon as they could without having learned the very things that are important for effective citizenship.¹⁴

At the present time the "C" Program ends after the completion of the tenth grade at which time the students receive certificates (not diplomas). They are not compelled to leave school. If they

¹⁴Richmond Public Schools, The Certificate Program (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, 1961-62), p. 3 (Mimeographed.)

wish, they may try to fit into the regular school program.

Freda Harrell, the consultant teacher for the "C" Program, finds that children are happier in school after being placed in the program. Once they succeed, even at tasks below their grade level, they wish to go back into the regular program. In fact, Miss Harrell has known only seven students who did not wish to return to the regular program. Those children who have made marked progress may return to the regular program upon recommendation of the teachers and approval of the parents.

It has been difficult to assess progress since many of the children move. One of the reasons for this mobility is the unstable home life from which many of the children come. In the first three years of the program Miss Harrell found that ninety-three per cent of those in the "C" Program were from "broken" homes.

The "C" Program is now being offered in the John Marshall and George Wythe High Schools and the Chandler, Binford, Albert Hill, and Graves Junior High Schools. Recently, however, Miss Harrell received instructions from Lucien D. Adams, assistant superintendent of the Richmond Public Schools, to begin preparations for installing the "C" Program in all the junior and senior high schools in the city for the 1967-68 school year.¹⁵ This expansion of the program may be assumed to suggest its success.

¹⁵Statement by Freda Harrell, personal interview, March 10, 1967.

Classes for the Over-aged¹⁶

In 1960 Lucien Adams realized a need existed for the education of certain Richmond students who desired to finish high school. Because of their age, maturity, or marital status, these students did not seem to belong in the regular school program. The students felt out of place, and the school administrators believed it would be better not to place them in the regular program.

These students, who had previously dropped out of school because of immaturity, marriage, poverty, and other reasons, later found they needed and wanted to finish high school.

This class is open to any student who is at least eighteen, is capable, and has the desire to complete his high school work. If the student is twenty-one or over, there is a tuition charge of ninety dollars a year.

Each student works at his own speed and on his own level. However, some students who need basic courses in English are placed in the regular school program for such work. Until 1965-66 there had been only one teacher; now there are two. The size of the class, which varies during the year, had been approximately fifteen but increased to more than thirty during the 1965-66 year.

Since most of those in this class have a job outside of school or home duties, the class is held only in the mornings at John Marshall High School.

¹⁶Information obtained from Clara Norfleet, part-time counselor at Thomas Jefferson and teacher for the over-aged at John Marshall High, personal interview, June 13, 1966.

Some students drop out but the majority of them complete the course. Some have gone on to college. About one-third of the class graduates each year.

Vocational-Technical Education

Vocational education attempts to direct a student specifically toward a chosen career. Marvin J. Feldman, a program associate with the Ford Foundation, suggests that by concentrating more on careers, a prime interest of students, schools will do much to motivate young people and to reduce dropouts. He further claims that if children were given more of a choice toward vocational areas, they would perhaps be more free to develop according to individual ability; there might be less frustration and fewer dropouts.¹⁷

The vocational program for the day students in the public schools of Richmond is available to juniors and seniors who may spend part-time in class and part-time working on an approved job.

On-the-job experience offers the student the opportunity to acquire skills, to build positive attitudes, to give direction to his future plans, to apply himself in his current academic program, and to get a glimpse of the world of work. In some cases, the earnings enable the student to remain in school. Many students, especially those who graduate, remain on their job full time after graduation.

¹⁷Robert G. Holland, citing Marvin J. Feldman, "Action Taken to Boast Image of Vocational Education," Richmond Times-Dispatch, December 25, 1966.

This cooperative work-study program has three divisions: distributive education, industrial cooperative training, and vocational office training.

Distributive education. Distributive education, the training of pupils to enter businesses dealing with the distribution of goods and services, has the primary objective at the high school level to prepare students for full-time employment in the field of distribution. Richmond Public Schools offer distributive education in all of its five high schools to eleventh and twelfth graders who are sixteen years of age or older.

Persons employed in retailing, wholesaling, service, finance, real estate and insurance currently constitute about 43% of the total work force in the Richmond area. Job opportunities in distribution then represent the single highest area of employment in the City of Richmond.¹⁸

H. I. Willett's following remarks about distributive education in Richmond illustrate the growing interest in this program:

I think distributive education is beginning to come of age, beginning to achieve a status in the community. . . . Over the past five years in Richmond's Public Schools, the number of distributive education students has increased by 345 per cent. . . .¹⁹

There were 439 students enrolled in distributive education in the Richmond Public Schools for the school year 1965-66. Their

¹⁸Richmond Public Schools, Distributive Education, Annual Report, 1965-66 (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, 1966), Forward.

¹⁹H. I. Willett, "Economic Literacy Deemed Important to State Teachers," Richmond Times-Dispatch, August 2, 1966.

yearly earnings exceeded \$280,000.²⁰

Industrial cooperative training (ICT). Industrial cooperative training is the division of the vocational program that offers students the opportunity to attend classes, usually in the morning, and on the job experience in some trade or industrial occupation in the afternoon. A minimum of fifteen hours a week is required of each student in either business or industry or in the school shop.

The state supervisor of industrial education, George W. Swartz, stated that industrial education is a field in which many students find both themselves and a field of employment. Mr. Swartz also pointed out that industrial classes are not primarily for the potential dropout or slow learner. He said, "Of course we do attract many potential dropouts. They can be aided in finding a field of employment in a trade class."²¹

Vocational office training (VOT). Vocational office training, like the other divisions of vocational education, is a work-training program. It is open to twelfth grade students who possess a marketable skill in typewriting, bookkeeping, or shorthand. The business departments offer classes to prepare students in three areas of specialization: stenographic or secretarial, bookkeeping, and clerical practice.

²⁰Richmond Public Schools, Distributive Education, op. cit., p. 1.

²¹George W. Swartz, "Industrial Training is Considered Guide," Richmond News Leader, August 5, 1966.

Mrs. Madge A. Henderson, head of the Business Department at John Marshall High School, comments on vocational office training in the Richmond Public Schools:

Vocational office training is not an employment service for students who are merely seeking part-time or after-school jobs. Vocational office training is an integral part of the total school program and it has as a specific educational objective the preparation of selected students for eventual full-time careers in business.²²

Trade preparatory and practical nursing courses. Other courses are offered that are of a vocational nature. There are trade preparatory courses such as automobile mechanics, machine shop, and electronics being taught at the Virginia Mechanics Institute and brick masonry, tailoring, cosmetology, and dressmaking is being taught at Maggie Walker High School.

A practical nursing course is available for high school seniors who are at least seventeen years old. This course is taught in cooperation with the Medical College of Virginia, Sheltering Arms Hospital and St. Elizabeth's Hospital. Fifty-one students received their certificate from the Richmond Public School of Practical Nursing on February 3, 1967.

Vocational Rehabilitation

The Richmond Vocational Rehabilitation Services is a relatively new program for potential dropouts which was begun in February 1966

²²Mrs. Madge A. Henderson, "Profile of the Business Department in a Comprehensive High School," Virginia Journal of Education, Vol. LIX, No. 9, May, 1966.

in conjunction with the Virginia State Department of Vocational Rehabilitation.

Students who are fifteen years of age or older with emotional, physical, mental, or severe educational and social problems are referred to the Vocational Rehabilitation Office. The rehabilitation counselor directs a comprehensive, intensive diagnostic study which assists the student in planning for a career in keeping with the student's interests, aptitude, abilities, and physical capacity for work. Counselors make regular contacts with businesses and other training facilities to determine opportunities. The counselors work with teachers to help them design classroom experiences which will build needed occupational skills for each handicapped student.²³

According to Mrs. Jean Rula, supervisor of the program, case-loads of about five hundred students had been developed by July 1966. She has an authorized staff of nine counselors, two psychologists, two social workers, and four secretaries.²⁴

In sum, the program is 'a rather sophisticated liaison between the school and the world of work.

.....
I think you will very definitely see a decrease in the dropout rate if we are effective,' said Dr. John G. Cull, Jr., director of the division of research for the State Department of Vocational Rehabilitation.²⁵

²³Richmond Public Schools, "Rehabilitation Unit Established within Richmond Public Schools," The Staff News Bulletin, Richmond Public Schools, Vol. 2, No. 2, October 1966, p. 3.

²⁴Statements by Mrs. Jean Rula, personal interview, July 19, 1966.

²⁵Robert Holland, quoting John G. Cull, Jr., "New Dropout Drive Begun," Richmond Times-Dispatch, May 11, 1966.

The New Vocational Technical School

The new vocational technical school to be in operation by the fall of 1968 will provide classroom and laboratory space for nearly twenty areas of occupational and technical education for 1,620 students from the Richmond area.²⁶

Warren H. Overstreet, coordinator of technical education for the city schools, with reference to the new school, stated, "From the public schools mostly juniors and seniors will be enrolled; however, it is expected there may be some offerings for potential dropouts below the junior level."²⁷ Additional facts about this new facility are given on page twenty-two of this thesis.

Adult Education

Richmond Public Schools provide adult educational opportunities through its high schools and the Virginia Mechanics Institute. A basic educational program and a wide variety of vocational subjects are offered in the evening school programs. For the 1965-66 school year there were 7,114 persons enrolled in the evening classes.²⁸

²⁶Statement by William M. Wilder, personal interview, July 19, 1966.

²⁷Robert Holland, quoting Warren H. Overstreet, "Tech College May Be Best on East Coast," Richmond Times-Dispatch, April 24, 1966.

²⁸Annual Report of the Richmond Public Schools, (Richmond, Virginia: The School Board of the City of Richmond, 1965-66), p. 14.

III. SPECIAL EDUCATION

The Special Education Program in the Richmond Public Schools provides additional educational services needed by those pupils who deviate mentally, physically, or emotionally to the extent that they are unable to make satisfactory adjustment to the regular school program. Were it not for the Special Education Program, most of those now being helped would be dropouts as they would not be provided for through the regular school program. Between ten and twelve per cent of the school population in the city of Richmond is unable to go to school or has trouble in the regular school program without special help or special programs.²⁹ Table XX shows the classification of the special education programs offered by the Richmond Public Schools and the number of pupils and teachers involved with each program for the 1965-66 school year.

IV. SCHOOLS FOR THE SOCIALLY MALADJUSTED

Some children are not able to function in or adapt themselves to a regular school situation because of family, study or attendance problems. Many of these children are slow learners and disciplinary problems. They are called the socially maladjusted. The city has provided a special school for socially maladjusted boys since 1916.

²⁹The School Board of the City of Richmond, Richmond's Classroom - Opportunities for All, op. cit., p. 24.

TABLE XX

CLASSIFICATION OF SERVICES OFFERED BY THE SPECIAL EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF THE RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR 1965-66
WITH THE NUMBER OF PUPILS AND TEACHERS INVOLVED

Classification of Special Services	No. of Pupils	No. of Teachers
Children in detention	741	2
Hospitalized pupils	318	12*
Physically handicapped	88	9
Homebound	147	26*
Hard of hearing	16	1
Speech handicapped	1,092	7
Emotionally disturbed	156	12
Mentally retarded-educable	758	38
Mentally retarded-trainable	197	14
Neurologically impaired	63	5
Severe learning disability	<u>8</u>	<u>1</u>
Total	<u>3,584</u>	<u>127</u>

*Some of these are part-time.

Source: Richmond Public School Special Education Summary Report to the State Department of Education for the school session 1965-1966.

In September 1962 the city closed the Virgie E. Gary School for the socially maladjusted, which was located at the Virginia Mechanics Institute building from 1951 to 1962, and converted the Stonewall Jackson Elementary School at 1520 West Main Street to a special facility for white socially maladjusted boys from the city.

The city operates a special school for Negro boys similar to the Stonewall Jackson School. This school is the Rosa Bowser School located at 00 West Clay Street. It has a staff of three teachers and an enrollment of fewer than forty pupils. The school provides industrial arts and academic subjects.

There are no facilities in the city for girls who are socially maladjusted.

V. SPECIAL PROGRAMS AND SERVICES

Systematic Testing Program

A systematic testing program is important to the success of any school system. The Richmond Public Schools provides testing services for all grade levels. A list of these tests, the purposes, and the levels to which they apply are given in the appendix.

Test scores are needed to indicate the ability level and the achievement level, to provide a comparison of the ability with achievement, to locate the underachiever, and to serve the guidance functions. Certainly test scores are helpful in determining strengths and weaknesses in the instructional curriculum in order that changes in the curriculum can be made intelligently.

Test scores are valuable for the successful placement of all pupils, especially potential dropouts and advanced or accelerated students.³⁰

Pupil Personnel Services

Guidance counselors, visiting teachers and nurses, psychologists and a psychiatric consultant comprise the pupil personnel services offered by the Richmond Public Schools.

Guidance counselors. Counseling services in certain elementary schools in Richmond were made possible through a Ford Foundation grant in connection with the Richmond Human Development Project.

The introduction of counselors to the elementary schools was new to the Richmond school system. In 1963-64 a counselor was placed in the Webster Davis School, the Nathaniel Bacon Elementary School and the James H. Blackwell Junior High School, which houses junior primary through ninth grades. The following school year, 1964-65, a counselor was placed in the J.E.B. Stuart Elementary School.

The elementary school counselor has responsibilities as prescribed by the Guidance Services Department of the Richmond Public Schools in the following major areas:

1. Study of individual pupils
2. Counseling and consultation for pupils and parents
3. Consultation with members of the school staff
4. Liaison with community agencies and referral resources
5. Orientation

³⁰Information obtained from Mrs. Mary Jones, personal interview, August 11, 1965.

6. Provision of occupational, education, and personal-social information
7. Research and follow-up.³¹

According to George O. McClary, former supervisor of guidance for the Richmond Public Schools, the elementary school counselor should have an influence on the holding power of the schools.³²

The Richmond Public Schools provide guidance counselors in all of its junior and senior high schools. In the high schools a full time secretary is provided to give clerical assistance to counselors. The junior high counselors rely on the regular school secretary for help when needed.

The number of counselors has increased from 36 in 1958-59 to 55 in 1964-65. In Richmond there is a ratio of one counselor to 328 secondary students.³³

The primary functions of the counselors are:

1. To help pupils know and take advantage of educational opportunities
2. To identify strengths and weaknesses
3. To discover aptitudes and interests
4. To plan realistic goals.³⁴

³¹Richmond Public Schools, What Does the Elementary School Counselor Do? (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, August 1963) (Mimeographed.)

³²Statement by George O. McClary, personal interview, August 11, 1965.

³³Statement by George O. McClary, personal interview, July 19, 1966.

³⁴Richmond Public Schools, The School Counselor, brochure (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools.)

Visiting teachers and nurses. The main duty of the seventeen visiting teachers in the Richmond Public Schools is to investigate certain pupils referred to them because of truancy or other problems concerned with the lack of attendance. The visiting teacher is a liaison between the home and the school. Through home visitations the visiting teacher provides helpful information of mutual benefit to pupil, school, and parent.

The city's twenty-eight school nurses assist in the early identification of health or physical problems and render first-aid when needed. The nurse will assume the duties of the visiting teacher when she is absent and when the need arises.

Psychologists and psychiatric consultant. The Richmond Public Schools employs eleven school psychologists. For the school year ending June 1966 there were 1,650 formal referrals sent to this major division of the Pupil Personnel Services from the entire city.³⁵

The school psychologist aids pupils by:

1. Assessing pupils' intelligence and measuring achievement on an individual basis.
2. Diagnosing specific problems related to learning, conduct, study habits, reading problems, or behavior difficulties.
3. Evaluating emotional adjustment and mental health when personal problems interfere with school learning.

³⁵Richmond Public School, "The School Psychologist Serves Persons System-wide," The Staff News Bulletin, Richmond Public Schools, Vol. 2, No. 3, November 1966, p. 3.

4. Counseling toward better school adjustment and academic achievement.³⁶

Often his responsibilities make it necessary for him to counsel parents and provide teachers with pertinent facts in regard to his findings and recommendations.

In 1958-59 the school system had only four school psychologists. Rudolph Wagner, chief psychologist in the Department of Pupil Personnel Services, states that the increase in the number of psychologists is not only because of an increased school enrollment but also that there are more services offered and more emphasis placed on the need for school psychologists.³⁷

The Richmond Public Schools has the benefit of the services of a psychiatric consultant for two hours each week. During the 1964-65 school year 109 children were consulted by him.³⁸

Human Development Project

The Human Development Project was begun in June 1963 for a three year period with a \$500,000 financial assistance grant from the Ford Foundation.

The general purpose of the project is to raise the academic achievement of culturally deprived pupils and to increase

³⁶Richmond Public Schools, The School Psychologist, brochure (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools).

³⁷Opinion expressed by Rudolph F. Wagner, personal interview, August 24, 1965.

³⁸Information obtained from George O. McClary, personal interview, August 11, 1965.

the holding power of the school in order that children may develop their full educational potential.³⁹

Four elementary and two junior high schools served as centers for the 4,500 children involved in the project.⁴⁰

One of the approaches used by this project was the extension of the school program beyond the regular school day. To help compensate for environmental deficiencies the project provided cultural, academic, and recreational activities before school, after school, in the evening, and during the summer for voluntary participants.

Another approach used to help fulfill the purpose of the project was to put emphasis on reading and language development. Each project school was staffed with a specialist in reading and language arts. The language arts program was mainly concerned with "the involvement of teachers, students, principals, and parents in a combined undertaking to improve the reading level of all disadvantaged children."⁴¹

The project provided for the expansion of pupil personnel services and a reduction of the pupil-teacher ratio in the project

³⁹Richmond Public Schools, Facts about Your Schools, op. cit., p. 14.

⁴⁰Ibid.

⁴¹Richmond Public Schools, Human Development Project Report (Richmond, Virginia: Richmond Public Schools, August 1964), p. 9.

schools. This expansion included the services of visiting teachers, guidance counselors, psychologists, and a consulting psychiatrist. The pupil-teacher ratio in July 1964 was lowered from the city-wide ratio of 25.5 to 22.2 in the project schools.⁴²

An evaluation report of this project by the city schools states, "There is considerable evidence that substantial increases in pupil personnel services result in improved pupil achievement and a reduction in the number of school dropouts."⁴³

Reading Program

The importance of reading cannot be overemphasized. Superintendent H. I. Willett expressed his views on reading ability to a teacher convocation on September 5, 1962:

Reading and communicative skills are basic to the acquisition and use of knowledge, and reading is the most important educational skill, for school success is conditioned by and closely related to reading ability.⁴⁴

Reading retardation is listed frequently as one of the reasons for students dropping out of school. Robert F. Williams, executive secretary of the Virginia Education Association, documents this statement and gives the reader some idea of the severity of the problem:

⁴²Ibid., p. 15.

⁴³Richmond Public Schools, Facts about Your School, op. cit., p. 16.

⁴⁴Convocation address, H. I. Willett, Richmond, Virginia, September 5, 1962.

One of the characteristics of the dropout is that he usually is a poor reader. . . . A Maryland study showed that one-third of those who dropped out of school were reading below the third grade level and one-half were reading below the sixth grade level.⁴⁵

The average dropout is two years or more retarded in reading according to a statement by Daniel Schreiber:

To my mind, the greatest factor in school dropouts is reading retardation. It affects not only the child's attitude, but also the parent's attitude toward school. All parents, regardless of their cultural or economic level, or how unschooled they are, know that there is one subject the school is supposed to teach their children and that is: how to read. Yet, study after study has shown that the average dropout is two years or more retarded in reading.⁴⁶

Reading retardation may affect the student in ways other than academic, according to Warren G. Findley of the School of Education, University of Georgia:

The mechanism of reading disability operates variously to produce loss of self-confidence, if not indeed of self-respect. It may result as a secondary effect of emotional disturbance, but it is also a primary factor in itself in generating and spreading personal distress.⁴⁷

Since 1960 a greater emphasis has been placed on reading in the Richmond Public Schools. Robert T. Anderson, former director

⁴⁵Robert F. Williams, Summary of the Conference on the Reluctant Learner, op. cit., p. 26.

⁴⁶Daniel Schreiber, "The School Dropout - Fugitive from Failure," op. cit., p. 237.

⁴⁷Warren G. Findley, "Language Development and Dropouts," The School Dropout, op. cit., pp. 168-69.

of the language arts program in Richmond, gives some highlights of Richmond's reading programs which have taken place over the past several years. (1) One program which he termed "effective" was the reading clinic. During the summer of 1960 reading was offered at Albert H. Hill Junior High School to children from the elementary and junior high schools. Some of these children were recommended for the program by their winter school teachers. However, others attended voluntarily. (2) Classes in reading are now offered in the high schools of the city each summer for those in grades five through twelve. (3) During the 1962-63 school year teacher workshops on reading were conducted throughout the city. (4) Four schools on their own initiative have increased their pupil-teacher ratio in order that one teacher would be available to teach remedial reading for the whole school. In each of these four schools the teachers were asked if they would like to have a remedial reading teacher at the expense of a larger class enrollment. They answered in the affirmative. (5) The Office of Economic Opportunity provided federal funds for eighteen remedial reading teachers during the summer of 1965 to help children overcome their reading difficulties. Also, twenty remedial teachers were provided for the school year 1965-66. (6) During 1966 with funds provided by Public Law 89 - 10 summer programs were held in thirty-one schools. All offered reading and each had a reading consultant.⁴⁸

⁴⁸Statements by Robert T. Anderson, personal interview, June 23, 1966.

The city has conducted two pilot studies in regard to reading. One began on September 1, 1964, and ended on June 30, 1966 at the Westhampton School. One control and one experimental group, each composed of thirty beginning five-year-old pupils, was set up to determine if materials for beginning readers prepared and published as the Initial Teaching Alphabet (ITA) provide a better learning situation than the conventional materials and Roman alphabet.⁴⁹ These materials (ITA) were developed in England by Sir James Pitman.

The results of the study are not conclusive since only fifty per cent of the experimental group remained for the final tests because of families moving from the area. Nevertheless, Ernest W. Mooney, director of instruction in Richmond, reported, "The teacher's opinion and the fact that twenty-five children were reading well above normal expectancies at the end of the first grade warrants further investigation of the ITA reading approach. . ."50

The other pilot study, which was completed in June 1966, included two schools in relatively well-to-do neighborhoods and two schools in a lower socioeconomic bracket for the purpose of investigating whether certain reading materials pertaining to the phonetic approach to beginning reading provide pupils with skills needed for reading to a greater degree than the state of Virginia adopted basal texts.⁵¹

⁴⁹State Department of Education, Pilot Studies, Research Report (Richmond, Virginia: State Department of Education, December 1965), p. 18.

⁵⁰Robert Holland, "Study Shows Phonics Helps in Reading," quoting Ernest W. Mooney, Richmond Times-Dispatch, Dec. 26, 1966.

⁵¹State Department of Education, Pilot Studies, op. cit., p. 16.

The study found that "there were significant differences in achievement on word meaning, spelling, and work-study skills between the experimental and control groups from the low socioeconomic groups."⁵² However, no significant differences in reading achievement were found in the high socioeconomic groups. Pupils in the underprivileged areas who used phonetic readers scored higher on all sections of reading tests over a three-year period than those pupils in the same grade who had used the material for two years or less.⁵³

VI. SUMMARY

This chapter described the various programs and services that Richmond is offering in its effort to reduce the number of dropouts.

The categories into which programs and services are divided are pre-school and elementary level, the secondary level, special education, schools for the socially maladjusted, and special programs and services.

The programs offered on the secondary level include the certificate program, classes for the over-aged, distributive education, industrial cooperative training, vocational office training, trade preparatory and practical nursing courses, vocational rehabilitation, the New Vocational Technical School, and adult education.

The special education program is provided for those students who deviate mentally, physically, or emotionally to the extent that

⁵³Ibid.

they are unable to make satisfactory adjustment to the regular school program.

Schools for socially maladjusted boys are offered in an attempt to meet the needs of those students who are not able to function in or adapt themselves to a regular school situation.

Special programs and services include a systematic testing program, guidance counselors, visiting teachers and nurses, psychologists and psychiatric consultant, Human Development Project, and an extensive reading program.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

I. A BRIEF SUMMARY OF SIGNIFICANT POINTS

Changes and advances in technology, industry, science and related fields will require more education and training in the future. Those persons who do not possess some standard or level of skill will face a dim future of unemployment. Since the population is expected to continue to increase in metropolitan areas, competition will become keen for those with a marketable skill. Menial jobs will be fewer in number.

The major concern for the dropout is that he will be equipped for the future and, therefore, will become a productive citizen rather than a public liability.

The Richmond school system is continuing to have an increase in enrollment. The city is anticipating its educational needs with plans for the expansion of its school facilities. The city has maintained its effort and rank in the state in regard to the support of education even though its ability to support education has decreased.

School planning in Richmond is difficult since the population is so mobile. The composition of the population is changing with the more affluent whites leaving the city. The total population is declining although the school age population is increasing.

The city of Richmond is obtaining more federal aid, made available through legislation passed in recent years. This aid has relieved the city of some of its burdens and has improved and upgraded education in the poverty areas.

According to projected statistics the dropout problem will become worse. There is a certain degree of urgency to do something now. There has been an increase in publicity directed toward the dropout, primarily on the national level.

Caution should be exercised when using statistics on dropouts since some inadequacies exist in the accounting of dropouts.

The dropout problem has been described as a political, social, economic and educational problem.

The dropout problem is a very complex one. There are many factors involved that might cause a child to leave school earlier than society feels he should. The reasons are varied and not uniform for all students.

The holding power in Richmond is increasing, but it is still below that of the state. After the reinstatement of the compulsory attendance law in 1963, the dropout rate declined, but later rose to a higher level than it was before the enactment of the law.

The dropout rate of 6.8 per cent for 1964-65 was the same as the average for the eight-year-period from 1957-65. The rate indicates a slight reduction in recent years, but the city's rank in the state has remained low.

A wide variation exists among dropout rates of the various secondary schools in the city, both white and Negro, and among junior and senior high schools.

The main reason given for dropping out is "indifference," which accounts for thirty-five per cent of those who dropped out of school from 1957-1965. "Went to work" and "military service" comprised more than twenty per cent of those quitting school during the same span of years. (Nearly twenty-five per cent of the families in Richmond earn less than \$3,000 per year.) At the present time jobs are available and the city of Richmond has a low rate of unemployment. A rather large number of dropouts leave for personal illness, this reason usually indicating pregnancy. This was particularly true in 1964-65 in the senior high schools where the Negro rate doubled that of the whites.

The number of dropouts in white and Negro senior high schools in 1964-65 was about equal, but the number of Negro junior high dropouts was more than three times the number of white junior high dropouts in that same year.

All students are potential dropouts, but some are more likely to drop out than others.

Richmond provides a wide range of programs and services which should have an influence on the holding power of the schools. These programs and services include early childhood education, holding grades, certificate program, classes for the over-aged, vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, plans for a new vocational-technical school,

special education, and schools for the socially maladjusted. There are also special programs and services such as a systematic testing program, pupil personnel services, Human Development Project, and an extensive reading program.

II. IMPORTANT CONCLUSIONS

Whenever a student leaves school, he has removed himself from the influence of some organized effort to equip him with a marketable skill or a high school education. Society stands to lose when this occurs.

Richmond's future dropout problem should improve if opposing factors do not exist to work against it. Many programs and much effort have been developed in Richmond with disappointing results thus far. Yet, Richmond is not lagging in its effort and support of education. Since the main reason given for dropping out is indifference, the school is evidently failing to provide suitable or challenging programs for all its students.

Nearly twenty-five per cent of families in Richmond earn less than \$3,000. Therefore, the necessity for leaving school to go to work is understandable in some cases.

As long as Richmond's rate of unemployment remains low, the city's dropouts should not present a serious problem. However, the number of unskilled jobs is expected to decline or at least not to increase. Therefore, more dropouts may have difficulty securing employment.

Richmond is now providing a variety of programs and services which should have a positive influence on the potential dropout. However, most of its programs and services are relatively new, many beginning since 1960. Some are so new, such as early childhood education and vocational rehabilitation, that any attempt to measure their success would be pure speculation. Others may require several years for an objective evaluation. The expansion of the holding grades and the certificate programs, the emphasis on reading, and the completion of a new vocational-technical school were developed in an attempt to lower the number of dropouts.

The emphasis now being put on helping the potential dropout in the elementary school through the use of guidance counselors, early childhood education programs, and the holding grades is intended to reduce the number of dropouts in the future.

The rate and number of Negro dropouts is larger than that of white dropouts.

The dropout rate can be reduced as was shown by the concentrated efforts during the summer of 1963. This attempt indicated that the combined efforts of all levels of government and others concerned with the problem such as school, home, and community were necessary for the success of such an accomplishment.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE COURSES OF ACTION

The following recommendations are made for the Richmond Public Schools:

1. The present programs and services should be continued and expanded.
2. The responsibility for the dropouts who are sixteen years of age and older should be vested in one officer. His main function should be the follow-up of each dropout.
3. Financial aid ought to be available for students in real need.
4. Emphasis should be placed on sex and health education, especially in areas of the city where the number of pregnancies is high.
5. The environment of potential dropouts needs to be improved.
6. Work experiences, even for some junior high school potential dropouts, should be provided with the aid and support of the home and community to teach responsibility and keep students occupied.
7. Since the number of Negro junior high school dropouts was more than three times that of the white junior high school dropouts, greater emphasis on future efforts should be placed in the Negro junior high schools. The establishment of "C" programs in these schools and the offering of additional vocational subjects should prove beneficial.
8. A school and city "Stay-in-School Campaign" should be undertaken. This should focus the attention of the students on the importance of remaining in school as well as the disadvantages he would face should he drop out.

9. Professional inservice training of the staff in recognizing and meeting the specialized needs of potential dropouts should be undertaken.

10. A longitudinal study of the effectiveness of the programs and services for potential dropouts should be made.

11. The combined efforts of school, home, church, and community should be directed toward keeping children in school long enough for them to obtain a marketable skill.

IV. FURTHER RESEARCH NEEDED

Some objective basis for measuring the effectiveness and success of programs and services now offered to increase the holding power of the schools need to be found.

The influence of the environment, the peer group, and desirable teacher-pupil relationships upon children believed to be potential dropouts needs to be investigated.

An investigation is needed to seek the answer for the variations in the number and rate of dropouts that exist between each white and Negro school and between the junior and senior high schools. The schools need to be studied separately and collectively.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

CRITERIA FOR IDENTIFYING POTENTIAL DROPOUTS

APPENDIX A

CRITERIA FOR IDENTIFYING POTENTIAL DROPOUTS¹

I. Primary factors:

- A. Consistant failure to achieve in regular school work.
- B. Age sixteen years or older.
- C. Low reading ability.
- D. Grade level placement two or more years below average for age.
- E. Retained in grade at least once in the elementary school.
- F. Irregular attendance and frequent tardiness.
- G. Frequent changes of schools.
- H. Refusal to participate in extracurricular activities.
- I. Performance consistently below potential.
- J. Parents usually have less than an 8th grade education, are in low-income groups -- usually in a trade or labor occupation.
- K. Boys are more likely than girls to become dropouts.

II. Related factors:

- A. Active antagonism to teachers and principals.
- B. Marked disinterest in school and a feeling of "not belonging."
- C. Not accepted by the school staff.
- D. Unhappy family situation.
- E. Marked differences from schoolmates, such as in interests, social level, physique, national origin, dress, or personality development.
- F. Inability to afford the normal expenditures of schoolmates.
- G. Inability to compete with brothers and sisters.
- H. Serious physical or emotional handicaps.
- I. Discipline cases.
- J. Record of delinquency.
- K. Activities centered outside school.
- L. Male car owners.
- M. Often in difficulty with community agencies and the law.
- N. An air of purposelessness and no personal goals for achievement.
- O. Negative attitude of parents toward graduation.

¹U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, The 1963 Dropout Campaign (Washington, D.C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1964), p. 12.

APPENDIX B

SIGNS OF A DROPOUT

APPENDIX B

SIGNS OF A DROPOUT (RECURRING PROBLEMS) BY LLOYD SEVAN¹

1. Seventh-grade achievement a year or more below grade level in arithmetic and reading. The student is not keeping up academically.
2. Attendance in several elementary schools. The student cannot develop a sense of belonging to anyone.
3. A newcomer to Canton or any city. The student has come from a rural area or a smaller town and feels lost in a big city.
4. Failure in one or more years of elementary or high school. Most frequently the failures occur in the first, second, eighth and ninth grades.
5. Low economic level. This is generally accompanied by a lack of parental emphasis on education.
6. A broken home.
7. An irregular attendance pattern in high school. Usually this is accompanied by low grades.
8. Difficulty in adjusting to the high school. The student does not take part in school affairs.
9. Community problems. A youth who has been in difficulty with the police or other community agencies.
10. Among girls, going steady with older boys. The boy leaves school for the service or a job and the girl no longer fits in.
11. Among boys, ownership of his car. He must drop out to earn money to support his vehicle.

¹Francis W. Matika and Rebecca Scheerer, "Are The Causes of Dropouts Excuses," quoting Lloyd Sevan, The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, Nov. 1962), pp. 41-42.

APPENDIX C

**LIST OF FACTORS RELATING TO MOTIVATION OF A STUDENT AND
THE DIFFERENTIATION BETWEEN HIGH AND LOW ACHIEVERS**

APPENDIX C

LIST OF FACTORS RELATING TO MOTIVATION OF A STUDENT AND THE DIFFERENTIATION BETWEEN HIGH AND LOW ACHIEVERS BY GOODWIN WATSON¹

I. Heredity

- A. One innate factor seems to be a temperamental disposition toward activity.
- B. A second innate difference is in intellectual capacity.

II. Home

- A. The recognition given a child by his parents for numerous small achievements, day after day, helps to build an autonomous desire to achieve. Less fortunate are children whose parents are indifferent, overburdened, or rejecting.
- B. The kind of life the parents themselves live may speak louder than the advice they give their children. If the parents feel beaten and hopeless about their own careers and have resigned themselves to never "getting anywhere," this mood is likely to be internalized by their children.
- C. The home environment supplies not only the attitudes but many of the essential skills for achievement. The cultural resources of the home give some children an excellent start in academic life.
- D. Interest in and concern about the children's schoolwork is another significant variable.
- E. The home is responsible for many factors which affect physical vitality and energy level. Sanitation, proper diet, opportunity for outdoor play, provision for enough sleep, and regular medical and dental checkups all contribute. Some children come to school day after day, tired, sleepy, underfed, poorly protected against wet and cold. It is hardly surprising that such youngsters lack the drive to push ahead with their studies.
- F. Work is a learned habit. In some homes, everyone works.... In other homes, children seldom or never have responsibility for serious work.

III. Emotional Adjustment

- A. Ambition is not synonymous with comfortable emotional adjustment.

IV. School

- A. Successful or unsuccessful school experiences contribute to high or low achievement. Poor motivation results from school tasks that have been too simple.
- B. Motivation to work at school tasks depends on their relevance to the life of the learner.
- C. Attitudes toward teachers also contribute significantly to feelings about school.
- D. The extracurricular life of the school is also related to motivational differences.

V. Friends

- A. Neighborhood patterns and selection tend to surround children with companions whose attitudes reinforce their own.
- B. Those who have friends going to college will be more highly motivated to do well in their school work. Approval from the opposite sex is very important for adolescents.

VI. Work

- A. The organization of work may fasten or discourage efforts at self-improvement.

VII. Community Culture

- A. In some cultures people are striving to get ahead; in other cultures widespread apathy and indifference exists. Climate is only one factor.
- B. Within the culture epoch, persons belonging to particular races, ethnic groups, socioeconomic classes may have different patterns of motivation.

¹Goodwin Watson, editor, No Room at the Bottom. Project on the Educational Implications of Automation (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1962), pp. 7-17.

APPENDIX D

LIST OF TESTS THAT ARE GIVEN IN THE RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
THE PURPOSES, AND THE LEVELS TO WHICH THEY APPLY

APPENDIX D

LIST OF TESTS THAT ARE GIVEN IN THE RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
THE PURPOSES, AND THE LEVELS TO WHICH THEY APPLY

Mental Maturity Tests

Achievement Tests

Jr. Primary 1st and 2nd years

California (S-F Test of Mental
Maturity (Level 0)
Lee-Clark Readiness
Metropolitan Readiness
Science Research Associates
Primary Mental Abilities (K-I)

California Achievement Tests
Lee-Clark Primer Test
Metropolitan Achievement (Primary I)
Science Research Associates (1-2)
Stanford Achievement (Primary I)

Grades 2-6

California (S-F) Test of Mental
Maturity (Level 1-2)
Kuhlmann-Anderson
Lorge-Thorndike*
Science Reserach Associates
(P.M.A. 2-4, 4-6)

California Achievement**
(Lower or Upper Primary)
Lee-Clarke First Reader
Metropolitan Achievement (Primary II)
Science Research Associates*
(Elementary-Intermediate, 1-2, 2-4,
4-6)
Stanford Achievement
(Primary II - Intermediate I, II)

Grade 7

California (S-F) Test of Mental
Maturity* (Level 3)
Science Research Associates
(P.M.A. 6-9)

California Achievement
(Junior High)
Metropolitan Achievement (Advanced)
Iowa Silent Reading*
(Elementary)
Science Research Associates (6-9)
Stanford Achievement (Advanced)

Mental Maturity TestsAchievement TestsGrade 8

California (S-F) Test of Mental
Maturity (Level 3)
Henmon-Nelson Tests of General
Ability
School and College Ability Tests

California Achievement
(Junior High)
Differential Aptitude Test* (L)
California Occupational Interest Test
OR
Kuder Preference**

Grades 9-12

Henmon-Nelson Tests of General
Ability
School and College Ability Tests*

California Achievement
(Junior High - Advanced)
Nelson-Denny Reading Test
Sequential Tests of Educational
Progress* (2, 3)
Stanford Achievement (Advanced)
Survey of Arithmetic Achievement**

* Required - Virginia State Testing Program: SRA and L.T. - Grade 4
CTMM and ISR - Grade 7
SCAT and STEP - Grades 9-11

** Required - Richmond Public Schools: CAT - Grade 6
OII or K.P? - Grade 8
C.S.A.A. - Grade 11

¹Richmond Public Schools.

VITA

Marshall Lewis Waring, son of Mrs. Jessie Lewis Waring and the late William George Waring, was born in West Point, Virginia, on January 20, 1931. He attended West Point High School. He graduated from Randolph-Macon Academy, Front Royal, Virginia, in June 1948. In June 1953 he received the Bachelor of Arts Degree from Randolph-Macon College. Two years later he received a Bachelor of Science Degree in Business Administration from the University of Richmond.

His brief employment with the Bank of Virginia, Richmond, Virginia, was interrupted in November 1955 by a tour of active duty in the United States Army from 1955 to 1957, after which he accepted an elementary teaching position in Highwood, Illinois, until June 1958.

He was married on July 5, 1952, to the former Drucilla Marshall of Richmond, a graduate of Westhampton College. His daughters, Lynn Carol and Jill Marshall, were born on September 8, 1959, and July 31, 1963, respectively.

Mr. Waring has been teaching in the Richmond Public Schools since September 1958. At the present time he is teaching at the Albert H. Hill Junior High School.

He has been enrolled in the University of Richmond since the summer of 1960 in pursuit of the degree of Master of Science in Education.