



1-1-1942

A Brief History of the Teaching of Home Economics in the Public Schools of the United States

Elizabeth Randolph
Butler University

Follow this and additional works at: <http://digitalcommons.butler.edu/grtheses>

 Part of the [Curriculum and Instruction Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Randolph, Elizabeth, "A Brief History of the Teaching of Home Economics in the Public Schools of the United States" (1942).
Graduate Thesis Collection. Paper 331.

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate Scholarship at Digital Commons @ Butler University. It has been accepted for inclusion in Graduate Thesis Collection by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons @ Butler University. For more information, please contact fgaede@butler.edu.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE TEACHING OF HOME ECONOMICS
IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

by

ELIZABETH RANDOLPH

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science
College of Education

Division of Graduate Instruction
Butler University
Indianapolis
1942

PREFACE

This study is the result of interest aroused by the realization that little is known of the origin and development of home economics. Although magazine articles and reports of committees are numerous, educational textbooks give scant mention to this subject. Therefore, it is to be hoped that this study will be helpful to students in the fields of home economics and education.

The author wishes to acknowledge gratefully the assistance of Dr. Albert Mock, Butler University, who aided immeasurably in the completion of this study; and Mr. Harry E. Wood, Director of Fine and Practical Arts in the Indianapolis Public Schools, who made it possible for the writer to have access to the Indianapolis School Board records.

E.D.R.

Indianapolis, 1942.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	v
LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS	vi
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Reasons for Study	2
Purpose of Study	2
Limitations	3
Definitions of Terms	4
Source of Material	6
II. FACTORS IN ESTABLISHMENT OF HOME ECONOMICS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS	8
Status of Education in New England	8
Social and Economic Factors	9
Work of Catherine E. Beecher	10
Beginning of Sewing Instruction	15
Contribution of Cooking Schools	16
Kitchen-garden Movement	19
Manual Training Movement	19
Contributions of Scientists	20
Land-grant Colleges	21
Chicago World's Fair	23
Summary	23
III. INTRODUCTORY PERIOD---Nineteenth Century	25
First Cooking and Sewing Classes in the United States	25
Establishment of Cooking and Sewing in City Schools	29
Mrs. Ellen H. Richards	35
Lake Placid Conference	36
Content of Courses	38
Grade Placement and Time Allotment	39
Summary	40
IV. EXPERIMENTAL PERIOD---1900-1916	41
Factors in Growth	41

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

Chapter	Page
American Home Economics Association	43
Growth and Development	44
Negro Schools	55
Objectives	55
Content of Courses	57
Time Allotment and Grade Placement	62
Statistics	66
Textbooks	67
Teaching Procedures	69
Laboratory Equipment	70
Summary	72
 V. ORGANIZATION PERIOD---1917-1941.	 74
National Legislation	74
Social and Economic Factors	78
Objectives	80
Content of Courses	83
Grade Placement	92
Time Allotment	94
Teaching Procedures	98
Equipment	99
Textbooks	103
Negro Schools	106
Growth	109
Summary	113
 VI. TRENDS IN HOME ECONOMICS	 115
Basic Principles	115
Factors	115
Placement	118
Growth	119
Subject Matter	119
 VII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	 121
Conclusions	122
Recommendations	130
 APPENDIX	 134
 BIBLIOGRAPHY	 135

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Materials Used in First Sewing Class.	26
2. Cities and States that Introduced Cooking and Sewing in the Nineteenth Century	34
3. Growth of Public Secondary Schools in the United States 1890-1915	42
4. Dates Showing Optional and Compulsory Adoption of Home Economics	46
5. Dates for Introduction of Home Economics in High School	54
6. Time Allotment for Home Economics 1900-1916	63
7. Summary of Home Economics in Detroit Public Schools 1916	65
8. Home Economics Enrollment in Public High Schools 1910 and 1915	66
9. Grade Placement of Home Economics in 1926	92
10. Grade Placement of Home Economics in 1938-39.	93
11. Time Allotment for Home Economics in 1926	95
12. Length of Periods for Home Economics Courses 1938-39	96
13. Time Allotment Per Week for Home Economics 1938-39	97
14. Growth of Home Economics in Vocational Schools	109
15. Home Economics Enrollment in Public High Schools 1922-39	110
16. Boys Enrolled in Home Economics 1922-1938	111
17. Trends in Home Economics Education	116

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

Figure	Page
1. Introduction of Home Economics 1875-1919. . . .	52
2. Introduction of Compulsory Teaching of Home Economics 1903-1923	52
3. Per Cent of Schools Teaching Different Areas of Home Economics, in Reimbursed and Nonreimbursed Programs	91
4. Per Cent of Girls Enrolled in Home Economics at Each Grade Level.	94
5. Enrollment of Negroes in Federally Aided Schools, from 1919 to 1929.	107
6. Per Cent of Schools in the Different Sizes of Communities that Offered Home Economics	112

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE TEACHING OF HOME ECONOMICS
IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF THE UNITED STATES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The progress of the home economics movement presents an interesting study. It is hoped that the information contained herein will be helpful to those who wish to delve further into the historical aspects of education, and to those who are engaged in home economics work. From a very small beginning at Boston in 1835¹ this movement has grown tremendously until today it is an accepted component of almost every school system. In comparison to the teaching of the academic subjects, home economics is one of the most recent additions to the school curriculum, having been included within the last sixty years. Although home economics originated in 1835, it was not until the early 1880's that states and large communities began to incorporate the study of cooking and sewing in the curriculum.

¹
Mary W. Cauley, "History of the Teaching of Sewing in the Boston Schools," (Report prepared for the teachers of Household Arts and Science at the celebration of the one-hundredth anniversary of the teaching of sewing in the Boston schools, Boston, 1935).

Reasons for Study

The history of home economics has always been of interest to the author, and in the pursuit of specific information it was found that, although there were many magazine articles on the subject, the material was very scattered and difficult to find. The need for such a study seemed still more apparent when several state supervisors of home economics reported that they wished to see the results of this study, and when the American Home Economics Association could give little information or advice concerning available material.

In addition, it is always easier to understand present conditions if past trends are known. So, the origin, development, and present status of home economics is of importance in order to keep abreast of the present and future conditions.

Purpose of This Study

It is the purpose of this study to show that in the past sixty or seventy years there have been many outstanding developments in the home economics program. Specifically it proposes to answer the following questions with reference to the growth, time allotment, grade placement, content of courses, textbook, and legislation effecting home economics.

1. Where and when was the first public school class in home economics?
2. What were the factors that led to the establishment of home economics in the public schools?
3. Who were the leaders in the early development of home economics?

4. What effect did the Smith-Lever, Smith-Hughes, and George-Reed Acts have on the development of home economics?
5. What was the content of the first home economics courses?
6. What subjects are now included in the home economics curriculum?
7. How does the time allotment and grade placement of today compare with that of the early days?
8. What was the nature of the subject matter of the first textbooks?
9. What is the nature of the subject matter of the modern textbooks?
10. How have the classrooms changed since the early days?
11. When was home economics first taught in each state?
12. What is the extent to which home economics is offered today?
13. What are the trends in the home economics movement today?

Limitations

It is necessary to confine this study to the public schools of the United States in as much as the field becomes too broad if the colleges, private schools, night and part-time schools and adult classes are considered. It is apparent that such a study as this one presents many problems in the sifting of essential material from the non-essential. If undue weight is given to certain aspects, while others are slighted, it is because the necessary material is not available. Furthermore, this will be a brief history or resumé of the activities and development to date since the subject has almost endless possibilities.

Definitions of Terms

For many years there was no common terminology in use by the schools. This led to much confusion and difficulty in the interpretation of the laws, as many states enacted legislation regarding the teaching of home economics. In 1909 at the Lake Placid Conference on Home Economics the name Home Economics was decided upon, and remains today the same, although in many sections of the country this is not adhered to.² Home economics was selected because it was a general name that was simple yet comprehensive enough to cover sanitation, cookery, clothing, kindred household arts, and instruction in the art and science of living from the kindergarten to the college. Throughout this study this term will be employed except as other names were used when the subject was in its infancy.

This subject has been taught under various titles: Domestic Economy, Domestic Science, Domestic Art, Household Arts, Household Science, Foods, Clothing, Household Economy, Homemaking, and Home Economics.

"Domestic Economy" was the first name utilized, credit for which must be given to Catherine E. Beecher in her book Domestic Economy. This referred to all the home activities with which a wife and mother had to cope.

"Domestic Science" was adopted after Ellen H. Richards became interested in applying science to the home while she was

²"Lake Placid Conference on Home Economics," Journal of Home Economics, I (February, 1909), p. 4.

teaching at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. As the name suggests, the teaching of the subject was placed on a scientific basis. This name usually referred only to cooking.

"Domestic Art" was used after art principles were applied to the teaching of clothing and home management. Although some departments were referred to as Domestic Art Departments, this was usually used with reference to the clothing side of home economics.

"Household Science" was similar to "Domestic Science" in that it was not comprehensive, did not include the art application, but emphasized only cookery.

"Household Arts" was similar to "Domestic Art" as it embraced the practical or applied side, and ignored the scientific aspect. Foods, clothing, and homemaking were eliminated because the terms were too limiting and did not include all the activities of home life. They referred to specific household duties.

Household Economy included the economics of the home, but was discarded in favor of Home Economics, as the name was inconveniently long and cumbersome.

In the following pages reference is frequently made to the public schools. This includes the grades from one to twelve. Generally speaking, throughout the United States the elementary school comprises grades from one to eight, the secondary school from nine to twelve. The junior high schools includes grades seven, eight, and nine. This indicates that there may be some confusion as to terminology, but as this is

the manner in which the schools are designated this seemed the best way to handle the problem.

A curriculum is any systematic and schematic arrangement of courses which extends through a number of years and which is planned for any clearly differentiated group of pupils. It represents an arrangement of courses with which a student is restricted in his choice of work leading to graduation.³

A course of study refers to the material of the subject outlined for instructional purposes. The desired objectives, outcomes, material to be taught during the semester, and references are generally included.

Sources of Material

A greater part of the data was obtained from the Journal of Home Economics, National Education Association Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, the Biennial Survey of Education, and Practical Home Economics. These reports and magazines were studied page by page from the year in which they were first published through the last edition because much of the material is not listed in the Reader's Guide.

The encyclopedias and educational history books yielded some information. Three books were particularly helpful: Domestic Economy, by Catherine E. Beecher, Harper and Brothers, 1841; Home Economics in Education, by Isabel Bevier, J. B. Lippincott, 1924; and The Home Economics Movement, by Isabel

³Charles H. Johnson et al. Junior and Senior High School Administration, p. 77. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1922.

Bevier and Susannah Usher, Whitcomb and Barrow, 1906. Government bulletins supplied statistical information and trends.

A questionnaire was sent to each state superintendent and the city superintendent of Washington, D. C. to determine when home economics was first taught, when legalized or required by law, and the number of schools in 1940-1941 teaching home economics.

CHAPTER II

FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCED THE INCLUSION OF HOME ECONOMICS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Status of Education in Colonial New England

In order to understand the factors that led to the inclusion of home economics in the public school curriculum it is necessary to review briefly the status of education in New England during the colonial period. This section of the country played a most important part in the development of education because of all those who came to our shores, the Puritans contributed most to the scholastic ideals and established principles which were eventually adopted by the different States. It must be remembered that many of these colonists came from homes of refinement and culture, and placed great stress on education and religion.

At first only boys were admitted to the public schools, as it was deemed unnecessary for girls to be educated. Although the Boston Latin Grammar School was founded in 1635, and the first public school supported by direct taxation originated at Dorchester, Massachusetts, in 1639, it was not until 1784 that girls were admitted to the writing schools of Boston between the morning and afternoon sessions. In 1789 girls were allowed to attend writing school in the morning and the boys the

reading school, and vice versa, so that separate instruction was maintained. It was not until 1825 that Boston had a high school for girls. This idea proved so popular, and the demands for admission so numerous, that the school committee abolished the school as unnecessary because the expenditures would have been too great.¹

The dame school was the first agency outside the home to recognize the fact that girls should be educated or that home training was not sufficient. They afforded opportunities to learn a meager amount of needlework, knitting, dancing, improvement in manners, reading, spelling, writing, counting, and catechism. The school was generally kept in a kitchen or living room by some woman who knew the rudiments of education and who wished to earn a little money. The charge for this instruction was a few pennies a week. The dame school soon became the primary school of New England which, in turn, was a prerequisite for entrance to the grammar school.²

Social and Economic Factors

After the close of the revolutionary war, social and economic changes took place. With the coming of the industrial era factories were established in New England in the latter part of the eighteenth century. The cotton industry also

¹Isabel Bevier and Susannah Usher. The Home Economics Movement, pp. 8-9. Boston: Whitcomb and Barrows, 1906.

²Ellwood P. Cubberley. Public Education in the United States, p. 27. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919.

thrived in the south. Many new industries developed with the invention of steam power. Communication and transportation were facilitated by the introduction of cable and telegraph, and the building of canals and railroads.

These changes were soon noticed in home conditions, in the status of men and women, and in educational ideals. Home life was broadened to include many outside interests that heretofore had been lacking. It was soon recognized that both men and women had a right to be educated. Scientific inventions and discoveries were appropriated by the school as educational aids. Schools enlarged their courses to include technical training as practical education was demanded by the public.

Work of Catherine E. Beecher

Miss Catherine E. Beecher, who lived from 1800-1878, was the eldest of the famous Beecher family and is considered the pioneer of home economics. Her influence cannot be over-emphasized because she was one of the first to recognize the need for educating girls. Mrs. Emma Hart Willard included "domestic instruction" in her private school for girls at Middlebury, Vermont in 1818, but Miss Beecher developed the idea in the school that she organized at Hartford, Connecticut.³ After a nervous breakdown in 1832, Miss Beecher gave up this school and made her home with her sister, Harriet Beecher Stowe,

³Anna M. Cooley et al. Teaching Home Economics, p. 40. New York: Macmillan Company, 1919.

in Cincinnati, Ohio. From there she continued her studies and writing.

In 1835, in an address, she urged that household arts should be included in the curricula of girls' schools. This same year she wrote An Essay on the Education of Female Teachers. Speaking of the training necessary for women, Miss Beecher said:⁴

The mere committing to memory of the facts contained in books is but a small portion of education. Certain portions of time should be devoted to fitting a woman for her practical duties; such for example, as needlework. Other pursuits are designed for cultivation of certain mental faculties; others to cultivate taste and imagination; some to form the moral and religious nature; others to store the mind with knowledge.

Six years later, in 1841, she completed her book Treatise on Domestic Economy. This is the first modern textbook concerning home problems and may well be considered a classic. A year later this was followed by the Domestic Receipt Book. In 1873 Miss Beecher published Principles of Domestic Economy, Principles of Domestic Science, and House-keeper and Health-Keeper. These, however, were revisions of the earlier books.

The Treatise on Domestic Economy should be reviewed briefly, not only because it is interesting and worthwhile, but because it was so well known and had such far reaching effects. In the preface Miss Beecher writes:⁵

⁴Benjamin R. Andrews, "Miss Catherine E. Beecher, The Pioneer in Home Economics," Journal of Home Economics, IV, (June, 1912) pp. 211-222.

⁵Catherine E. Beecher. Domestic Economy, pp. i-iv. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1854 (revised).

The author of this work was led to attempt it, by discovering, in her extensive travels, the deplorable sufferings of multitudes of young wives and mothers, from the combined influence of poor health, poor domestics, and a defective domestic education.

The measure which, more than any other, would tend to remedy this evil, would be to place domestic economy on an equality with the other sciences in female schools. This should be done because it can be properly and systematically taught (not practically, but as a science), as much so as political economy or moral science, or any other branch or study; because it embraces knowledge, which will be needed by young women at all times and in all places; because this science can never be properly taught until it is made a branch of study; and because this method will secure a dignity and importance in the estimation of young girls, which can never be accorded while they perceive their teachers and parents practically attaching more value to every other department of science than this. When young ladies are taught the construction of their own bodies, and all the causes in domestic life which tend to weaken the constitution; when they are taught rightly to appreciate and learn the most convenient and economical modes of performing all family duties, and of employing time and money; and when they perceive the true estimate accorded to these things by teachers and friends, the grand cause of this evil will be removed. Women will be trained to secure, as of first importance, a strong and healthy constitution, and all those rules of thrift and economy that will make domestic duty easy and pleasant.

It is, perhaps, difficult now to appreciate just how much influence this book had in the awakening of the public to the need of educating girls in matters pertaining to the home. It went through many printings, was used for many years as a textbook, and after being examined by the Massachusetts Board of Education, was admitted as a part of the Massachusetts School Library.

The chapter headings give an idea of the scope of the

book:⁶ Peculiar Responsibilities of American Women; Difficulties Peculiar to American Women; Remedies for the Preceding Difficulties; On Domestic Economy as a Branch of Study; On the Care of Health; On Healthful Food; On Healthful Drinks; On Clothing; On Cleanliness; On Early Rising; On Domestic Exercise; On Domestic Manners; On the Preservation of a Good Temper in a Housekeeper; On Habits of System and Order; On Giving to Charity; On Economy of Time and Expenses; On Health of Mind; On the Care of Domestics; On the Care of the Sick; On Accidents and Antidotes; On Domestic Amusements and Social Duties; On the Construction of Houses; On Fires and Light; On Washing; On Starching, Ironing, and Cleansing; On Whitening, Cleansing and Dyeing; On the Care of Parlors; On the Breakfast and Dining Rooms; On the care of Chambers and Bedrooms; On the Care of the Kitchen, Cellar, and Storeroom; On Sewing, Cutting, and Mending; On the Care of Yards and Gardens; On the Propagation of Plants; On the Cultivation of Fruit; Miscellaneous.

Time and space do not permit a detailed analysis of the subject matter. However, some mention should be made of the outstanding ideas given by Miss Beecher since, fundamentally, they are just as true and worthwhile today as one hundred years ago. The chapter On Care of Health, presents some fundamental physiological information in regard to proper food, drink, clothing, and personal habits. Moderation and cleanliness are stressed. The chapter, On Clothing, states that infant

⁶Ibid., pp. 11-24.

mortality is a great problem because of the ignorance of mothers concerning fresh air, proper food and clothing. In old books, one is tempted to quote those things which are no longer found with present day ideas and customs, and so, the chapters on Early Rising and Preservation of a Good Temper in a Housewife have often been referred to. There is sound psychology in the statement that a woman who has charge of a large household,

"should regard her duties as dignified, important, and difficult A third method is for a woman to deliberately calculate on having her best arranged plans interfered with; and to be in such a state of preparation that the evil will not come unaware. Form all plans and arrangements in consistency with the means at hand. System, economy and neatness are valuable only so far as they tend to promote the comfort and well-being of those affected."⁷

Among the discussions are the chapters On System and Order, and Economy and Expense. They show that our modern ideas of efficiency in business and scientific management had likewise occurred to the mind of this remarkable woman. The chapter, On Giving to Charity, is in some ways prophetic of our modern organization of philanthropy. A section is Miss Beecher's reference to household accounts. She thought that there should be three general heads: (1) food, clothing, education, and all necessary expenses of living; (2) expenditures for education, books, and other intellectual advantages; (3) expenditures for benevolence and religion.⁸ This, of course, is a forerunner of today's budget.

⁷Ibid., pp. 150-151.

⁸Ibid., p. 188.

Beginning of Sewing Instruction

Instruction in cooking and sewing was introduced into the public schools through the efforts of philanthropic organizations and public spirited citizens who were cognizant of the fact that education was too limited, and that the poor should be taught in order to improve their home conditions. Although it seems strange, these two branches of the home economics curriculum developed separately and were introduced at different times into the school program.

Sewing was taught in the public schools of Boston through the efforts of ladies of the Seaman's Aid Society's "praying" that needlework might be taught to the girls in the grammar schools. Miss Mary W. Cauley prepared a report in 1935 on the "History of the Teaching of Sewing in the Boston Schools," showing that Boston was the first to include that subject in its curriculum.⁹ The following is quoted from her report:

As a result of this, the Board adopted a resolution saying that "girls in the second and third classes may be instructed by the female instructors of said schools in plain sewing one hour in the afternoon of every school day." Again, in 1839, another petition was presented by Samuel F. Scott and others requesting that sewing and knitting be introduced and taught in the primary schools. It was later reported to the School Board, that action was unnecessary as these branches of education were already attended to in the primary schools.

The matter rested until 1854, when 3,947 women of Boston petitioned again, asking that sewing might be introduced into all the grammar schools. At the next meeting of the Board it was unanimously voted that "instruction in sewing shall be given to

⁹ Cauley, op. cit.

all pupils in the fourth grade." Later in the same year, it was voted "to furnish materials not exceeding twenty dollars in value for each school in which instruction in the art is introduced."

Notwithstanding these votes, the masters of some of the schools, and also some parents, objected to having sewing taught in the schools as "it would distract the attention of the pupils from their studies." The next year the Board voted that "instruction could be discontinued in any schools whenever the district committees thought best." As their action made the instruction permissive, and not obligatory, the work was carried on "rather languidly" for a long time.

Miss Elizabeth S. Emmons, a teacher for many years of the Winthrop School district, gives the following account of sewing in that school. "A girl came into my room with her dress ripped off at the belt and dragging on the floor. I spoke to her about it and she nonchalantly replied, 'I don't know how to sew.' I said, 'ask your mother to teach you,' but she replied, 'my mother never sews.' I went to Reverend Rufus Ellis and obtained material and got leave from the committee to unbend the children's minds from study, and I took the time for sewing. This was in 1861. Next I went to Reverend Edward Everett Hale and he sent materials and young ladies once a week to teach, but they could not come regularly. Then he interested Mrs. Hemenway. She gave materials and sent Mrs. Gilson, who came only a short time, but hired Miss M. S. Bacon to take her place."

Mrs. Hemenway's interest was aroused not only by Dr. Hale's appeal, but also by the sewing which was done for the Sanitary Commission by the soldier's wives. She often said the work which was sent out by the commission was returned so poorly done that she realized these women could not teach their daughters if they did not know how to sew themselves.

Contribution of Cooking Schools

No study of the development of home economics is complete without mention of the part the private and public cooking schools played in the late 1870's. They were established in answer to the demand of the women for instruction concerning

food problems. These schools paved the way for the introduction of cooking into the public schools as they demonstrated the desirability and possibility of serving good food at small expense. It should be noted that cooking instruction followed sewing by forty-six years.

Cooking schools for adults originated in the east, and the subject was introduced into the public schools only after some public spirited individual had demonstrated its worth in a private school. In 1860 Professor Pierre Blot gave cooking lessons to women in several large eastern cities. Outstanding leaders in later cooking schools included the Misses Juliet Corson, Marcia Parloa, Lizzie Devereux, Joanna Sweeney, Ida Maynard, Fannie Farmer, M. W. Howard, and the Mrs. D. A. Lincoln, and C. M. Dearborn. The first and best-known cooking schools were the New York Cooking School and the Boston Cooking School.¹⁰

The New York Cooking School was founded in 1874 under the direction of Miss Corson who was superintendent of the free Training School for Women. In 1875 she organized the Ladies' Cooking Class, in 1876 the New York Cooking School in her home, and in 1878 the Plain Cook's Class. The objective of the latter was to give "instruction in the principles of plain family cooking for young women employed as domestics, and the wives and daughters of working men." This work proved so popular that courses were established for children of working men. Demand

¹⁰Bevier and Usher, op. cit., pp. 44-51.

for this type of education is shown by the fact that from January to April, 1879, 6,500 persons received cooking lessons.¹¹ Miss Corson advocated graded lessons that should include: (1) a class for the training of children of working people, (2) a class for plain cooks, (3) a class in high class cookery for men and women to prepare them for positions in hotels and clubs, (4) normal schools so that ladies could be trained as teachers.

Miss Marcia Parloa began her teaching in a small country school in Florida. Her regular teaching did not include the study of cooking. In an effort to raise money for musical instruments for the school, she gave a talk on cookery and digestive processes, illustrating her subject with the preparation of some simple foods on a small gas stove. This lecture was so successful that she started her own cooking school at New London, Connecticut, in 1876. The next year she went to Boston, and in 1878 she held a cooking class at Miss Morgan's school at Portsmouth, New Hampshire. The Woman's Educational Association at Boston hired Miss Corson in 1879 to give lectures for them at their cooking school.

Miss Lizzie Devereux, a pupil of Miss Corson's, was one of the first to obtain a position because of her excellent work at the cooking school in Boston. She went to Philadelphia, and took charge of the New Century Club, a cooking school that was very popular.

¹¹Bevier and Usher, op. cit., p. 45.

Miss Joanna Sweeney was the first teacher at the Boston Cooking School which was started in 1879 and incorporated four years later. At first the school was to give instruction only to those women who would find it practically useful. However, it was difficult to arouse their interest so the school was open to all who wished to attend. From then on there was a great increase in enrollment.

Mrs. D. A. Lincoln was the first principal of the Boston Cooking School, and much of its success must be attributed to her. Other well-known women who were connected with the school as principals were: Miss Ida Maynard, Mrs. C. M. Dearborn, Miss Fannie Farmer, and Miss M. W. Howard. It is interesting to note here that this school was made part of Simmons College in 1902.

The Kitchen-garden Movement

The kitchen-garden movement was started in 1877 by the late Miss Emily Huntington, of New York City. The little girls of the school were taught to correlate music and such simple home tasks as building fires, bed making, sweeping, dusting, setting the table, serving, and cooking. This idea proved so popular that similar schools were established in Canada, Ireland, Scotland, and France.

Manual Training Movement

Another important factor in the development of home economics was the introduction of manual training into the schools a short time before. It helped to pave the way and make the minds of educators somewhat more receptive to another

new subject. Manual training meant shop work for the boys, and, at one time, was used as a broad term to include sewing and cooking for girls. The manual training movement was aided by the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876, which indirectly gave an impetus to home economics. The exhibits displayed there proved that many projects could be made by boys of school age.

Contributions of Scientists

Students of chemistry, biology, and physics have contributed immeasurably to the development of the scientific side of home economics. Three names are especially prominent.

Count Rumford, one of the world's greatest physicist, was born in this country in 1755 but died in Europe in 1814.¹² He devoted much time to the study of heat and its relation to domestic problems. Ventilation, fuels, kitchen ranges, and utensils were placed on a scientific basis so that the home could become more modern. His work was a stimulus to Dr. Edward L. Youmans and Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, who seventy-five and one hundred years later, respectively, contributed a great deal to the scientific development of the home economics movement.

Dr. Edward L. Youmans, 1821 to 1887, was a chemist who founded the "Popular Science Monthly." In this magazine he brought together contributions of chemistry, physics, and

¹²Cooley, et al., op. cit. P. 125.

biology, many of which were related to home problems. In 1857 he published a book entitled Household Science, which was a scientific study of food, air, heat, and light from the standpoint of the housewife. Dr. Youmans was also a great advocate of the development of home economics in the schools.¹³

Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, who lived from 1842-1911, was the first woman scientist to devote her time to the science of the home. She was a sanitary chemist on the staff of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and the author of many books relative to home economics. During the last thirty years of her life she studied the scientific aspects of food, clothing, and shelter. Her name is mentioned here as one of the early scientists. Her work is discussed in greater detail in Chapter III since her greatest accomplishment was in a later period.

The Land-grant Colleges

In tracing the development of home economics, one should study the records of the land-grant colleges, which marked the beginnings of this subject in the west. No other agency has done more than these schools as they clearly recognized the possibilities of this subject and laid a firm basis for its organization in maintaining high standards of work. Agriculture and home economics have had much in common in that

¹³ Isabel Bevier. Home Economics in Education, pp. 113-114. Philadelphia: J. P. Lippincott, 1924.

both are newer subjects in the curricula, and have been exposed to much of the questioning that is always given new ideas. They also have had close associations with the people and their every day lives. Three state colleges were the pioneers: Iowa, Kansas, and Illinois.¹⁴

Iowa University was the first to include domestic science, as it was then called, in the year of 1869 when the institution was founded. The work was very meager. Each girl was required to work two hours each day in the dining room, kitchen, or pantry. In 1872 lectures were given on housekeeping, and in 1875 Mrs. Mary B. Welsh opened a department of cookery and household arts. It was not until 1877 that a kitchen was equipped for class use. Work had to do with house furnishings, care of the sick, care of children, and management of the house. In 1879 sewing and laundering were added. These lessons were given only to the junior class because there was a lack of space. Later the accommodations were increased, and the work was offered to the freshman and sophomore classes.

In 1873 Kansas State Agricultural College taught sewing, which makes it the second land-grant college to offer home economics. In 1875-76 lectures were given on bread, meat, vegetables, food values, milk, butter, and cheese. A kitchen was added in 1877. Mrs. Nellie Kedzie Jones was the head of this department for many years, and to her must be given the credit for its development.

¹⁴Ibid., pp. 119-133.

Illinois University started a School of Domestic Science in 1871-1872. It was not until 1874 that the school was formally opened under the direction of Miss Lou C. Allen, who had been teaching at the Peoria County Normal School. After her appointment, she spent some time in the east studying the schools and taking instruction in domestic science. The University of Illinois has the distinction of being the first to have a four year college course of domestic science in the United States. There were no precedents to follow, no textbooks, and much opposition with which to contend.

Chicago World's Fair of 1893

The World's Fair, held in Chicago in 1893, gave an impetus to the study of nutrition, clothing, and shelter. The United States Department of Agriculture had a wonderful exhibit of foods from all parts of the world. The Rumford Kitchen was exhibited by the state of Massachusetts. It consisted of a workingman's home in which a husband and wife lived. The purpose was to show that this family could live on five hundred dollars a year. Mrs. Ellen H. Richards was the promoter of this idea.

Summary

Home economics developed differently in the east and west. In the east it originated in the lower grades as a result of outside pressure, and in the west in the colleges by men and women who recognized the worth of the subject.

Many factors have contributed to its development. The

most important ones are: the dame school, the advent of the industrial era, the work of Miss Catherine E. Beecher, the work of public spirited citizens and philanthropic organizations, the public and private cooking schools, the kitchen-garden schools, the manual training movement, the Philadelphia Centennial of 1876, the contributions of early scientists, the establishment of land-grant colleges in the west, and the Chicago World's Fair of 1893.

CHAPTER III

INTRODUCTORY PERIOD -- NINETEENTH CENTURY

First Cooking and Sewing Classes in the United States

The early school board records of Boston, Massachusetts, show that Boston was the first city in the United States to introduce cooking and sewing into the public schools. Reference has been made previously to the first sewing class in 1835. Cooking was not started until fifty years later, 1885.

In 1835 sewing was taught in the second and third grammar grades and in 1854 was extended to the fourth grade. The cost of maintenance was originally supported entirely by individuals who were interested in seeing this work a part of the curriculum. The materials listed below, contributed by Mrs. Mary Hemenway, were used from January, 1863, to November, 1864.¹

The cost for the year which included compensation to the teacher, and treats for the school is particularly interesting. It is evident that the girls did not have to supply their own material. They made samplers, on which they learned the overhand and hemming stitches, and made buttonholes and ruffles. Judging from the list one might infer that quilts were made also. The teachers were seamstresses who worked in the community.

¹Cauley, op. cit.

TABLE 1

MATERIALS USED IN FIRST CLASS

2 dozen handkerchiefs	\$3.00
32 yards calico	6.30
Lining for quilts	4.00
Cotton and needles	1.00
Trunk	2.00
Thimbles	1.00
One piece of cotton	12.71
Sewing cotton50
Paid Miss Bacon	4.00
Treat for school	4.50
One piece of cotton	12.12
Sewing cotton and needles	2.00
Three pieces cotton	37.00
Paid Miss Bacon	12.00
Thimbles and scissors	1.50
Three treats for school	<u>21.00</u>
	\$124.63

In 1881 a special report on sewing was made to the Boston School Board in which it was stated that in 1865 Mrs. Hemenway requested that a class of older girls in the Winthrop school receive instruction in more advanced needle work at her expense. She agreed to send a dressmaker and a seamstress, and to supply all the materials. The results were very satisfactory, and the work in that school was carried on at her expense until 1873 when it was taken over by the City of Boston. It was not until 1876 that instruction in sewing was made legal by an act of the legislature. From this beginning the teaching of sewing in the public schools has gradually grown.

The establishment of the first cooking class in the public schools was the direct outgrowth of the Industrial Vacation School which was held in Boston during the summers of 1883, 1884, and 1885. These vacation schools were held for the purpose

of determining if there were any kind of manual training important enough for every girl to have, regardless of social status. It was hoped that such subjects might be made part of the public school curriculum and supported by public money instead of by private contributions.

In June, 1885, the school superintendent of Boston was asked for one of the basement rooms in the Starr King Schoolhouse to use as a kitchen during the summer. It was thought that if this idea proved successful, permission might be given to continue the school during the regular school year. After consideration, the superintendent of buildings permitted two-thirds of the room to be converted into a kitchen, stipulating that there should be no expense to the city, and however great the outlay, the room should be restored to its original condition before the opening of the school in September, if so ordered.

The following is quoted from a report of Miss Amy M. Homans:²

The experiment was tried. Among the 300 visitors to this school, in which cooking was but one of the many branches of manual training taught, were the superintendent of schools and several members of the school board. Notably, two of the manual training school committee, who by chance chose the day upon which a dinner----a most savory meal---- was served, for their visit.

These gentlemen dined, and it has been hinted that the dinner had a mighty influence upon the decision that the same committee had to make in September, at which time a hearing was given to persons interested in industrial training. At this meeting the

²Bevier, op. cit., pp. 63-64, quoting Miss Amy M. Homans.

management of the school in Tennyson Street appeared, and asked leave to enlarge the kitchen in the Starr King Schoolhouse to full size of basement room and to maintain a cooking school therein, which should be attended by 150 girls from the South End grammar schools, and which should be known as Boston School Kitchen No. 1, as it would be the first school kitchen in the United States.

Accordingly in school committee, October 26, 1885, it was voted to permit girls of the Everett, Franklin, Horace Mann (a school for deaf mutes), Hyde, and Winthrop Schools to attend Boston School Kitchen No. 1, provided that the parents or guardians of the pupils so requested in writing, the pupils to attend on probation under the direction of the manual training committee, who presented at the same meeting rules and regulations governing the schools of cooking (School Document No. 15, October 27, 1885).

The cost of equipping the kitchen is not known but

Miss Homans said:

Just here I would say a word concerning the cost of this first kitchen. The exact amount is not necessary to know. It will be sufficient to tell you that the money expended for school Kitchen No. 1 would, with experience gained, equip six kitchens quite as satisfactorily, and in some respects more so. This is an evidence of the great value of private cooperation in experimental work. It is safe to say that no city would feel justified in experimenting to this extent with public money. The great danger, and perhaps the only one, to any city in accepting private help is that when the time is ripe for the city to take entire charge of the work the individuals who have given the help may find it difficult to withdraw all support, not only financial, but moral.

Boston School Kitchen was visited by more than seven hundred persons that first year, all of whom expressed their enthusiasm and interest. Many of these were educators from various parts of the country, and so cooking classes for girls had an excellent start. At the end of two years there were four school kitchens, making it possible for 1,400 girls to

receive twenty lessons during the school year. It is interesting to know that the cost per person for the twenty lessons was only twenty-eight and one-third cents, or one and two-fifths cents per lesson exclusive of the teacher's salary.

Establishment of Cooking and Sewing in City Schools

It is easy to understand the fact that the larger cities in the United States incorporated cooking and sewing into their schools earlier than did the towns and rural communities. In the first place, more money was available; second, school accommodations were more adequate; and third, the citizens had more time to devote to civic enterprises. The records of a few cities follow. Information is not available for all of the larger cities.

New York is logically the first because the work seems to have been done very thoroughly, and the records kept more completely than in many instances. New York is not a typical American city, but its inclusion in this study is essential as there is a great deal of similarity in the major aspects of the records of all the school systems.

In 1887 the Board of Education made a careful study of manual training, which included instruction in cooking and sewing, and decided to incorporate this work into the public school system. A course of study was prepared and the following resolution adopted by the committee:³

³M. Westfall et al., "History of Home Economics in New York City Schools," Practical Home Economics, XII (June, 1934), pp. 160-177.

RESOLVED: That in the girls' grammar schools cooking should be taught in the third and second grades. That instruction in cooking and shopwork should be suspended as to each school until a suitable room is provided through the action of the trustees. That instruction in shopwork, cooking, and sewing should be under the direction of special teachers, who should be licensed, employed, and paid in the manner now provided for special teachers. That to secure efficient instruction an additional assistant superintendent should be appointed whose special duty should be to supervise under the city superintendent all the work in manual training in primary and grammar schools.

It should be noted that cooking and sewing were closely allied with the teaching of manual training and that provisions were made for supervisors as soon as the new subjects were introduced. The "third and second grades" mentioned above correspond to the present junior high school. At that time there were six grades in the primary schools and eight in the grammar schools, the first grade being the highest.

The estimated cost of equipping the kitchens, per department, was two hundred dollars, and kitchen supplies, one hundred dollars. The equipment in 1898 consisted of a large marble top table that was for demonstrations, a kitchen table, dresser, specimen cases, clock, gas range, water heater, and tablet-arm chairs. As many children as possible worked at the demonstration table, and the rest observed. A few years later individual equipment consisting of a hollow square with accommodations for eighteen to thirty pupils was adopted. Each girl had a gas plate and a drawer fitted with cooking implements.

When the above resolution went into effect in 1888,

cooking was taught in twenty schools by two teachers who went from building to building. By 1890 there were twenty-six schools. In 1895 chemistry of foods was added to give a scientific basis for the foods work, although there was still no work given in the high schools. Before January, 1897, three hours per week was allowed for the class; then it was reduced to two hours and, in 1899, shortened to one and one-half hours per week.

The first sewing class in New York City was in Staten Island in 1885. The work was done by the home room teachers who received instruction from the director and her staff of four teachers. In 1896 the Manhattan schools started similar classes. The course of study in the elementary grades outlined work in basketry and weaving, and in the upper grades the making of the various stitches, ways of mending, and construction of miniature garments.

Sewing was first taught in the elementary schools of Philadelphia in 1884 by special teachers who went from school to school. The teaching of cooking was begun experimentally in 1887. Early in that year an association of private citizens offered to pay the expenses of conducting a trial class in cookery in the Girls' High School. The offer was accepted, and by June, 1888, the School Board was satisfied with the value of the instruction and assumed responsibility of the class. The next year another kitchen was furnished and a teacher added.⁴

⁴Henrietta W. Calvin, "The Development of Home Economics in the Philadelphia Public Schools," Practical Home Economics, XIII (March, 1935), p. 68.

A group of public spirited women, who believed in bettering the home life of the working people, were instrumental in the appointment of two cooking teachers in 1887 at Washington, D. C. One class for the girls of the school was held in a small house opposite Washington High School, while the other was for the seventh and eighth grades in an old engine house near the Peabody School. The next year, 1888-1889, seven new centers were opened, and all the girls in the seventh and eighth grades near those schools were sent there once a week. At the end of the fourth year there was a sufficient number of schools to provide all seventh and eighth grade girls with cooking lessons.

Little information was found concerning the sewing classes in Washington, D. C., except that instruction was started in 1888 with a corps of sewing teachers who went from room to room, teaching the girls in the third to the sixth grades the fundamentals. It was not until 1893 that specially equipped rooms were provided.⁵

The Los Angeles Board of Education in 1889 decided that the city should provide handiwork for girls as it did for the boys when manual training was introduced in 1886 in the fourth and fifth grades. A supervisor was appointed to introduce the work. Sewing was given by class room teachers in the fifth grades, and specially trained teachers were assigned to teach cooking in the seventh and eighth grades. A bungalow was

⁵"History of Home Making in Washington Public Schools," Practical Home Economics, XII (July, 1934), pp. 195-196.

equipped to which once a week girls from the surrounding schools were sent for instruction. The next year three more schools were added. It was not until 1903 that these subjects were introduced into the Polytechnic High School. From then on the enrollment grew by leaps and bounds.⁶

In 1898 Chicago introduced Household Arts, as it was then called and still is today, through the efforts of public spirited women who asked for the use of a room in the Hammond School for the purpose of teaching cooking and sewing in the grammar grades. They agreed to assume all of the expense which was \$500 for equipment, \$200 for supplies, and \$800 for salary. Two years later the school city appropriated \$25,000 for ten new centers. Twenty teachers were appointed, ten for cooking and ten for sewing. It is interesting to note that no girl could take both subjects, but could make her choice in the seventh and eighth grades. High school work was not offered until 1903.⁷

The list in Table 2 of the dates of establishment of home economics in the late nineteenth century is not complete, and probably never could be made so, as many school systems did not keep adequate records at that time. Six of the dates mentioned were obtained from answers to the questionnaire sent to the State Superintendents, while the others were found in

⁶Etta Proctor Flagy, "Home Economics in Los Angeles," Practical Home Economics, XII (December, 1934), pp. 352-353.

⁷Frances L. Swain, "Homemaking in Chicago Public Schools," Practical Home Economics, XII (June, 1935), pp. 168-169.

TABLE 2

CITIES AND STATES THAT INTRODUCED COOKING AND SEWING
IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY*

City	State	Sewing	Cooking
Boston	Massachusetts . . .	1835	1885
Springfield . .	Massachusetts . . .	1883	1883
Philadelphia . .	Pennsylvania . . .	1884	1887
Washington . . .	District of Columbia	1888	1887
New York	New York	1888	1888
Peru	Illinois	1881	no inf.
Chicago	Illinois	1898	1898
Davenport	Iowa	1888	1888
.	Georgia (Putnam County)	1895	1895
Columbus	Georgia	1899	1899
Baltimore	Maryland	1892	1892
San Francisco . .	California	1885	1885
Los Angeles . . .	California	1889	1889
Oakland	California	1884
St. Louis	Missouri	1898	1898
Exeter	New Hampshire . . .	1879	. . .
No information . .	New Jersey	(before 1881)	. . .
Detroit	Michigan	1899	1899
Toledo	Ohio	1884
No information . .	Rhode Island	1884	. . .
Madison	Wisconsin	1895	. . .
Indianapolis . . .	Indiana	1894	1894

*Sources: Letters from State Superintendents of Public Instruction, Practical Home Economics, and Journal of Home Economics.

reference material in magazines. It is interesting to know when this movement began to grow, and what cities and states took the lead.

From Table 2 it is apparent that the states, comparatively near to Massachusetts, established cooking and sewing after their value had been proved by actual practice in Boston. The west, with the exception of California, did not offer this work, which is understandable in view of the fact that there were no large-population centers. It seems reasonable to assume from these dates that, from 1884 on, cooking and sewing were fairly well established in the larger cities. Sewing was very often introduced first because it cost less to install. A few tables and chairs, scissors, pins, and needles were all that were needed. Cooking, on the other hand, required plumbing for the sinks, stoves, and supply chests which entailed the expenditure of a great deal of money.

Mrs. Ellen H. Richards

Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, 1842-1911, was one of the first leaders in the development of home economics. Her importance cannot be over-estimated. She entered the Massachusetts Institute of Technology by special permission in 1871 as its first woman student, became a famous sanitary chemist, and served as an instructor at the Institute until her death. She never taught home economics but in her leisure time gave talks, and wrote papers on the applications of science to the problems of food, clothing, and shelter.

With her knowledge of chemistry she gave home economics the scientific basis which it needed, and so, became the founder of home economics as it is known today. She was of the opinion that the schools should undertake the teaching of the housewife and mother because industrial changes had so profoundly altered the home environment. She also urged that the care of babies be taught in the classroom.

Mrs. Richards, because of her knowledge of facts, advocated the teaching of cooking, shelter, and home problems from a scientific, technical, and practical standpoint. The titles of some of her books are indicative of this fact: The Chemistry of Cooking and Cleaning, Food Material and Their Adulteration, The Cost of Living, The Cost of Food, The Cost of Shelter, The Art of Right Living.⁸

In 1899, with Mr. and Mrs. Melvil Dewey, she founded the Lake Placid Conference on Home Economics, and was its chairman from 1899-1908. When the Conferences became the American Home Economics Association in 1909, she was elected its first president and retained that office until 1911. Mrs. Richards stands among the first who recognized the need for home economics teaching. She was also instrumental in organizing the content of the home economics curriculum.

Lake Placid Conference

These Conferences lasted for ten years, from 1899-1908,

⁸Mary H. Abel, "Mrs. Richards and the Home Economics Movement," Journal of Home Economics, III (October, 1911), pp. 342-348.

and were held at Lake Placid through the hospitality of Mr. and Mrs. Melvil Dewey. From the beginning, the purpose of the Conference was to promote the study of the home and the problems of home life. These meetings had a great deal of influence in promoting home economics in the schools.

At the first meeting it was decided, since material was scarce, to make a collection of books and pamphlets on home economics. Such topics as courses of study in public schools and colleges, training of teachers, and kitchen-garden classes were studied. It was also decided to ask the New York Legislature to give home economics the same recognition as agriculture and manual training had received.⁹

In later years additional studies were made concerning home economics in state, agricultural, evening, and vacation schools; extension teaching; rural schools; home economics in women's clubs; and syllabi for teaching home economics. Programs included the following subjects: sanitation, hygiene, nutrition, food problems, household industrial problems, labor saving devices, standard of wages, hospital dietetics, the status of institution managers, and standards of living.

Mrs. Richards, the chairman of these conferences, saw that with the changing industrial and economic conditions the home was failing to meet the needs of modern life. To reach the lives of the people, she recognized that the program of

⁹"Home Economics Conference," The Outlook, LXIII (October 14, 1899), pp. 388-389.

education, from grade school through college life, must incorporate courses of study and methods of presenting subjects within the range of daily life. Such courses must be correlated with the other courses of the curriculum, and be given the same status as the traditional courses. It is evident that the Lake Placid Conferences served not only as a clearing house for the exchange of ideas and formulation of new ideas, but also as a means of diffusing information about home economics and interpreting the term to the public.¹⁰

Content of Courses

In the beginning, emphasis was placed on teaching the skills in the preparation of food and the making of clothing. Three methods were used in the teaching of cooking: (1) demonstration (2) participation by the child (3) combination of the demonstration and participation methods. Little attempt was made to teach cooking from the nutritional standpoint, or to prepare balanced meals. Most of the teachers stressed the preparation of fancy dishes. Towards the end of the nineteenth century some of the more advanced school systems planned their cooking around the three meals of the day. This proved far more practical and gave more meaning to the work. A need was soon realized for a scientific foundation, and the study of the basic facts of chemistry was added to the cooking courses.

Samplers were made in the first sewing classes. They

¹⁰Bevier, op. cit., pp. 150-153

generally had the alphabet, a motto, and some decorative work in cross stitch with the name of the child and the date indicated at the bottom. Fine hand sewing was taught in the making of seams, ruffles, quilts, and miniature garments. A little later, aprons, underwear, and nightgowns were made. The making of "models" was introduced in the last decade of the nineteenth century, and continued to be used well into the twentieth century. This involved the making of seams and hems on a small piece of material which, of course, provided some practice to the child but had little relation to the same processes on a garment.

The objective of domestic science, or domestic economy as it was then named, was to improve home life and to prepare the young girls for the place that they would have to assume later as wives and mothers. However, some schools operated in order to help train girls for domestic service.

Grade Placement and Time Allotment

In the beginning these subjects were taught only in the grammar schools. Later, when the secondary schools increased in number, it was added to that curriculum. Sewing was seldom offered before the fourth or fifth grade and was generally given in the sixth. Cooking was usually taught in the seventh and eighth grades.

The length of the sewing period varied from twenty or thirty minutes to forty-five minutes, once or twice a week. The cooking period was generally for one and one-half hours once a week.

Summary

In the nineteenth century cooking and sewing were introduced into the grammar schools of the larger school systems through the efforts of public spirited citizens who realized the values to be derived from the teaching of these subjects. Most of these schools were located in the east and mid-west, although California and Georgia each established work along this line before 1900. The work was very elementary, and emphasis was placed on acquiring skill. Sewing teachers were generally the classroom teachers who had received lessons from a special teacher. Cooking was taught by teachers who had been trained previously in a special school. The time allotted was very brief but it must be remembered that there was not much in the content of the courses that would require a great deal of time.

Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, through her work as a chemist, gave domestic economy the scientific background that it needed. She also contributed a great deal through her leadership in the Lake Placid Conferences on Home Economics. These meetings helped to unify the movement, and gave it the impetus that it needed so much.

CHAPTER IV

EXPERIMENTAL PERIOD

1900-1916

Alexander Inglis in his book Principles of Secondary Education describes the early twentieth century as the "period of experimentation" in the field of home economics.¹ This nomenclature seems logical because home economics classes increased greatly in numbers during this period, and aims and courses of study were written for the first time. To prove his point Inglis states:²

The late development of instruction in domestic subjects has not yet permitted the establishment of many stable policies and practices, and domestic education must at present be considered as in its experimental and formative stage. No exact analysis of domestic subjects can be made where the materials, organization, and methods of teaching differ widely in different schools.

Factors in Growth

Several factors were responsible for the increasing number of home economics classes in this period. The widespread influence and popularity of the cooking and sewing classes of the nineteenth century were so general that the way

¹Alexander Inglis, Principles of Secondary Education, p. 574. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1918.

²Ibid., p. 612.

was paved for future growth although many still looked upon them as a "fad." Secondary schools developed throughout the country very rapidly after 1900. As secondary education became more universal, there was a demand for a type of education more closely related to everyday living. From the following table it may be readily seen that within a period of twenty-five years the number of public secondary schools more than quadrupled, and the number of pupils increased more than sixfold.

TABLE 3

GROWTH OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES
1890-1915*

Public Secondary Schools	1890-91	1900-01	1910-11	1914-15
Number of schools...	2,771	6,318	10,234	11,674
Number of pupils....	211,596	541,730	984,677	1,328,984
Number of teachers..	8,270	21,778	45,167	62,519
Pupils per 1,000 population.....	3.4	7.1	10.9	12.9

*Source: Report of the United States Commissioner of Education, 1916, Vol. II, p. 449.

Social and economic conditions likewise guided public opinion in making provisions for the expense of these classes by taxation. Changed conditions of the family, that is the withdrawal of the mother from the home into factory and office work, rendered inadequate the transmitting of traditional

methods of teaching household arts to the daughter by the mother. Scientific study of foods and nutrition gave new meaning to work in the home. The preparation of food and clothing by agencies outside the home not only simplified but complicated the buying habits of those who had charge of the management of the income.

American Home Economics Association

Early in the twentieth century the American Home Economics Association was founded, and it has done much to establish home economics on a sound basis. When the Lake Placid Conference (mentioned in Chapter II) met in 1908, it was felt that the time had come for a national organization. A committee was appointed to outline the procedures necessary in taking this step. It very soon decided upon the name "American Home Economics Association," and also, that a journal should be published called the "Journal of Home Economics." On December 31, 1908, the teaching section of the Lake Placid Conference met at the McKinley Manual Training High School in Washington, D. C., with Miss Helen Kinne presiding, to take the formal steps necessary for the organization of the Association. Mrs. Ellen H. Richards was at once elected president. The vice-presidents were Miss Isabel Bevier, Dr. C. F. Langworthy, and Miss Mary Watson. Dr. Benjamin R. Andrews was the secretary-treasurer.

From the very beginning the goal of the Association was the betterment of life in the home, the institutional household, and the community. It has contributed immeasurably to the

development of home economics by bringing together teaching material, working on courses of study, awarding scholarships for advanced study in home economics, and reporting the latest developments through the "Journal."

Soon after the Association was founded a committee was formed to compile and arrange available material. They proposed the following main divisions of the subject-matter to replace cooking and sewing: (1) food, (2) clothing, (3) shelter, (4) household and institution management. A definition of home economics was stated as follows:³

Home economics, as a distinctive subject of instruction, is the study of the economic, sanitary and aesthetic aspects of food, clothing, and shelter as connected with their selection, preparation, and use by the family in the home or by other groups of people. . . .

Home economics, like many other subjects of instruction, for example, sociology, engineering, or agriculture is complex. In it, the contributing subjects are grouped around the ideas of food, clothing, and shelter. Among contributing subjects are art, history, anthropology, sociology, aesthetics, economics, physiology, hygiene, mathematics, chemistry, physics, and biology.

Growth and Development of Home Economics

Table 4, on pages forty-six and forty-seven, shows the growth of home economics from 1900-1916. There were responses from thirty-seven state superintendents of public instruction or state supervisors of home economics to the questionnaire sent to each State Department of Public Instruction in the

³Bevier, op. cit., p. 167.

United States. To supplement this, information was obtained from magazine articles and from two theses. So far no data has been secured from Arizona, Arkansas, Connecticut, Mississippi, Nevada, Rhode Island, South Carolina, and South Dakota.

The time when thirty-five states first taught home economics, and when nineteen states made it a required subject is given in Table 4. Five states do not have information concerning dates of introduction either because records were not kept or they were not accessible. Four states, Minnesota, North Dakota, Tennessee, and Utah, reported that the dates were only approximate. However, for the purposes of this study they are helpful in indicating trends. From 1900-1919 twenty-two states established home economics courses as compared with twelve for the nineteenth century. If the data was complete, no doubt it would show that all the states were teaching home economics soon after 1917 as a result the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act in that year. The year 1911 shows the greatest period of activity with six states introducing the work for the first time.

Of the forty states represented in Table 4 six did not specify when the work was made compulsory. Therefore, it seems reasonable to assume that it was and is an elective subject in those states. Fourteen stated that it was elective, and twenty said it was required by law. Any laws requiring the teaching of home economics did not apply to all schools in that state, but only to certain types as evidenced by the following illustrations.

TABLE 4

DATES SHOWING OPTIONAL AND COMPULSORY ADOPTION OF HOME ECONOMICS

States	First Taught	Date Made Compulsory
Alabama ^a	1903	1903
California	1884	Elective
Colorado ^a	1911	Elective
Delaware	1919	No answer
Florida	1910	1917
Georgia	1895	1906
Idaho ^a	1911	No data
Illinois	1881	Elective
Indiana	1894	1913
Iowa	1888	Elective
Kansas	No data	Elective
Kentucky	1918	Elective
Louisiana	1907	Elective
Maine	1911	Elective
Maryland	1904	1910
Massachusetts	1835	1912
Michigan	1900	Elective
Minnesota	Before 1903	State aid-1909
Missouri	1898	1918
Montana	No data	Elective
Nebraska	No data	Elective

^aClyde Mobley, "A Study of the Development of Home Economics in Secondary Schools," p. 10. Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, George Peabody College, 1927.

TABLE 4 - Continued

States	First Taught	Date Made Compulsory
New Hampshire . . .	1879	Elective
New Jersey	1881	1913
New Mexico	1911	1914
New York	1886	1910
North Dakota . . .	Approximately 1908	No data
Ohio	1884	Elective
Oklahoma ^b	1907
Oregon	1911	Elective
Pennsylvania . . .	1885	1914
South Carolina . .	1900	1911
Tennessee	1912 or 1913	1922
Texas	1903	1917
Utah	Before 1917	No answer
Vermont	1908	Elective
Virginia ^b	1912	No answer
Washington	1905	1905
West Virginia . . .	1911	1917
Wisconsin	1901	1913
Wyoming	No data	1917

^bDruzilla Crary Kent, "Home Economics Education in the Southern States," pp. 6-21. Master's thesis, Columbia University, 1936.

Alabama passed a law in 1903 requiring that home economics and agriculture be taught in nine district schools. In 1907 this was changed, and home economics was required in all county schools.⁴

The first state law in Georgia definitely setting up departments of home economics in high schools was in 1906 when agriculture and mechanical art schools were established in each Congressional district under the Land Bank Fund.⁵

In 1913 Indiana passed a law that became effective in September, 1915, which required all city, town, and township schools to teach elementary agriculture, elementary industrial arts or elementary domestic science in the public schools.⁶

Miss Elizabeth Amery, state supervisor of home economics in Maryland, sent a copy of the report that she compiled in 1940. In it she wrote:⁷

The General Education Bill of 1904 provided in white schools for "annual inspection of high schools and manual training (including "domestic science") departments." It also provided for colored schools a "manual training fund" of \$1000 per year for each county. In January of this year, cooking lessons were given to white girls at Sparrows Point, Baltimore County, and supported by the Sparrows Point Women's Club. In October, 1904, the first teacher was employed for seven centers, giving twenty-five lessons to each class and receiving an annual salary of \$400.00

⁴Mobley, op. cit., p. 12.

⁵Kent, op. cit., p. 15.

⁶Letter Regarding the Licensing of Teachers, Indiana Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin No. 14. Vocational Series No. 9, 1915-16, p. 4.

⁷Elizabeth Amery, "Development of Home Economics in Maryland County Schools," (Unpublished report, May 8, 1940).

and traveling expenses. By 1906, the state superintendent reported "so many applications from schools (for cooking lessons) have been on file during the last year that additional teachers have been employed."

In 1910, all "first group" high schools of eighty or more pupils, with four or more academic teachers and a four-year course were required to teach manual training and "household economics."

The south presents an entirely different aspect of the home economics movement. Social and economic conditions existing in these states after the Civil War caused the public schools to make slow progress. Conditions were very disorganized, the states were predominantly rural, roads were not good, and there was great poverty. Most of the schools were private, and consequently, there was a certain stigma attached to the public schools. This feeling against the schools was greater because the negroes had to be included in the educational scheme. A serious prejudice was created by introducing cooking and sewing into the negro schools before offering it in the white schools.⁸

It was not until 1900 that secondary schools were organized to any extent in this part of the country. Even then, the rural areas could not finance them. The real expansion of the home economics program came with the development of agricultural schools which were established to meet the problems of the rural districts.⁹

⁸Vocational Education in Home Economics, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Bulletin No. 151, Home Economics Series No. 12, p. 67. Washington: Government Printing Office, June, 1930.

⁹Kent, op. cit., pp. 5-27.

In 1907 Alabama authorized the establishment of one agricultural school in each congressional district. Each school was given \$7,000 a year providing certain requirements were met. One requirement was that "not less than \$1,500 be used by each school in making agricultural experiments and in operating a department of domestic science and farm mechanics."¹⁰

In the same year all rural high schools in South Carolina were required to teach manual training, domestic science, and agriculture. By 1908 agriculture was a required subject in Alabama, Florida, Georgia, North Carolina, Texas, and Virginia. This included domestic science as the two subjects nearly always accompanied each other in the schools.

Mississippi, in 1910, specified that domestic science be taught in the agricultural schools, but this was ignored until the next year when the state superintendent urged these schools to employ special teachers for these subjects.

Fort Worth, Texas, provided cooking for the first time in 1903. Austin and Dallas offered both domestic science and art in 1904. San Antonio followed in 1905.¹¹ The Texas Legislature in 1911 offered to match funds of rural high schools to the extent of \$500 to \$1,500 for the establishment of departments of agriculture, domestic science, and manual training. This served as a decided stimulant.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 30.

¹¹Frederick Eby, Development of Education in Texas, p. 234. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925.

New Orleans, Louisiana, introduced home economics in 1904 at the Isadore Newman Manual Training School. In 1910 the Louisiana State Legislature passed a bill authorizing home economics in the public schools of that state.¹² Until 1915 most of the sewing had been done by hand, partly because sewing machines were scarce, but more because the girls came from old French and Spanish families with strong traditions that young ladies should be taught fine hand sewing.

Columbus, Georgia, was the first town in the south to organize domestic science classes, although Putnam County, Georgia, started similar classes in 1895.¹³ The classes in Columbus were for the children of mill-workers. Teaching conditions were far from adequate.

The accompanying two charts prepared from Table 4 illustrate the years that were outstanding in the development of home economics. From Figure 1 it is evident that the years from 1900 to 1914 constitute the period in which most of the states introduced home economics although in the five years from 1910 to 1914, there was a greater growth than in any other five-year period.

Figure 2 shows that during the nine years from 1909-1917 many states made the requirement that home economics be

¹²Clyde Mobley, "Home Economics in Louisiana," Practical Home Economics, XV (February, 1937), pp. 41-44.

¹³Letter from Mr. M. D. Collins, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Georgia, August 22, 1941.

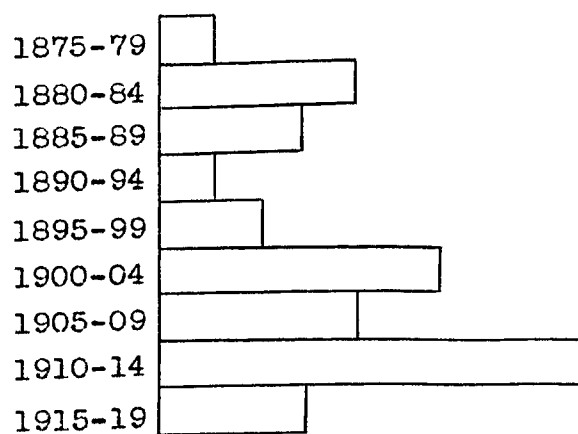


Fig.1-Introduction of home economics, five year intervals 1875-1919 inclusive.

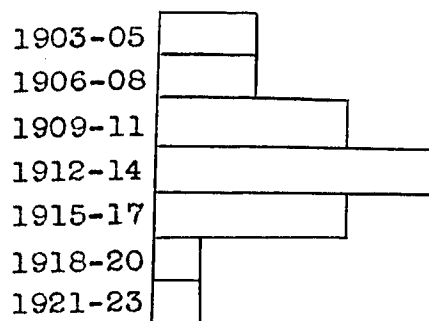


Fig.2-Introduction by years of compulsory teaching of home economics, three year intervals 1903-1923 inclusive.

taught in certain types of schools. This time span compares rather favorably with that of Figure 1, although it should be noted that these compulsory laws were passed in a relatively short period, 1903-1912. That home economics be required by law is entirely a twentieth century development, and came some twenty-five to twenty-eight years after home economics was well started in the nineteenth century.

Legislation making provision for home economics in the high schools had its beginning in 1903 in Alabama and Indiana. The following table gives the dates when state laws were passed providing for high school home economics courses.¹⁴ However, in this case the teaching was not compulsory.

These dates show that a period covering seven years, 1906-1913, marked a rapid enactment of laws affecting home economics education in the high schools, and by 1914 thirty-two of the forty-eight states had passed laws relative to teaching or financing of home economics courses. Of this number, twenty-eight states had laws making provision for giving financial aid to the schools meeting the requirements set up by the various State Boards of Education. The amount of money stipulated for each school ranged from \$200 to \$3,000, depending upon the size of the school and the number of pupils. With the passing of laws making it possible to finance the work on the same basis as the traditional subjects, the period from 1910-1912 shows a greater number of schools adding home

¹⁴Mobley, op. cit., p. 20.

TABLE 5

DATES FOR INTRODUCTION OF HOME ECONOMICS IN HIGH SCHOOL

Alabama	1903
Arizona	1905
California	1909
Connecticut	1913
Colorado	1911
Idaho	1911
Illinois	1909
Indiana	1903
Iowa	1911
Maryland	1904
Massachusetts	1906
Mississippi	1910
Montana	1913
Nebraska	1907
Nevada	1909
New Jersey	1913
New Mexico	1912
New York	1908
North Carolina	1911
North Dakota	1911
Ohio	1914
Oklahoma	1907
Oregon	1907
Pennsylvania	1911
Rhode Island	1912
South Carolina	1907
Tennessee	1909
Texas	1909
Vermont	1913
Georgia	1908
Washington	1914
West Virginia	1914

economics courses than found in any other period. The passing of the Smith-Lever Act for home economics extension work in 1914, while giving instruction to persons not in school, gave much emphasis to the work already begun, because it was the first national legislation pertaining to education for home-making problems.¹⁵

¹⁵Education for the Home, pp. 13-14. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 37. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1914.

Negro Schools

There is little information to be had concerning home economics in the negro schools of the early twentieth century. No doubt this is due in part to the fact that there were not many facilities provided for their education.

Prior to 1917 scarcely any progress was made. The early classes consisted of teaching elementary cooking and sewing under the name of domestic science, and were used as an advertising feature by selfish leaders to attract attention.¹⁶ The teachers were almost totally untrained, as most of them were simply good housekeepers or seamstresses. Men even taught the classes in many instances. The courses were indefinite; equipment was inadequate, and often lacking entirely; public sentiment was not in favor of the expenditure of funds, and there was a lack of initiative.

Objectives

The courses of study available for this period reveal fragmentary objectives. In many cases no aims were stated, while in others they were expressed in such a manner as not to be readily understood. Apparently the courses were planned without very definite objectives which may explain the large amount of time spent in sewing and cooking for mere information and skill.

¹⁶R. S. Wilkinson, "Development of Home Economics in Negro Schools," Journal of Home Economics, XX (June, 1928), pp. 394-398.

Typical objectives were:¹⁷

1. To develop habits of accuracy, observation, reflection, application of the sciences of life, careful movement, order, neatness, and cleanliness.
2. To develop ability to plan profitably the divisions of income and to keep accounts.
3. To develop ideals and good standards of home life.
4. To develop a general understanding and appreciation of the dignity attached to household activities.
5. To elevate standards of nutrition.
6. To develop an appreciation for saner and more appropriate style of clothing, and for more comfortable and attractive homes.
7. To attain maximum efficiency in woman's activities at minimum cost of energy, time and money.
8. To develop appreciation for the artistic in dress and in furnishings of the home, good judgement in purchasing materials, and technical skill in the planning and construction of garments. The work is intended to meet three needs; namely, (1) home use, (2) preparation for advanced study, and (3) the earning of a livelihood.
9. To develop efficient homemakers and useful citizens.
10. The chief aim of the domestic science instruction is to teach the children to be helpful in the home, to give them a right appreciation for the occupation of homemaking, to teach them the value and proper use of the things brought into the home, and to give them the scientific and practical help needed

¹⁷ Mobley, "Development of Home Economics in the Secondary Schools," op. cit., p. 38.

to enable them to solve in an economical and efficient way the problems which the homemakers of Indiana are called upon to solve.¹⁸

Content of Early Courses

General content of courses falls into three divisions, with the emphasis on the first two; cooking, sewing, and home management. The earliest records of the content of courses taught are from the reports of the Lake Placid Conference 1889-1908, and give some interesting facts about the courses taught in the eastern and central states. One is as follows:¹⁹

Heat and water form the subject of the first few lessons, and the municipal water system is studied in this connection. Emphasis is laid on the growth of natural products and manufacture of foods, their cost, their combination into a complete meal are studied. All the work of cooking, cleaning, and sewing is done by hand.

Another states:

The first year of work begins with a study of first aids to the injured, thus reviewing the work of physiology in the grammar grades. The pupil is led to re-tell concisely what has been learned as to bodily structure, the parts of the skeleton, the muscles, the joints, the nervous system, and circulation. Practical work in bandaging, care of drowned, and transportation of the wounded train the hand to work with the brain.

In the second year after ten weeks in physics and twenty weeks in chemistry, the pupil begins the work of applied cooking and cleaning. In the science of cookery, the work is taken by food classes, beginning with water, proteins, albuminoids, carbohydrates, fats, and food adjuncts. Each pupil plans a breakfast, luncheon or dinner, the cost of which

¹⁸Uniform Course of Study for the High Schools of Indiana, 1914-15, p. 8. Indiana Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin No. 13, Vocational Series No. 8, September 1, 1914.

¹⁹Reports of Lake Placid Conference, 1889-1902, p. 4.

must be within a limited amount. The third year, chemistry of foods and nutrition with food analysis and chemical reactions is studied. The fourth year deals with sanitary and hygienic problems illustrated in home and public life. Sanitation of grounds, study of house plans, study of plumbing, heating and ventilation, followed by a study of sanitary food supply, molds and bacteriology, rules for hygienic care of sick and well leads to a more just estimation of life and its duties.

The earliest record of a definite outline for a course of study providing for the time allotment necessary for a unit of credit in home economics was given in the report of the North Central Association for Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1908.²⁰ The following requirements were outlined for four units of household arts and science.

1. Plain Sewing (1 unit)
Every exercise in sewing should illustrate an important principle or process, or a simple combination of such principles and processes. Hand sewing and machine work must be equally insisted upon.
 - a. The various stitches and their uses
 - b. Hand sewing and fundamental processes
 - c. The use and care of the sewing machines and the attachments
 - d. The nature and special uses of cotton, linen and woolen goods
 - e. The use of patterns, and cutting out of garments
 - f. Taking of measurements; making of simple garments
2. Sewing and Millinery (1 unit)
 - a. Making shirt waist, wash dresses and simple garments
 - b. Millinery. Study of materials for hats; making, altering, and covering hat forms. Throughout the course, economy and good taste in dress
3. Cooking (2 units)

²⁰ Mobley, *op. cit.*, pp. 40-41, quoting North Central Association for Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1908, pp. 73-74.

- a. Foods classified and tested for food principles. A study of the effect of heat on foods alone, and in combination; experiments with leavening agents and their uses shown in actual cooking. Bread making, the theory and practice of canning and preserving fruits, vegetables and meats, waiting on table.
- b. The cost of food; market prices; cost of meals. Household accounts and the family dietary. The planning, weighing, and cooking of apportioned meals. Diets for infants, invalids and convalescents.
- c. Sanitation: Selection of site, houseplacing, heating, lighting, and ventilation; water supply; disposal of waste; furnishing and decorating, cleaning processes, including laundry work.

The first domestic science course of study for Indiana was used in 1914-1915. It shows many improvements over the two previous courses mentioned. Not only does it go into more detail, but is outlined and gives more helpful suggestions to the teacher. The course given below is for a two-year course with five double recitations per week.²¹

- I. Foods and Their Preparation
 - a. Recitation Work
 1. Model kitchen
 2. Methods of cooking
 3. Methods of cleaning kitchen
 4. Foods and its uses
 5. Carbohydrates
 6. Proteins
 7. Planning a meal
 8. Serving a meal
 9. Salads and desserts
 10. Breads
 11. Use of left-overs
 12. Furnishing a dining room
 13. Care of dining room
 14. Duties of hostess

²¹Outline of Work in Domestic Science, 1914-1915, pp. 113-116. Indiana Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin No. 14, Vocational Series No. 9, Indianapolis, Indiana.

- b. Laboratory Experience
 1. Discussion of kitchen utensils
 2. Canned fruits, jellies, etc.
 3. Cooking of vegetables
 4. Meats
 5. Yeast breads
 6. Quick breads
 7. Salads
 8. Cakes
 9. Desserts
 10. Planning and serving a breakfast
 11. Planning and serving a dinner
 12. Refreshments for parties

II. Sewing and Textile Fabrics

a. Recitation

1. Work basket
2. Definitions
3. Cotton--history and manufacture
4. Cotton materials
5. Linen--history and manufacture
6. Linen materials
7. Wool--history and manufacture
8. Wool materials
9. Silk--history and manufacture
10. Silk materials
11. Buying materials
12. Textile adulterations
13. Carpets
14. Drapery materials

b. Laboratory Experience

1. Basting, hemming, running stitches on models
2. Seams
3. Mending and darning
4. Patching
5. Use of machine
6. Cutting and making of simple garments

III. House Furnishings

a. Recitation Work

1. House plans
2. Yards and gardens
3. Building materials
4. Wall paper, paints, stains
5. Carpets and rugs
6. Draperies
7. Buying furniture
8. Living room furniture
9. Bedroom furniture
10. Care of bedding
11. Rules for cleaning
12. Entertaining

- b. Laboratory Experience
 1. Make collection of samples, booklets
 2. Write compositions
 3. Make trips

IV. Laundry

- a. Recitation Work
 1. Reasons for laundry
 2. Equipment
 3. Preparation of water
 4. Soap
 5. Starch
 6. Washing flannels
 7. Laundering colored clothes
 8. Laundering table linen
 9. Laundering doilies
 10. Ironing
 11. Folding ironed clothes
 12. Care of laundered clothes
- b. Laboratory Work
 1. Demonstrations

V. Hygiene

- a. Recitation
 1. Dirt and its dangers
 2. Personal hygiene
 3. Correct use of body
 4. Clothes in relation to health
 5. Fresh air and its relation to health
 6. Contagious diseases
 7. Laws about quarantines
 8. Emergencies
 9. Rules for sick room
 10. Invalid's tray
 11. Impure water and its dangers

Accompanying the Indiana State course of study were suggestions for the teachers of domestic science which indicate that conditions were not always adequate and that teachers were not well trained. However, some of the suggestions contain sound advice that is just as true today as then. They are as follows:²²

²²Indiana Department of Public Instruction, 1914-15, Bulletin No. 13, op. cit., p. 5.

1. The teacher should do those things best suited to her school.
2. Do not crowd the work.
3. Be familiar with the work.
4. The course of study is only suggestive.
5. The essential thing in domestic science is to teach helpfulness in the home, right appreciation of homemaking, economic value of things in the home, and to solve more economically and efficiently the problems of the home.
6. The teacher must always give "reason why" in the laboratory.
7. Avoid fancy cooking and sewing.
8. Conditions must be as nearly like the home as possible.
9. Urge children to try things at home.
10. Teachers in small rural schools and men who must teach domestic science should emphasize the scientific side of the work, and arrange for the practical side to be done at home.
11. Periods should be at least 40 minutes long.
12. Class instruction of 20 minutes is long enough for each subject where there is only one laboratory period in cooking and sewing per week.
13. When a man is teaching the work, and it does not seem practical to do the actual sewing, the laboratory time could be spent on a booklet or the sewing basket.

Time Allotment and Grade Placement

The amount of time devoted to home economics as represented in Table 6 is not uniform. The time allotment per week varies from 90 to 450 minutes with an average of 285 minutes; the periods, from two to seven; and the minutes per period from 45 to 90.

TABLE 6

TIME ALLOTMENT FOR HOME ECONOMICS 1900-1916*

State	Periods Per Week	Minutes Per Period	Minutes Per Week
Arkansas	2	45	90
California	2	80	160
Delaware	5	90	450
Florida	2-3	90	180-270
Idaho	5	60-80	300-400
Illinois	4	80	320
Indiana	5	80-90	400-450
Kansas	5	90	450
Kentucky	3	45	135
Louisiana	5	80	400
Mississippi	7	40-45	280-315
New Mexico	5	40-60	200-300
New York	5	60-80-90	300-450
North Carolina	2	60	120
North Dakota	5	80	400
Ohio	3-5	90	270-450
Pennsylvania	2-3	40-90	80-270
South Dakota	4	80-90	320-360
Tennessee	5	45	225
Texas	5	45	225
Utah	5	90	420
Vermont	5	40	200
Virginia	5	40	200
Washington	5	60-90	300-450
Wisconsin	3	90	270

*Source: Mobley, op. cit., p. 44.

The Bureau of Education in 1916 made the following recommendations concerning time allotment and placement of domestic science:²³

²³Henrietta Calvin and Carrie A. Lyford, "Home Economics," Biennial Survey of Education 1916-1918, p. 361. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 88, Vol. 1. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1921.

1. Domestic science should begin with the fifth grade.
2. There should be four 45 minute periods per week.
3. In the seventh and eighth grades there should be seven to nine 45 minute periods per week or 90 minutes twice a week.
4. Elective home economics should be in every high school.
5. High school girls should be required to take home economics for one year.

Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education states that the allotted time in the lower elementary grades was from twenty to thirty minutes once a week; in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades forty-five minutes twice a week for sewing for two years; and one and one-half hours once a week for cooking. He also says that domestic science at this time (1911) was too new in the high schools to make any statement as to procedures, except that a longer period was devoted in the high school than in the elementary grades.²⁴

Instruction in domestic art (sewing) usually started in the fourth grade, continued in the fifth, and sometimes through the sixth. Domestic science (cooking) was generally taught in the seventh and eighth grades, although some schools began it in the sixth. In the elementary grades cooking and sewing were generally required of all girls. Domestic science was usually included in the high school curriculum, but seldom was required for graduation.

²⁴"Domestic Economy," Monroe's Cyclopedia of Education, Vol. III, 1911, pp. 318-332.

TABLE 7

SUMMARY OF HOME ECONOMICS IN DETROIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS 1916*

School	Grade or Course	Time per week in minutes	Number lessons per week	Kind of Work	Compulsory
Elementary	4th	60	1	Sewing	yes
	5th	60	1	Sewing	yes
	6th	90	1	Cooking	yes
	7th	90	1	Cooking	yes
	8th	90	1	Dressmaking	yes
Junior High School	Industrial Course	600	10	Dressmaking Millinery Cooking	yes
	Academic Course	160	2	Dressmaking Millinery Cooking	yes
	Commercial Course	160	2	Dressmaking Millinery Cooking	yes
High Schools	9th	180-315	2-4	Dressmaking Millinery Cooking	One Year
	10th	180-315	2-4	Dressmaking Millinery Cooking	
	11th	180-315	2-4	Dressmaking Millinery Cooking	
	12th	180-315	2-4	Dressmaking Millinery Cooking	

*Source: Journal of Home Economics, September, 1916.
P. 487.

Table 7 is a summary of home economics in the Detroit public schools for 1916. The elementary grade requirements as to time allotment, placement, and kind of work are much the same as in other localities except that dressmaking was taught in the eighth grade. It seems to the author that girls of this age would be too young for this type of advanced work. At this time junior high schools were very new, and so the work done was not comparable to many school systems. The one year requirement of home economics in the high school was unusual.²⁵

Statistics

From the Biennial Survey of Education, 1921-1922 the following data was secured as to numbers enrolled and the percentage of pupils in home economics classes of the public high schools in 1910 and 1915.²⁶ The table below does not give a complete picture as there are no corresponding figures available for enrollment in grade school home economics.

TABLE 8

HOME ECONOMICS ENROLLMENT IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS 1910 AND 1915

1910	Percentage of Total Enrollment	1915	Percentage of Total Enrollment
27,933	3.78	150,276	12.89

²⁵Charlotte Keen, "Home Economics in Detroit Schools," Journal of Home Economics, III (September, 1916), pp. 479-487.

²⁶"Statistical Survey of Education," Biennial Survey of Education, 1921-1922, pp. 1-30. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 14, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1924.

From these figures it is evident that in the five years from 1910-1915 the number enrolled in high school home economics increased more than five times, and percentage of total enrollment in the high schools more than three-fold. In the year 1910-1911 there were 95 elementary schools and 207 high schools teaching home economics.²⁷

Textbooks

A study of the card catalogue files of the Indianapolis Public Library, Teacher's Special Library, and the Indiana State Library revealed that there were very few home economics textbooks written from 1900-1916. No doubt there were others, but these libraries, all of which are excellent, listed but four. They are:

1. Increasing Home Efficiency, Mrs. M. S. Bruere
2. Basic Principles of Domestic Science, Lella Frich
3. Handbook of Domestic Science and Household Arts, Mrs. Lucy Langdon
4. Shelter and Clothing, Helen Kinne and Anna M. Cooley

The first three were for use by the teachers and show that educators in the field of domestic science were aware of a need for advice and help. Shelter and Clothing has chapters concerning the home, textiles, sewing procedures, history of

²⁷Monroe, op. cit., p. 320.

costume, care and repair of clothing, and millinery. The authors attempted to cover a great deal of material in this book.

A study of clothing textbooks was made in 1922. At that time it was found that one was published before 1890, five between 1890 and 1899, and eight between 1900 and 1909. The first textile book was published in 1912.²⁸

There are two very excellent articles in the "Journal of Home Economics" concerning books of this period. Mrs. Ida Hood Clark's book, "Domestic Science," is quoted as follows in an editorial in the April, 1911, issue:²⁹

Lessons may be used in all grades above the third, and some may be taught in the first three grades, while some may be used in the first and second years of high school.
Teachers who have absolutely no knowledge of domestic science can teach by carefully reading the lessons over and performing the work as directed.

The editorial also states that according to the table of contents domestic science was cooking and little else. There was a lack of logical sequence in the lessons as shown by the following excerpt: ginger snaps, custards, soups, fruits, bacon, fats, lamb stew, fruit cake, sugar, candy, bread making, angel-cake, muffins, and vegetables. The editorial in criticising the book says that:

²⁸Ethel L. Phillips, "Analysis of Textbooks in Clothing and Textiles," Journal of Home Economics, XIV (October, 1922), pp. 471-477.

²⁹"Criticisms of Books," Journal of Home Economics, III (April, 1911), p. 516.

It is a hodge-podge of misinformation. On page 116 the book states "It will be seen from the table of analysis," but no such table appears. Furthermore, ideas are expressed clumsily and in bad English.

In 1916 Miss Agnes K. Hanna wrote the following criticisms of available textbooks on domestic science:³⁰

1. There is an attempt to cover thinly far too much ground.
2. There is a poor balance between text material and laboratory material which take the form of padding with recipes and insufficient subject matter.
3. There is a vagueness in the relation of the subject of home economics to science material of other courses.
4. The problem of cost of foods is often either ignored or else treated in such an isolated way that the student has no conception of the relative cost of food materials or labor expenditure, and no knowledge of the basic economic principles underlying price.
5. In the attempt to simplify and condense material for high school students many statements are made as final truths which current science is either questioning or disproving.

Teaching Procedures

Three methods were generally used for teaching cooking:

- (1) laboratory method, (2) observation and demonstration, and (3) home method. In the "laboratory method" there was space and equipment for each girl. This method was used in cities where facilities were adequate. The second method provided

³⁰Agnes K. Hanna, "Standards for High School Textbooks in Home Economics," Journal of Home Economics, III (July, 1916), pp. 349-352.

equipment for only one person, and the work was done before the class. In the "home method" no equipment was required as the class work was discussion.³¹

As a rule the teachers of this period attempted to apply scientific reasons and procedures to the cooking lessons. Tiny amounts of food were prepared that had little relation to home practices.

In the sewing laboratories models or samples were used extensively. However, there was a growing consciousness that this method was inadequate, and that the making of actual garments was much more interesting and worthwhile for the children.

During this period the scientific and artistic side of domestic science was taught for the first time, although the acquiring of skill was still emphasized. Cooking lessons had new meaning as they were correlated with chemistry, biology, and physics. Lessons on the becomingness of clothes and home decoration were introduced into a few courses of study.

Dictation, lectures, notebook work, and demonstrations were used extensively due to the lack of textbooks. Individual participation in the recitation period was not used to any marked degree.

Laboratory Equipment

The cooking laboratories of this period had the gas

³¹State Course of Study for the Public Schools of Indiana, 1915-16, p. 15. Indiana Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin No. 20, Vocational Series No. 13, September, 1915.

burners arranged in a hollow square so that the instructor could stand in the middle and see all that was going on. Very often the cooking apparatus was too high for the little girls, and they had to stand on tip-toe in order to reach their work. A supply table was in the middle of the square, and around this a line was formed by the students to get their supplies for the day's work.³²

Sewing in the lower grades was done by hand so that a special room was not needed. Later when machine work was added any unused room was equipped. As a rule both the cooking and sewing rooms were in the basement.

From a bulletin published in 1915 by the Indiana State Department of Public Instruction some information was obtained concerning cost of laboratories in that state. Equipment for a sewing room in a rural school was estimated at \$8.25. The itemized account was:³³

1. A board-top table	\$1.25
2. Cupboard space for pupil's work	7.00
3. Books and bulletins	\$8.25

For more advanced work and better equipped rooms accommodating sixteen to twenty pupils the cost was estimated as follows for a sewing room:³⁴

³²Mildred L. Swift, "Yesterday and Today in Our Foods Laboratories," Practical Home Economics, XVI (May, 1938), pp. 190-191.

³³Indiana State Course of Study, 1915-16, op. cit., p. 115.

³⁴Ibid., p. 120.

Cheapest equipment	\$150.00
Medium equipment	357.75
Expensive equipment	603.20

For a cooking room accommodating the same number:

Cheapest equipment	\$105.00
Medium Equipment	360.00
Expensive equipment	570-650.00

Summary

From 1900-1916 there was a growing consciousness of the value of home economics which was manifested by the rapid growth of the number of schools teaching this work. With the expansion of secondary schools there was a tendency to extend home economics into the high school curriculum.

For several reasons the first seventeen years of the twentieth century may be called the "experimental period." Methods and procedures varied greatly; the scope of subject matter broadened; aims and courses of study showed a vagueness and indefiniteness; time allotment was not uniform; and available textbooks were not adequate. The American Home Economics Association, which was organized early in this century, was aware of these weaknesses, and sought to raise the quality of the work by organizing committees to study these problems.

Sewing was generally taught in the fourth grade for the first time, and was continued through the sixth. In the seventh and eighth grades cooking was substituted for sewing. Home economics was more often a required subject in the grade schools than in the high school. The time devoted per week was from 90 to 450 minutes. Rooms were not adequately equipped,

but were given more attention by administrators than formerly. Negro and rural schools lagged behind the city schools in introducing the work and in the quality of work taught.

Scientific principles were added to the cooking and textile lessons, and art principles to clothing and home problems so that the work along these lines was enriched to some extent. Preparing small amounts of food and the making of samples or models in sewing was the usual procedure.

In reviewing the attainments of this period it may be said that the growth of the movement was so rapid that teaching methods, subject matter, and equipment did not show a corresponding improvement. However, since home economics during this period proved to the public and educators the value of its inclusion in the curriculum it is logical to predict that many deficiencies would improve within the next few years.

CHAPTER V
ORGANIZATION PERIOD
1917-1941

In the development of home economics education, the years following 1916 are referred to in this study as the "organization period." It is logical that after the experimental stage, in which there were few definite or settled procedures, that there should be a period characterized by clarification and restatement of objectives, enrichment and revision of subject matter, standardization of time allotment and grade placement, and uniformity of teaching methods. Home economics prior to this time was in the introductory and experimental stage. Soon after 1916 minimum requirements were established as a result of the knowledge gained from practical experience and the enactment of national laws affecting the financing of home economics classes.

National Legislation

The fundamental purposes of the national vocational education acts as they relate to the training for homemaking is to reach as many girls and women as possible over fourteen years of age and to contribute to their efficiency in this vocation. Therefore, home economics in the public schools is but a portion of the national vocational program.

The Smith-Lever Act of 1914 is important because it was the first national law affecting home economics. It did not apply to the secondary schools but provided funds for extension work in agriculture and home economics. This law paved the way for future legislation.

The following statements represent in general the provisions of the Smith-Hughes Act, which was passed in February, 1917, as it applied specifically to the organization of vocational schools and classes in the home economics education of the public schools:¹

1. That education for the home will be given in schools or classes under public supervision or control.
2. That the controlling purpose of this education shall be to fit for useful employment.
3. That the education shall be of less than college grade.
4. That the education shall be designed to meet the needs of persons over 14 years of age who are preparing to enter upon the vocation of homemaking, or who have entered upon the vocation of homemaking.
5. That every dollar of federal money must be matched by a dollar of state or local money or both.
6. That the state or local community, or both shall provide the necessary plant and equipment determined upon by the State Board, with the approval of the Federal Board, as the minimum requirement in such state for education in homemaking.

¹ Vocational Education in Home Economics, pp. 6-7. United States Bureau of Education, Vocational Education Bulletin No. 151, Home Economics Series No. 12. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1930.

7. That the total amount expended for the maintenance of such education in any school or class receiving the benefit of such appropriation shall not be less annually than the amount fixed by the State Board, with the approval of the Federal Board, as the minimum for such schools or classes in the state.
8. That schools or classes giving instruction to persons who have not entered upon employment in the home shall require that at least one-half of the time of such instruction be given to practical work on a useful or productive basis.
9. That not more than 20 per cent of the money appropriated under this act for the payment of salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects, for any years, shall be expended for the salaries of teachers of home economics subjects.

In developing a national program it was found necessary to interpret the Smith-Hughes Act so that it was applicable to all schools. Two types of subjects were decided upon as preparing for the vocation of homemaking: (1) home economics subjects, and (2) related subjects. Home economics subjects include foods and cookery, textiles and clothing, laundry, house planning and furnishing, home nursing, child care and training, and home management. Related subjects include general science as applied to the household, biology, physiology and hygiene, household physics, household chemistry, household bacteriology, drawing and design applied to the household, costume design, and interior decoration.

Based on the needs of the group to be taught, the program for the half-time instruction consisted of (1) home economics subjects only, or (2) home economics and related subjects.

In the first group three hours or 180 minutes daily had to be spent on the study of home economics (fifteen hours per week). In the second group not less than 120 minutes had to be devoted to home economics and related subjects (ten hours per week). Cities of less than 25,000 were allowed to modify the hours of instruction so that not less than ninety minutes per day, seven and one-half hours per week, were spent on home economics subjects.

The George-Reed Act, which was enacted February 5, 1929, makes definite provisions and appropriations for a program of vocational education in home economics. Unlike the Smith-Hughes Act, no clearly defined and definite standards were set up, and a more flexible program is thus permissible. Three types of programs are allowed by this law in the public schools, any one or all of which could be used in a state and one or more of them in a single school.²

Program I.-- This is the program operating at the present time under the Smith-Hughes Act, and for which provision is already made in state plans.

Program II.-- In this program two consecutive years of work are provided in which at least 120 minutes daily should be given to home economics subjects and related subjects, with a minimum of 60 minutes daily to home economics subjects, and the remainder of the time to related subjects in segregated classes. It is strongly recommended, in addition to the foregoing, that in the first year of the course an average of at least 15

²Ibid., p. 14.

minutes daily ($1\frac{1}{4}$ hours per week--45 hours per year in a nine month's school) be allotted to home practice and in the second year the same amount of time be given to a minimum of two properly planned and supervised home projects carried to completion in two phases of home economics. It is anticipated that this program will best apply to urban communities.

Program III.-- In this program two consecutive years of work are provided in which a double period with a minimum of 90 minutes daily should be given to home economics subjects, and in addition, a minimum average of 30 minutes daily ($2\frac{1}{2}$ hours per week or 90 hours per year in a 9 months' school), in the first year of the course, to at least three properly planned and supervised home projects carried to completion in three phases of home economics, and in the second year of the course a minimum average of 45 minutes daily ($3\frac{3}{4}$ hours per week or 135 hours per year in a 9 months' school), to at least four properly planned and supervised home projects carried to completion in not less than three phases of home economics. It is strongly recommended that science and art preceding, paralleling, or following the home economics, be taught in as close correlation to that field as possible. It is anticipated that this program will best apply to rural communities, and coordinate with the vocational agricultural program.

Social and Economic Factors

The effect of the World War, 1914-1918, on the development of the home economics program is included in this chapter because this country participated in the latter part of the conflict. During the War, home economists were called upon to aid in planning wholesome meals for camps and hospitals and in giving advice to those at home in conserving and preparing food at a minimum cost. It is safe to say that the people of the United States learned more of food, its classes, uses, and cost during these years than in any other comparable period.

Recognizing the value of professional advice several well known home economists were included in Mr. Herbert Hoover's Conference on Food Administration.

Prices of all commodities rose to new high levels during the War. Parents, realizing the need of saving money, urged their daughters to enroll in home economics classes in order that they might learn to sew, and to prepare appetizing but inexpensive meals. It was a natural outcome that wise expenditure of money for food and clothing should be given more thought and that the problems of the consumer should become an important problem in home economics education. Courses of study soon showed an enriched program that included general homemaking problems and the needs of the family as a social group.

The depression, which was a natural consequence of the World War, resulted in the curtailment of many home economics departments in the public schools. Chicago eliminated this work entirely for five years from 1931-1936. It was difficult, if not impossible, to collect taxes, and economy had to be practiced some place in the educational system. Many taxpayers and a few educators felt that everything but the "essentials" in the curriculum should be eliminated, and so home economics laboratories were closed in many instances.

As a matter of fact, those schools that maintained their departments assumed greater significance, as they contributed a great deal in teaching the children ways in which

to ease the financial situation at home. Girls were taught how to make the family income go farther by preparing well-balanced but low cost meals, and by making-over and remodeling garments. In many instances girls were able to stay in school because of the garments they made in the clothing laboratories.

Objectives

In 1918 the National Education Association appointed a Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education to define the objectives for secondary schools. The Commission issued a small but important document entitled "Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education" that said:³

The secondary schools should be guided by a clear conception of democracy; that in a democracy each member should find opportunities to develop such as would prepare him for the largest usefulness to himself and to society; and that consequently, education in a democracy should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ideals.

The Commission then proceeded to determine the main objectives that should guide education in a democracy. The result is known as the "Seven Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education." They are:⁴

1. Sound health knowledge and habits
2. Command of fundamental processes

³Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, p. 32.
United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 35. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1918.

⁴Ibid., p. 33.

3. Worthy home membership
4. Education for vocation
5. Education for citizenship
6. Worthy use of leisure time
7. Ethical character

As a result of this study ten outstanding leaders in the field of home economics education were selected to organize existing materials on the educational principles established by the Commission. A bulletin was published entitled Reorganization of Home Economics in Secondary Schools, which outlined specific needs and gave suggestions for reorganizing home economics. It also indicated the general purposes, aims, and reasons for teaching home economics and anticipated the results.⁵

Objectives written since the publication of the documents mentioned above show more uniformity as they were organized around the Seven Cardinal Principles. Besides general aims, practically all courses contained specific aims and outcomes which preceded each division of work, namely: food and nutrition, clothing and textiles, health of the family, home nursing, home management, child care, and family relationship. Typical aims are as follows:⁶

Indiana----To give the girl a well-rounded conception of the many studies contributing to worthy home membership.

⁵Reorganization of Home Economics in Secondary Schools, preface. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 5. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1922.

⁶Mobley, op. cit., p. 50.

To help the girl who is in school and also help the girl who must leave school at the end of the ninth grade, to live her daily life more wisely and to find her place in the working world.

Maryland---To help the girl, as a member of the home and community, to solve her problems in social relationship.

To develop the girl's interest in her home, its function and organization, and to give her ideas and ideals as a basis for home membership and the possible foundation of a home of her own.

To develop standards and judgments in the selection, purchase, care, and use of clothing.

To give sufficient information about food and nutrition so that she may choose intelligently and economically, and develop good food habits.

To guide her in her plans for daily living through right opportunities for work, amusement, education, wise saving and spending.

Alabama-----To teach the girl to meet her immediate problems.

To teach the girl to live as a useful member in her immediate family.

To acquire certain information and skill which will be useful to her as a homemaker in later life.

Idaho-----To prepare girls for womanhood and its most important vocation, homemaking.

To give a general education leading to accurate perception, intellectual development and better citizenship.

To develop in the individual, foresight, personal responsibility and high ideals of the dignity of labor and one's duty to society.

A study made by Miss Clyde Mobley in 1926 showed that in the aims of twenty-one state courses of study, worthy home membership occurred seventeen times; skill and information in relation to homemaking activities, fifteen times; vocation, thirteen times; citizenship and health, eleven times; use of

leisure time, nine times; and social and economic aims, eight times.⁷ This shows that greatest emphasis was placed upon worthy home membership.

Content of Courses

The 1928 Indiana state course of study, in addition to the general and specific objectives, gave desired outcomes, outlined in detail the problems, activities, question, content, and differentiation and enrichment. The work is divided into units with the time allotment for each as evidenced by the following:⁸

GENERAL HOME ECONOMICS (Semester I)

Foods (3 Weeks)

- Unit I. Characteristics of a Healthy Girl
- Unit II. Relation of Food to Health
- Unit III. Study and Preparation of a Breakfast
- Unit IV. Study and Preparation of a School Lunch
- Unit V. Cooperation in Work
- Unit VI. Independence in Work
- Unit VII. Study and Preparation of a Family Dinner
- Unit VIII. Routinism of Tasks
- Unit IX. Hospitality
- Unit X. Care of Food
- Unit XI. Food for Children

The House (5 Weeks)

- Unit I. Selection of Furnishings for Girl's Room
- Unit II. Arrangement of Furniture
- Unit III. Care of Girl's Room

⁷Ibid., p. 63.

⁸Courses in Home Economics, pp. 29-253. Indiana State Department of Public Instruction, Division of Vocational Education, Bulletin No. 100. Fort Wayne: Fort Wayne Printing Co., 1928.

Child Development
(3 Weeks)

- Unit I. Food for Children
- Unit II. Children in the Family
- Unit III. Play
- Unit IV. Development of Love of Nature
- Unit V. Behavior Problems
- Unit VI. Child Responsibility

GENERAL HOME ECONOMICS
(Semester II)

Home Relations
(3 Weeks)

- Unit I. Happy Homes
- Unit II. Attitudes
- Unit III. Home Participation and Contribution
- Unit IV. Leisure Time
- Unit V. Recreation

Clothing
(10 Weeks)

- Unit I. Personal Grooming
- Unit II. Ethics of Shopping
- Unit III. Equipment for Sewing
- Unit IV. Clothing Selection
- Unit V. Clothing Construction (Wash Dress)
- Unit VI. Clothing for the Young Child

Social Usage
(3 Weeks)

- Unit I. Traits of Friendship
- Unit II. The Successful Home Party
- Unit III. Courtesy
- Unit IV. Travel
- Unit V. Engagements
- Unit VI. Conduct of Which the Family Might be Proud

HOME MANAGEMENT
(One Semester)

- Unit I. House vs. Home
- Unit II. Home Ownership vs. Renting
- Unit III. Advantages of a Desirable Neighborhood
- Unit IV. Financing the Building of a Home
- Unit V. House Planning

- Unit VI. Finishes and Furniture
- Unit VII. Tasks to be Performed in the Home
- Unit VIII. Family Resources
- Unit IX. Means of Further Study of the Home and Its Activities
- Unit X. Phases That May Require Additional Study

HOME NURSING AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT
(One Semester)

- Unit I. Characteristics of an Attractive Girl
- Unit II. Health Habits
- Unit III. Relation of Health to Success
- Unit IV. Effect of Heredity on Health
- Unit V. Relation of Body Functions to Health
- Unit VI. Family Health
- Unit VII. Community Health
- Unit VIII. Pioneers in Health
- Unit IX. Care of the Sick in the Home
- Unit X. Common Emergencies

Child Development
(6 Weeks)

- Unit I. Desirable Characteristics
- Unit II. Physical Care of Child
- Unit III. Mental and Emotional Development
- Unit IV. Summaries of Normal Development
- Unit V. Organizations Interested in Child Welfare

CLOTHING I
(One Semester)

- Unit I. Characteristics of a School Dress
- Unit II. Suitable Materials
- Unit III. Commercial Patterns
- Unit IV. Construction Processes
- Unit V. Accessories
- Unit VI. Care and Repair of Clothing
- Unit VII. Clothing Budget

CLOTHING II
(One Semester)

- Unit I. Essentials of an Afternoon or Party Dress
- Unit II. Choice of a Pattern
- Unit III. Selection of Material
- Unit IV. Construction
- Unit V. Types of Undergarments

- Unit VI. Selection of Undergarments
- Unit VII. Construction of Undergarments
- Unit VIII. Garments Possible for High School Girls to Make
- Unit IX. Construction
- Unit X. Care of Clothing
- Unit XI. Linen

FOODS I
(One Semester)

- Unit I. Choosing the Lunch
- Unit II. Meals for the Family
- Unit III. Study and Preparation of a Breakfast
- Unit IV. Meal Service
- Unit V. Study and Preparation of a Luncheon or Supper
- Unit VI. Dinner
- Unit VII. Markets
- Unit VIII. Care of Foods
- Unit IX. Preservation of Foods
- Unit X. Hospitality in the Home
- Unit XI. Special Meals
- Unit XII. Busy Day Meals
- Unit XIII. Conservation in Meal Service
- Unit XIV. Personal Traits Needed for Cooperation and Independent Work
- Unit XV. Kitchen Equipment
- Unit XVI. Cooking as an Avocation

FOODS II - NUTRITION
(One Semester)

- Unit I. Factors that Determine the Kinds and Amounts of Food to be Taken
- Unit II. Reasons for Food
- Unit III. Deficiency Diseases
- Unit IV. Minerals Most Needed in the Body
- Unit V. Use of Protein
- Unit VI. Uses of Carbohydrates
- Unit VII. Minerals
- Unit VIII. Digestion of Foods
- Unit IX. Ways of Reducing Cost of Food
- Unit X. Special Diets

EUTHENICS

(Two Semesters - Single Period Daily)

Family and Social Relation
(12 Weeks)

- Unit I. Right Living Conditions
- Unit II. Happy Homes
- Unit III. Individualism in the Home
- Unit IV. The Family as an Institution
- Unit V. The Broken Home
- Unit VI. Relation to Community
- Unit VII. Social Problems
- Unit VIII. Leisure Time

Nutrition
(6 Weeks)

- Unit I. Characteristics of a Healthy Girl
- Unit II. Body Requirements
- Unit III. Factors that Determine the Kind and Amount of Food
- Unit IV. Reasons for Food
- Unit V. Constituents for Body Requirements
- Unit VI. Essentials for Adequate Diet
- Unit VII. Adequate Meals
- Unit VIII. Food Needs for Children
- Unit IX. Caloric Value of Diet
- Unit X. Special Diets
- Unit XI. Contributions of Science

Clothing
(14 Weeks)

- Unit I. Personal Grooming
- Unit II. Selection of Garments
- Unit III. Study of Fabrics in Ready-made Garments
- Unit IV. Accessories
- Unit V. Care of Clothing
- Unit VI. Clothing Budget
- Unit VII. Ethics of Shopping

Income Management
(4 Weeks)

- Unit I. Management of the Income
- Unit II. Standards of Living
- Unit III. Family Responsibilities
- Unit IV. Individuality in Homes

The following is the latest Indiana state course of study, which was published in 1938.⁹ From the outline it appears to be more brief than the one written in 1929, but, in reality it is about the same length. Many details were omitted because they were too minor in character, and space did not permit their inclusion.

The objectives, which are essentially the same as before, are placed in the units before the subject is outlined in detail, rather than at the beginning of each course. The material is divided into experiences, procedures, and subject matter. Both course of study were built around the girl's life in the home, school, and at play. Family relationships, the home, health, child care, and leisure time activities received a great deal of emphasis. The psychology of learning and of the adolescent were the basis for a great many of the changes in the courses of study.

HOME ECONOMICS I

- | | | |
|------|------|---------------------------------------|
| Unit | I. | Developing Personally and Socially |
| Unit | II. | Personal and Social Relations |
| Unit | III. | Planning, Preparing and Serving Meals |
| Unit | IV. | Bringing Art into Everyday Living |
| Unit | V. | Making and Selecting Own Clothing |
| Unit | VI. | Improving Own Appearance |

⁹ Junior and Senior High School Home Economics, 1938.
Indiana State Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin No. 123. Indianapolis: Wm. B. Burford Co., 1938.

HOME ECONOMICS II

- Unit I. Making the Most of Family Resources
- Unit II. Planning the Food Needs of the Family
- Unit III. Health and Home Nursing
- Unit IV. Assisting With The Care and Guidance of Children
- Unit V. Directing Physical Development of the Child
- Unit VI. Understanding Mental, Emotional, and Social Development
- Unit VII. Literature and Services Available in the Field of Child Development

HOME ECONOMICS III

- Unit I. Adjusting Conditions and Relationships in Home and Community Living
- Unit II. Home and Social Relations
- Unit III. Housing the Family
- Unit IV. Planning for Family Needs
- Unit V. Managing Money for the House
- Unit VI. Furnishing the House
- Unit VII. Caring for the Home
- Unit VIII. Expressing Personality Through Clothing
- Unit IX. Selecting, Planning, and Constructing Clothing
- Unit X. Buying

HOME ECONOMICS IV

- Unit I. Solving Problems of Special Interest to the High School Pupil
- Unit II. Consumer Problems
- Unit III. Art in the Home and Community
- Unit IV. Child Welfare
- Unit V. Opportunities Through Home Economics Training

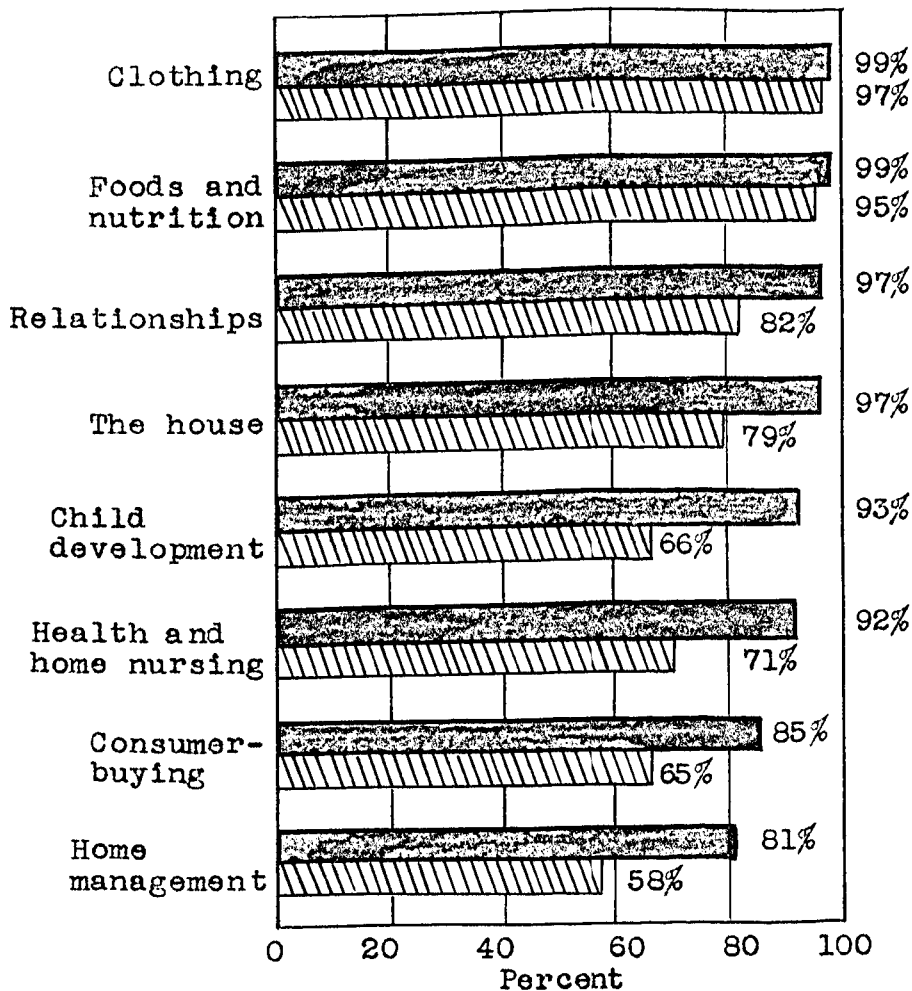
HOME ECONOMICS FOR BOYS

- Unit I. Good Manners
- Unit II. Importance of Healthful and Economical Meals
- Unit III. Intelligent Buying of Foods
- Unit IV. Preparing and Serving Simple Meals
- Unit V. Personal Appearance
- Unit VI. Buying of Clothing
- Unit VII. Principles in the Operation of the Home

There have been many outstanding changes in the courses of study since the first ones were written early in the twentieth century. They may be summarized as follows:

1. Organization of subject matter into units
2. Breaking down of the rigid division of work which existed between foods and clothing, and a blending together of these and household administration into a unified homemaking course
3. Shifting of emphasis from production as an end to production as a means to an end
4. Courses based on the immediate needs and interests of pupils rather than on subject matter to be learned
5. Organization of foods courses around breakfast, luncheon, and dinner rather than food nutrients
6. Emphasis in the foods courses on health, dietetics, and nutrition
7. Emphasis in the clothing courses on budgeting and economics of dress
8. Inclusion of units of study concerning child care, family relationships, functions of the home, and consumer education
9. Courses for boys
10. Courses of study based on psychology and sociology

Figure 3 indicates the relative emphasis placed on the different phases of home economics courses by vocational and non-vocational schools. Although there have been many additions to the subject matter foods and clothing are still emphasized by the schools. The high percentage of schools including family relationships, the house, child development, health and home nursing show that these areas have increased





Key:
 Reimbursed schools
 Nonreimbursed schools

Fig. 3.--Per cent of schools teaching different areas of home economics, in reimbursed and nonreimbursed programs.*

*Source: Home Economics in the Public High Schools, 1938-1939, p. 71.

in importance. In every case vocational schools stress all units more than the non-vocational schools.¹⁰

Grade Placement

The United States Bureau of Education in 1922 sent a questionnaire to 116 leading cities, inquiring about the instruction given in food and clothing studies. Replies were received from ninety-seven of these cities. The grades in which foods and clothing were taught, either as required or elective, or both, are shown in the following table:

TABLE 9

GRADE PLACEMENT OF HOME ECONOMICS IN 1926*

Grade	Number of Cities Reporting	Number of Cities in Which Required			Number of Cities in Which Elective		
		Food	Clothing	Both	Food	Clothing	Both
Fourth	17	3	17	1
Fifth	33	3	33	1
Sixth	60	24	60	1
Seventh	66	47	49	32
Eighth	84	69	65	38
Jr. High School							
Seventh	63	43	49	54	56	50
Eighth	66	43	33	61	56	50
Ninth	55	8	9	50	52	45
Sr. High School							
Tenth	16	7	6	14	13	16
Eleventh	14	3	2	14	13	11
Twelfth	15	2	3	12	13	10
4 Jr. High School							
Ninth	62	9	10	6	51	55	46
Tenth	55	2	48	47	41
Eleventh	49	2	36	43	33
Twelfth	39	33	20	27

*Source: Biennial Survey of Education, 1922-24.

¹⁰Home Economics in Public High Schools, p. 70. United States Office of Education, Bulletin No. 213. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941.

From Table 9 it is apparent that home economics at that time was taught from the fourth grade through the twelfth, and that there was a tendency to push it upwards in the curriculum. The most frequent placement was in grades seven, eight, and nine. In the elementary school, it was a required subject; required and elective, in the seventh and eighth grades of the junior high school; but beginning with the ninth year, home economics tended to become an elective so that in the senior high school it was seldom required.

A bulletin published in 1941 by the United States Office of Education gives a most comprehensive review of the field of home economics for 1938-39. No figures are given in the bulletin for any grade below the seventh because home economics is so seldom taught in the lower grades at the present time. From the table given below it is evident that home economics is most frequently offered in the ninth year, then followed by the tenth, eighth, and seventh grades. The eleventh and twelfth grades are grouped together as fewer schools offer the work in the last years of the senior high school.

TABLE 10
GRADE PLACEMENT OF HOME ECONOMICS IN 1938-1939*

Grades	Number of Schools	Percent of Schools
Seventh	2,901	28
Eighth	4,495	44
Ninth	7,946	78
Tenth	6,345	62
Eleventh and Twelfth	5,777	57
Total	10,197	. . .

*Source: Home Economics in Public High Schools

Although home economics was more generally offered in the ninth year (Table 10), more girls were enrolled in home economics in the seventh and eighth grades (76 per cent). Figure 4 shows that in each of the grades following the eighth, the per cent of girls enrolled in home economics classes decreases with each succeeding grade.

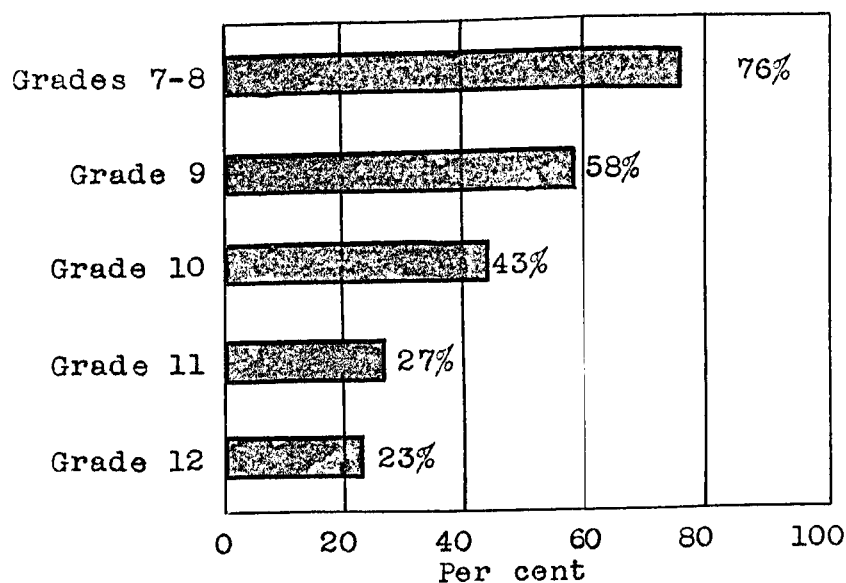


Fig. 4.--Per cent of girls enrolled in home economics at each grade level.*

*Source: Home Economics in the Public High Schools

Time Allotment

In 1926 there was more uniformity in the time allotment per week than in the preceding period. Three hundred to 450 minutes was the usual procedure. This was divided into five sixty and ninety minute periods per week as shown in the accompanying table.

TABLE 11
TIME ALLOTMENT FOR HOME ECONOMICS 1926*

State	Periods Per Week	Minutes Per Period	Minutes Per Week
Arkansas.	5	90	450
California.	5	90	450
Delaware.	5	90	450
Florida.	5	60-90	300-450
Idaho.	5	90	450
Illinois.	5	90	450
Indiana.	5	60	300
Kansas.	5	90	450
Kentucky.	5	90	300-450
Louisiana.	5	60-90	450
Maine.	5	90	200-225
Massachusetts.	5	40-45	450
Mississippi.	5	90	450
Missouri.	5	90	450
New Mexico.	5	90	400-450
North Carolina.	5	80-90	300-450
North Dakota.	5	60-90	300-450
Ohio.	5	60-90	300-450
Ohio.	5-12	60-90	400-450
Pennsylvania.	5	80-90	400-450
South Dakota.	5	80-90	300-450
Tennessee.	5	60-90	450
Texas.	5	90	450
Utah.	5	90	400
Vermont.	5	80	450
Virginia.	5	90	450
Washington.	5	90	450
Wisconsin.	5	90	450

*Source: Development of Home Economics in the Secondary Schools.

The length of the periods in reimbursed and nonreimbursed schools is shown in Table 12 for 1938-39. This table gives the percentage by grades of the different length of periods used for home economics.

TABLE 12
 LENGTH OF PERIODS FOR HOME ECONOMICS COURSES
 1938-39*

Grades	Percentage of Periods of Different Lengths			
	Less Than 50 Minutes	50 to 60 Minutes	80 to 90 Minutes	Others
Federally Reimbursed Programs				
Seven to eight	54 43	35 39	11 18
Nine to twelve			
Nonreimbursed Programs				
Seven to eight . . .	36 19	43 41	13 23	8 17
Nine to twelve . . .				

*Source: Home Economics in the Public High Schools.

The majority of the schools (54 per cent) that received reimbursement for grades below the ninth scheduled the home economics work for sixty minute periods. More than a third (36 per cent) of the seventh and eighth grades in nonreimbursed programs offered home economics for periods of less than fifty minutes; 43 per cent for periods of fifty to sixty minutes; 13 per cent for periods eighty to ninety minutes; and 8 per cent for some combination of different length periods.

The most frequent length of period in grades nine through twelve for both reimbursed and nonreimbursed programs was sixty minutes, occurring in 43 per cent of the reimbursed

and 41 per cent of the nonreimbursed classes. The next most frequent length of period was eighty to ninety minutes, occurring in 39 per cent of the reimbursed and in 23 per cent of the nonreimbursed classes. Nineteen per cent of the nonreimbursed programs in grades nine through twelve scheduled periods of less than fifty minutes in length, and 18 and 17 per cent of the reimbursed and nonreimbursed programs, respectively, scheduled combinations of the different lengths of periods during the week, usually some single and some double periods.

TABLE 13
TIME ALLOTMENT PER WEEK FOR HOME ECONOMICS
1938-39*

Periods Per Week	All Classes	Classes in Home Economics			
		Reimbursed		Nonreimbursed	
		No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.
One to two	3,082	3,082	16
Three to four.	2,531	2,531	13
Five	14,783	5,102	48	9,681	50
Six to nine.	1,510	505	44	1,005	5
Ten.	7,854	4,915	48	2,938	16

*Source: Home Economics in the Public Schools.

Table 13 shows that five periods a week was the most frequent practice in 1938-39, with 14,783 classes having been so scheduled. Ten periods a week was the next most frequent with 7,854 classes pursuing this practice. The other less frequent numbers of periods a week are: one to two periods, 3,082; three to four periods, 2,531 classes; and six to nine, 1,510 classes.

The time allotment in reimbursed and nonreimbursed schools in terms of the number of periods per week is particularly interesting. None of the reimbursed schools scheduled classes for less than one period daily. Practically equal numbers of the reimbursed classes were scheduled for five and ten periods per week. In the nonreimbursed schools, 29 per cent were scheduled for less than one period daily; 50 per cent, for five periods a week, 5 per cent, for between five and ten periods a week; and 16 per cent, for a double period daily or ten periods a week.

Teaching Procedures

Since the passage of the national vocational laws, home projects have been stressed as a means of obtaining closer correlation between home and school activities. Work in all home economics classes is based on the interests of the students. In both foods and clothing classes, visual education is used where moving-picture machines and lanterns are available. Today there are many sources from which excellent films and slides may be obtained. In larger communities field trips are taken to places of interest that have a definite relation to the work being studied. Art institutes, city markets, department stores, commercial exhibits, and manufacturing concerns are a few of the places visited.

The foods work is built around the three meals of the day. No longer is food prepared in small quantities, but in family size amounts. Classes are very often divided into

small working groups, each group assuming its share of planning, marketing, preparing, serving, and computing the cost of the meal. Instead of the demonstration method in teaching cooking, there is now active participation by each girl since the laboratories are now more adequately equipped.

In the clothing classes models and samples are no longer made, because the girl learns the fundamental stitches as she makes a garment. Likewise, garments are not made which the girl does not need or want. Fine hand sewing is not stressed as much as formerly. Study of textiles is done from a scientific viewpoint by using microscope and chemical tests.

Considering the methods used twenty-five to thirty years ago it is remarkable that such rapid progress has been made in the teaching procedures. Present day methods should make for greater pupil interest.

Equipment

Most of the foods and clothing rooms are either located on the ground floor, however, with full windows above the ground, or on the first floor above the ground level. This gives easy access to delivery-men and to the removal of refuse and trash. There are a few schools that have practice houses where more extensive home practices are taught.

In 1940 the approximate cost of an adequately, but not elaborately, equipped foods laboratory was \$2,000 and a

clothing room \$1,500. This does not include dining room furniture or laundry equipment.¹¹

The unit type of kitchen equipment replaced the hollow-square formation of stoves and working areas. It is very satisfactory as it provides for groups of four working together. The first and probably most widely used unit type of equipment is that consisting of a large table equipped with drawers and cabinet space underneath, and swinging stools at each corner. Full sized stoves, either gas or electric, are placed at one of the short sides of the table. At the opposite end is the sink. In addition, for the use of all students, is such equipment as a dryer for dish cloths and towels, cupboards, supply table, closet for canned goods and extra supplies, iron and ironing board, laundry tubs, and either an ice or electric refrigerator. Generally there is a dining room adjacent to the foods laboratory or a dinette set in one corner of the room.

In the newer schools the kitchen is divided into units more nearly resembling a modern kitchen. The working area is rectangular shaped with the long side opening into the center of the room. In each unit are the cupboards, a stove, and equipment for four girls. One of the delightful features of these new laboratories is the use of colors selected so that the room will resemble a home kitchen, which gives a bright and

¹¹Statement by Mr. Walter G. Gingery, principal of George Washington High School, Indianapolis, Indiana.

cheerful effect. Very often there is a separate laundry room with all modern equipment, and a little reception room immediately off the hall which in turn opens into the dining room.

In the clothing laboratories large tables are used that are equipped with drawers for storage, but leaving a space at the corners for chairs. Rooms also have cabinets for garments; one sewing machine, either foot-power or electric, to every four or five girls; a large mirror; a fitting-room; iron and ironing board; a cutting table; and a lavatory.

The equipment listed below is recommended by the Indiana State Department of Public Instruction:¹²

1. Department as a whole:
 - a. Above the basement, or with full windows above ground
 - b. Arranged and equipped to take care of all phases of a homemaking course
 - c. Rooms (if more than one) adjoining
 - d. Adequate size to accommodate classes
 - e. Adequate provision for light, heat, ventilation
 - f. Efficient storage facilities for food supplies, utensils, dishes, linen, silver, books, magazines, illustrative materials, aprons, sewing equipment, garments
 - g. Home-like atmosphere---curtains that diffuse light, use of color, pictures, furniture or articles arranged to make a center of interest
 - h. Provision for sanitation and cleanliness

¹²Junior and Senior High School Home Economics, pp. 271-274. Indiana State Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin No. 123. Indianapolis: Wm. B. Burford Co., 1938.

- i. Filing cabinet
- j. Teacher's desk and chair
2. Illustrative material:
 - a. Pictures, vases, candlesticks, bowls, linen, china, interesting pieces of pottery and textiles
 - b. Materials for teaching color, including colored fabrics
 - c. Illustration showing clothing construction processes actually worked out in suitable materials
 - d. Charts, diagrams, pictures for various subjects
3. Library:
 - a. Current magazines covering health and home nursing, child development, food, clothing, home furnishings, home management, home and social relations
 - b. Up-to-date reference books for each subject taught
 - c. Adequate shelf space for books and magazines placed in the department
 - d. Bulletins, pamphlets, clippings efficiently filed
4. Facilities and equipment for clothing:
 - a. Adequate table space, proper height, comfortable
 - b. Comfortable, non-folding chairs
 - c. Machine for each five pupils
 - d. Full length mirror, fitting room or fitting space with screen
 - e. Iron, ironing board, ironing board covers, pressing cloths
 - f. Blackboard, bulletin board

- g. Shears, yard sticks, wrapping paper
- 5. Facilities for home nursing:
 - a. Adequate facilities for teaching the principles of home nursing (bed and bedding, sick room appliances, first aid equipment)
- 6. Facilities and equipment for foods:
 - a. Arrangement of equipment and supplies to facilitate good management, and to stimulate home working conditions
 - b. General equipment for 24 girls
 - c. For meal service:
 - 1 dining table and chairs
 - Plated silver for six
 - Dishes and glassware for six
 - Water pitcher
 - Salt and pepper shaker
 - Vegetable dishes and meat platter
 - Table linen for six
 - Serving tray
 - d. Unit equipment for each 4 girls -- A four-pupil desk or cabinet
 - 4 Stools
 - General equipment for 4 girls

Textbooks

Home economics textbooks have also changed with the expansion and development of the general program. In the first place there are many more, and secondly they are better written. The Indiana State Course of Study for 1938 contains a bibliography of ninety-four selected textbooks that are suitable for student use. Home economics books are now written for both younger and more mature girls. Previously, they were written for use by the teacher.

Entire books and chapters in books deal with such

topics as: textiles, clothing, color and design, history of design, sewing procedures, interior decoration, income management, foods, health, nutrition, dietetics, table service, personal hygiene, manners, family and community relationships, care of sick, consumer education, child care and development, and managing the home. Present-day texts are planned around the girl's needs, both present and future, in an effort to develop a girl who is cognizant of all the phases of homemaking.

The following list contains a few of the better known home economics books and their authors.

Economics of the Household, Benjamin R. Andrews

Meal Planning and Table Service, Beth Bailey

The Shopping Book, Lydia R. Balderston

Modern Clothing, Laura Baxter and A. Latzke

Girls and Their Problems, Millicent M. Cost

Living Together in the Family, Lemo T. Dennis

Spending the Family Income, Agnes S. Donham

Mode in Dress and Home, Dulcie G. Donovan

Care and Guidance of Children, Helen C. Goodspeed
and Emma Johnson

Art in Everyday Life, Harriet and Vetta Goldstein

Your Home and Family, Mildred Graves and Marjorie
M. Ott

Foods and Homemaking, Carlotta C. Greer

The Family and Its Relationships, E. R. Groves,
Edna L. Skinner, and Saide J. Swenson

Textile Fibers and Their Use, Katherine P. Hess

- Good Manners for Girls, Inez Haynes Irwin
- Home Living, Margaret M. Justin and Lucile Rust
- Junior Home Problems, Kate W. Kenyon and
Thomas L. Hopkins
- Fundamentals of Personal Hygiene, W. W. Krueger
- Hygiene and Home Nursing, Louisa C. Lippitt
- The House and Its Care, Mary Lockwood Matthews
- Clothing Selection and Care, Mary Lockwood Matthews
- Interior Decoration, Frank A. Parsons
- The Child, Florence Brown Sherbon
- Art in Home and Clothing, Mabel B. Trilling and
Florence Williams
- Dietetics of High Schools, Florence Willard and
Lucy H. Gillett
- Managing the Home, Mildred W. Wood, Ruth Lindquist,
Lucy Studley
- Making Homes, Hazel Shultz
- When You Buy, Mabel Trilling, E. K. Eberhart, and
Florence Nicholas
- Foods--Their Nutritive, Economic and Social Values,
Florence L. Harris and Ruth A. Henderson
- Everyday Foods, Jessie W. Harris and Elizabeth Speer
- Dress Design and Selection, Marguerite S. Hopkins

Very few of the books combine the studies of clothing and foods. As a rule the books are divided into units with questions and problems outlined at the end of each unit. Work books, which accompany some of the texts, afford an excellent means of providing problems for home and class room study. In

the last fifteen years home economics textbooks have been greatly improved.

Home Economics for Negroes

Home economics education for negroes showed a marked improvement after the enactment of the Smith-Hughes Law. By 1920 there was a noticeable change for the better in teachers, public sentiment, and equipment, which resulted in many more schools offering the work to negro children.

The latest available information was obtained from "Vocational Education in Home Economics" published by the Bureau of Education in 1930. It refers only to the vocational high schools reimbursed by the federal government. Within the twelve year period from 1918 to 1930 there was much better work offered and accepted in institutions for training negro teachers of vocational schools in home economics, and, likewise, improvement in the day schools for negroes. This was shown in (a) raising of the standard and quality of instruction; (b) a decided increase in the extent to which the work in home economics is functioning in the individual and home lives of the students; (c) an acceptance on the part of administrators of the importance of vocational education in home economics in these school programs; (d) improvements made in plant and equipment; (e) the raising of qualifications of vocational teachers of home economics (f) the increase in salary schedule for these same teachers; (g) the development of a better appreciation on the part of administrators of these schools and of

teacher-training institutions as to the service that can be rendered to those programs by the state supervisors of home economics.¹³

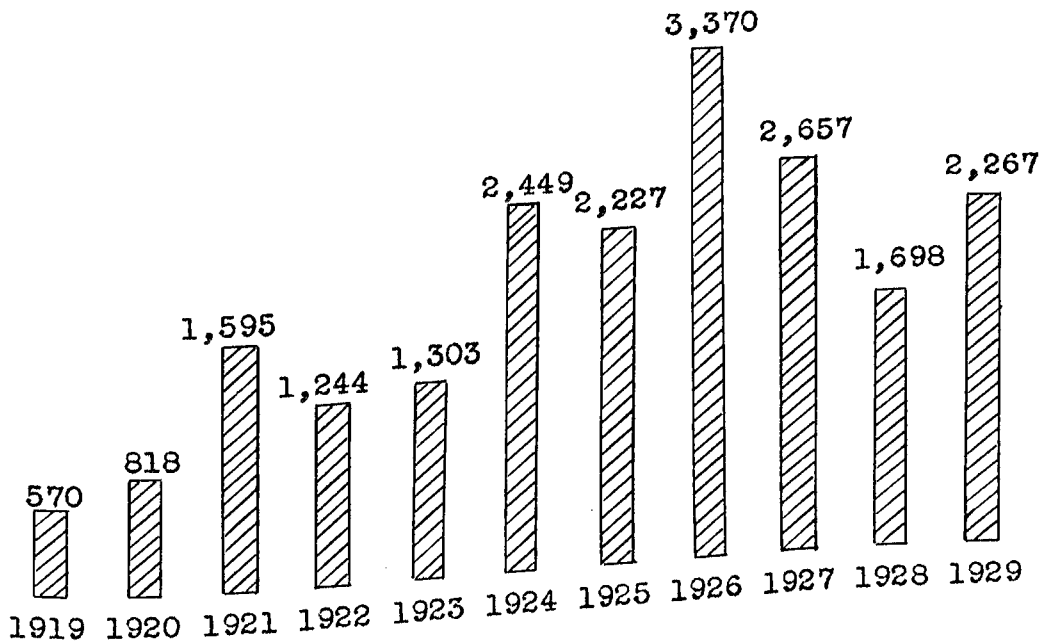


Fig. 5.--Enrollment of negroes in federally aided schools, from 1919 to 1929.*

*Source: Vocational Education in Home Economics

The above chart shows that enrollment of negroes in home economics classes increased materially after the passage of the Smith-Hughes Law in 1922. It will be noted that in some years there was a decrease instead of an increase. This is accounted for by the fact that some of the state legislatures did not make as large appropriations as in previous years. In some states also there was a tendency to use all the federal

¹³Vocational Education in Home Economics, op. cit.,
p. 67.

funds for the evening-school program and the state funds for only the all-day program.

Since increase in enrollment does not give a complete picture of the development of home economics in negro schools, certain features that were outstanding in 1929 need special mention:¹⁴

1. In institutions providing for the training of vocational teachers of home economics in negro school buildings were remodeled and new ones erected. The curriculum in every institution included at least one course in child care, and in some provision was made for contact with children in kindergartens in a demonstration school.
2. In 1917 only one of these institutions had a home-management house. In 1929 there were nine, and four had plans for the building of such houses.
3. In 1917 all student teaching was conducted in the elementary and secondary schools of the teacher training institutions. In these institutions secondary education for the negroes of the community was provided but was a part of the public school system. Student teaching was also conducted in local or nearby rural schools.
4. Conferences under the direction of the state supervisor of home economics were held in six states in 1929 for negro vocational teachers of home economics.
5. Before 1917 there were no itinerant training teachers, while in 1929 there were fourteen.
6. In eight states in 1929 special summer courses for improvement of negro home economics teachers in service were given at the approved teacher training institutions.

¹⁴Ibid., pp. 68-70.

Growth of Home Economics

Growth of home economics was very marked after the Smith-Hughes Law was passed in 1917. The rate of expansion in vocational schools may be seen by the following table.

TABLE 14
GROWTH OF HOME ECONOMICS IN VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS*

Year	Number of Vocational Schools	Teachers	Enrollment
1918	200	398	8,439
1929	1,011	1,487	41,089

*Source: Vocational Education in Home Economics (1930).

The increase in the number of vocational schools in the first twelve years was 811, or more than 400 per cent; in the number of teachers employed, 1,089, or 273 per cent; and in the number of pupils enrolled, 32,650, or 386 per cent. Because of the success of the vocational program in home economics and the small amount of federal funds available, many states inaugurated programs supported entirely from state and local funds. Enrollments in such schools increased approximately 425 per cent from 1924 to 1925.¹⁵

Figures for the total enrollment in home economics

¹⁵Vocational Education in Home Economics, op. cit., p. 24.

classes for the years 1922, 1928, and 1934 were secured from the Biennial Survey of Education, and for 1938-39 from a recent bulletin published by the United States Office of Education, entitled, "Home Economics in the Public High Schools." The figures for 1938-39 are not complete as only 14,121 usable returns were received from the questionnaire which was sent by the government to 26,534 schools. However, the percentage of schools answering was high enough to make the survey reasonably accurate.

TABLE 15
HOME ECONOMICS ENROLLMENT IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS
1922-1939*

Year	Enrollment in Home Economics	Percentage of Total Enrollment
1922	307,553	14.27
1928	477,443	16.48
1934	751,807	16.72
1939	1,135,040	21.09

*Source: Home Economics in the Public High Schools

Table 15 shows that there has been a gradual but steady increase in the percentage of the number of girls enrolled in home economics. Table 8 in Chapter IV gives the corresponding figures for 1910 and 1915. Since 1910 there has been an increase in enrollment of 1,107,107, and in percentage of total enrollment 17.31.

Table 15 does not indicate the extent to which girls

were enrolled in home economics classes in schools offering this subject. In the 14,121 schools mentioned previously, there were 2,333,412 girls enrolled. The foregoing table shows that in these schools 1,135,040 girls were studying home economics. In other words 49 per cent of the girls enrolled in home economics education in the schools that taught the subject.

Home economics was widely available to high school pupils in 1938-39. Nearly three-fourths (72 per cent) of the junior and senior high schools offered the subject. These schools embraced 88 per cent of the total enrollment, which would mean that home economics courses are now available to almost nine-tenths of the high school pupils in the United States.¹⁶

Enrollment of boys in home economics classes shows a corresponding growth, but they compromise only about one per cent of all boys registered in high school.

TABLE 16

BOYS ENROLLED IN HOME ECONOMICS
1922-1938

1922	2,572
1924	7,017
1938	28,889

Although traditionally home economics has been considered a subject for girls it would seem that this concept is

¹⁶Home economics in the Public High Schools, op. cit., pp. 2 and 38.

changing, and that in some schools its value for all adolescents is being recognized. Many of the larger city schools, as New York, Chicago, St. Louis, Los Angeles, Louisville, Indianapolis, and Denver now have foods classes for boys.

Relation Between Size of Community and Home Economics

Community designations such as "urban" and "rural," used in referring to the size of community follow the classification of the United States Census. "Urban" is applied to communities of 2,500 population or more, and "rural" to communities of less than 2,500. Rural is subdivided into "villages" and "open country."

The size of the community in which schools are located has a definite influence on the number of schools offering home economics. Figure 4 shows that in 1939, 90 per cent of the schools in urban centers offered home economics in contrast to 65 per cent and 57 per cent in the open country.¹⁷

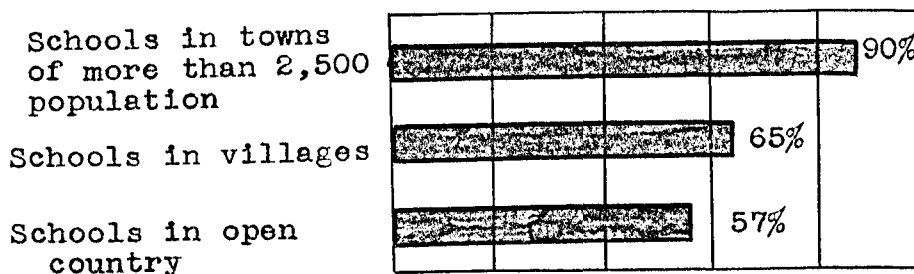


Fig. 6.--Per cent of schools in the different sizes of communities that offered home economics.*

*Source: Home Economics in the Public High Schools

¹⁷Home Economics in the Public High Schools, op. cit., pp. 24-25.

Statistics for rural communities indicate that there is a tendency for schools with fewer than fifty pupils not to offer home economics.¹⁸ This is understandable when one realizes the difficulties in the development of such instruction. These small schools do not have the room, equipment, money, or teachers that larger school systems have.

Summary

The passage of national legislation and the reorganization of home economics around the "Seven Cardinal Principles of Education" greatly influenced the course of study. Standards were raised, and there was a more definite purpose to the work offered. These years are not only characterized by rapid growth of the home economics movement, but also by better organization of the work, and more uniformity of teaching procedures. Objectives were more clearly stated, and courses of study showed that emphasis was placed on the relationship of the girl to her home and community. New units were added so that students would have a well-rounded course in homemaking. Manipulative work became secondary. In general, reimbursed or vocational schools allotted more time to all phases of the home economics work than did the nonreimbursed schools.

The tendency has been to place home economics farther along in the curriculum. Today it usually begins in the seventh grade, is most frequently taught in the ninth, and with each

¹⁸Ibid., pp. 3-4.

succeeding grade fewer girls enroll. Girls in vocational home economics must devote one-half of the day to this work. Daily periods of sixty minutes is the most frequent time allotment.

Today's laboratories are built so that units of four girls work together. The newer kitchens are no longer dark and gloomy but are built to resemble modern kitchens. Laboratory work in foods is centered around the three meals, and in clothing only garments actually needed are made. Applied science and art are included in the teaching of both branches of the subject.

Along with improved quality of the work there has been a great improvement in the textbooks available to students. There are many more; they are better organized, and more clearly expressed, and more interesting.

Home economics for negroes has spread to many schools, and the type of instruction has improved greatly. The passage of the Smith-Hughes Law greatly benefited negro schools by making more money available.

In general it may be said that the last twenty years in the development of home economics are characterized by better organization of the work, unification of procedures, and a rapid growth in the number of classes as well as the number enrolled.

CHAPTER VI

TRENDS IN HOME ECONOMICS

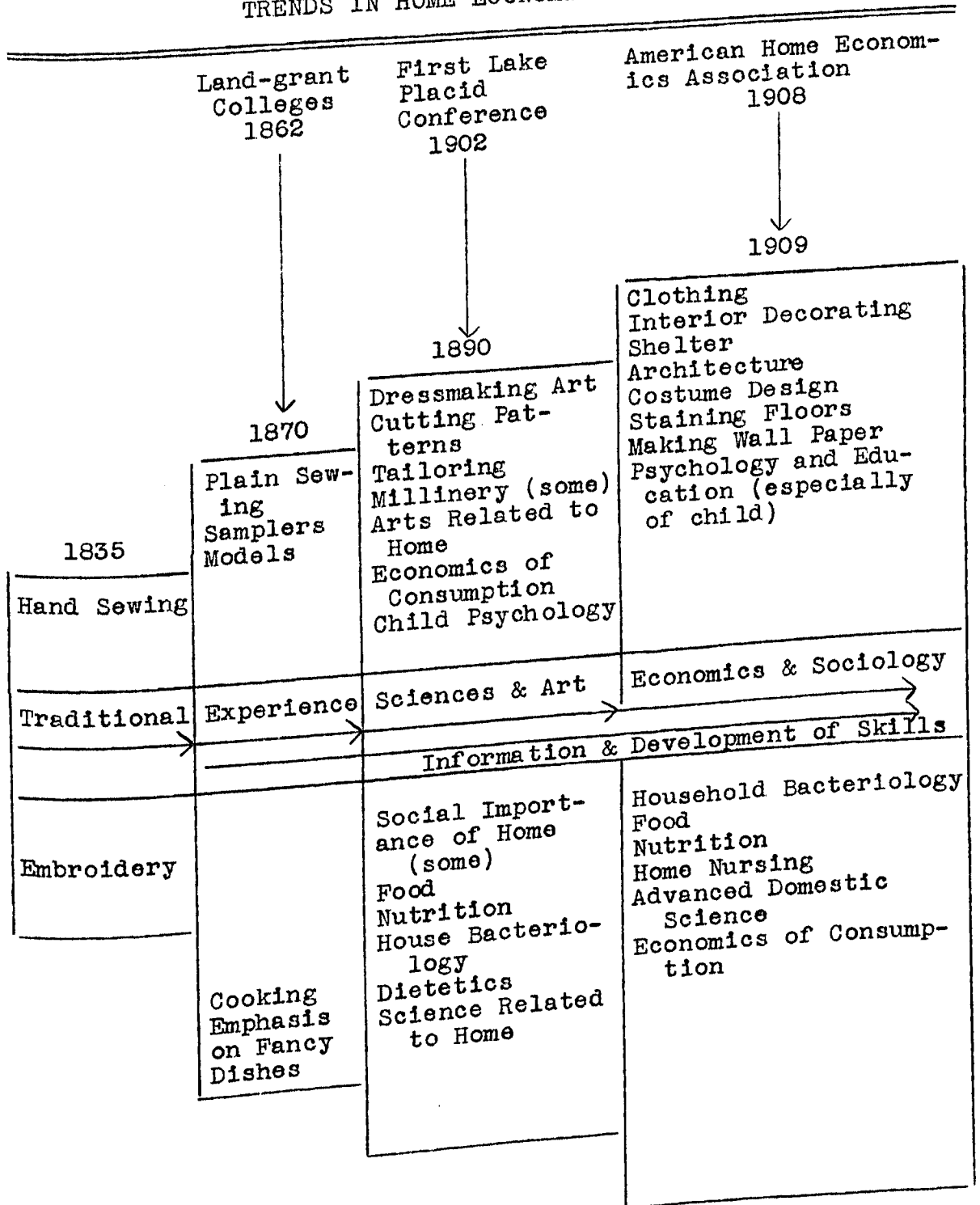
Trends in the development of home economics from 1835 to 1937 were summarized by a class at Colorado State College in 1937 under the supervision of Miss Lillian Peek.¹ A copy of the table is reproduced on pages 116 and 117. In the center of the table are the underlying basic principles around which courses have been planned. Immediately above this is given the content of clothing courses, and below, the content of foods courses. At the top of the page, indicated by arrows, are the main factors in the development of these trends. Underneath each division is a summarization of the outstanding changes and motives.

Trends in basic principles may be noted from the following six points which are also from the accompanying table.

1. Traditional practices
2. Actual experiences
3. Scientific and artistic principles
4. Economics and sociology
5. Philosophy and psychology
6. Consumer needs

¹Trends in Home Economics Education, Practical Home Economics, XVI (March, 1938), p. 106.

TABLE 17
TRENDS IN HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION *



*Source: Practical Home Economics, 1938, p. 106.

TABLE 17-Continued

Passage of Smith-Lever Act, 1914
 Passage of Smith-Hughes Act, 1917
 Child Labor Organizations
 George-Reed Act, 1929
 Child Development Centers

↓
 1917

1937 →

<p>Making Friends Personal Appearance Related Art Selection of School Clothing Selection and Construction of Garments Girl's Meals Children at Play Care and Repair of Clothing Entertainment of Friends Girl's Room Clothing Problems Livable Home Meals for Day Orientation of Girl into Home Social Group</p>	<p>A more Extensive Program of Education for Home & Family Living:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Upward to include youth, out-of-school and adults of both sexes Outward to take advantage of the contributions of other fields as they hold implications for more satisfying home and family life. Inward through unified studies as a means of solving significant problems and hastening the development of integrated personalities
<p>Philosophy & Psychology</p>	<p>Consumer Needs</p>
<p>Mental & Social Development</p>	<p>Democracy as a Way of Life</p>
<p>Living Together in Home Budgeting Home Management Consumer Problems Applying Art to Daily Living Housing the Family Food Preservation Food for the Family Child Guidance Planning for the Future Emphasizing Participation in Home and Family Group Encouraging Development of Ability to Use Personal & Family Resources Wisely Interest in Community Life</p>	<p>Education for Cooperation Which:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Recognizes the home as the unit of society which must take the lead in demanding goods and service to meet the needs for a satisfying home life for all families Encourages the selection, conservation and use of individual, family, and community resources for the good of society Demonstrates the interdependence of relationships which the individual should appreciate, which the home should foster, and which must permeate society if democracy is to survive

Factors which have had the greatest influence on trends are the establishment of land-grant colleges, the organization of the Lake Placid Conferences and the American Home Economics Association, and enactment of national legislation concerning vocational education. These factors have aided in placing home economics on an equal footing with other subjects in the curriculum.

Subject matter in both foods and clothing has been enriched by the addition of units of study so that courses have become well-rounded, rather than limited to the study of one phase of home economics. Family relationship is the basic principle around which courses are now built. Originally study of clothing was limited to actual sewing processes on miniature garments or models. Now personal appearance, related art principles, budgeting, buying, the social side of the girl's life, and garment construction are included. In foods the emphasis is on child care, dietetics, health, nutrition, family and community life, and consumer education.

There are certain present day trends which should be mentioned that are not included in Table 17. They may be summarized as follows:²

1. An increasing number of high schools are including home economics in the list of courses offered as evidenced by the fact that three-fourths of the junior and senior high schools in the United States were teaching it in 1938-39.

²Home Economics in the Public High Schools, op. cit., pp. 1-75.

2. More girls are taking home economics every year. This is proved by a government survey which showed that 70 per cent of the girls graduating in 1939 had taken home economics when it was offered by the schools.
3. An increasing number of boys are enrolled in home economics.
4. Home economics is included in nearly every school except when the enrollment is fifty or less.
5. As a rule, a larger per cent of schools reimbursed by federal funds offer well-rounded courses than do the nonreimbursed schools.
6. There is a tendency to push home economics further along in the grades due to the increasing complexity of the courses. The result is that it is seldom offered below the junior high school.
7. Enrollment in home economics shows a steady decline after the ninth year.
8. There is a trend towards the requiring of home economics in the seventh and eighth grades, but also towards its becoming an elective in subsequent years. For the country as a whole, 80 per cent of the seventh and eighth grades require that it be taken; in the ninth grade, 50 per cent; and in the tenth, approximately 40 per cent of the classes are required. In contrast, in the eleventh and twelfth grades over 60 per cent of the classes are elective.

From information that has been obtained from magazine articles and recent lectures, there is evidence that in the near future the pendulum is going to swing back to some degree to the acquisition of manipulative skills. Too many teachers have minimized the importance of this aspect of home economics in the last few years. This does not mean that units in child care, relationships, health and hygiene,

consumer education, home management, and the like will be eliminated. Since there is a definite satisfaction in accomplishment, these skills will always be important. Furthermore, parents judge the child's accomplishment and the school's ability by the articles made in clothing classes and the contribution that the child makes to the home in being able to help prepare meals at home.

At the annual meeting of the Indiana home economics teachers held in October, 1941, Mr. D. S. Morgan, Superintendent of Indianapolis Schools, said, "The objective in home economics should be to strive to develop the competence in young women in areas of work that women will have to do." Mr. Morgan further stated that in teaching girls to do well and efficiently everyday household tasks, the other phases would come as a natural consequence.

Judging by all indications, home economics can look forward to a future that is characterized by steady growth both in importance and in the numbers that will be benefited by this type of education. As the public and administrators of public education realize the implications of home economics instruction, there will surely be a time in the near future when all schools will include this subject in the courses offered, and perhaps, even make it a required subject.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Even though instruction in home economics is comparatively new in the curriculum, it is an accepted subject in the majority of schools in the United States. Along with this general acceptance, the teaching of home economics has made great progress since its introduction into the public schools of the nineteenth century and the experimental period of the early twentieth century. Likewise, there are comparable changes and advances for the years following the passage of national legislation affecting vocational education, which are referred to in this study as the period of organization. Since education is never stationary, but constantly changing, home economics, like other subjects, will probably always remain in a state of organization and reorganization.

Several factors were responsible for the establishment of home economics in the public school system. This was followed by state and national legislation which made provisions for financing the courses, and setting up regulations for minimum requirements. With home economics assured, the first courses of study containing only sewing and cooking were reorganized around home problems, based on the needs of the

girl, family life, and social and civic problems as related to the home and community. Recipe cooking and isolated principles have been replaced by foods and nutrition, as applied to meal preparation and family needs. Sewing has been replaced by clothing and textiles as related to everyday needs, which includes a study of selection, cost, upkeep, and construction. The field today has a much broader scope in that there are many more areas included in the study of home economics.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study has been to show the development of home economics from its inception up to the present time. The following is a resume of the findings that answer the questions given in Chapter I.

1. Where and when was the first public school class in home economics?

Boston, Massachusetts has the distinction of being the first to teach cooking and sewing in the public schools. Sewing was started in 1835, and cooking in 1885. At first the cost was maintained by agencies outside the school, but in 1873 the city took over this responsibility for the sewing classes, and in 1885 for the cooking classes.

2. What were the factors that led to the establishment of home economics in the public schools?

Among the pioneers of the home economics movement were the philanthropic organizations and public spirited citizens who realized that the type of education available in the nineteenth century was too limited, that the poor should be taught

how to improve their home conditions, and that mothers were not capable of adequately teaching their daughters the traditional work of a housewife. Likewise, social and economic conditions brought on by the industrial era made it necessary for the schools to assume a greater responsibility in preparing the girls and boys for adulthood, which meant an expansion of the curriculum to include many new subjects. The manual training movement that provided boys with a practical education paved the way for the introduction of domestic science for girls.

The dame school of New England, which was not a public school, but a school conducted by an older woman for a small fee, was the first to include limited instruction in the rudiments of sewing. This in time led teachers to add a similar type of work in the primary grades.

Several other factors were important in aiding the home economics movement. The most important of these were the kitchen-garden movement, the public and private cooking schools, the Philadelphia Centennial of 1876, and the Chicago World's Fair of 1893. They helped to make the public more receptive to new ideas, and showed the value of educating women in fields of activity relative to the home.

The work of the early scientists helped to give a scientific basis to the cooking instruction. Likewise, they urged the schools to devote more time to home practices. Catherine E. Beecher contributed immeasurably by giving lectures, writing pamphlets, and publishing her book entitled Treatise on Domestic

Economy, which was the first book dealing with the aspects of home management. Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, who is referred to as the founder of home economics, was one of the first women of modern times who devoted her life to the study of home economics.

The founding of land-grant colleges in the west encouraged the establishment of similar schools throughout the nation. They also raised the standards of instruction in public schools and guided the way to the establishment of courses in many localities. The rapid growth of secondary schools at the beginning of the twentieth century greatly aided the introduction of home economics. As many more girls were enrolled in schools, there was a demand for a type of education closely allied to everyday life. The American Home Economics Association, founded early in the twentieth century, has always been a determining factor because of the assistance it has given the classroom teacher, and because of its extensive research work.

In studying the factors that have been important in the development of home economics it is impossible to say which has contributed the most. It is also impossible to make a dividing line between early and later factors. All have been important, each one dependent on the other, and each following in logical order.

3. Who were the leaders in the early development of home economics?

Miss Catherine E. Beecher is considered the pioneer of

the home economics movement through her efforts to have "domestic economy" introduced into the schools. Her book Treatise on Domestic Economy is considered a classic as it was the first home economics textbook and contains so much wisdom that is just as valid today as in 1841.

Other early leaders are: Miss Emily Huntington who started the kitchen-garden school, Count Rumford, a world famous physicist, and Dr. Edward L. Youman, a chemist. Among the teachers who had charge of establishing home economics in the land-grant colleges, two names are significant: Mrs. Nellie Kedze Jones of Kansas State Agricultural College and Miss Isabel Bevier of Illinois University. These women worked for many years to improve the status of home education and to help their communities establish programs of home economics.

Mrs. Ellen H. Richards, who is considered the founder of home economics, taught at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology as a sanitary engineer, and was always interested in the scientific aspects of home improvements. She was one of the founders of the American Home Economics Association and for many years directed its activities as its president.

4. What effect did the Smith-Lever, Smith-Hughes, and George-Reed Acts have on the development of home economics?

The Smith-Lever Act of 1914 is important because it was the first national legislation that appropriated funds for home economics education. This money was not available for classroom work but had to be used for extension work by the state colleges. This law paved the way for future legislation.

The Smith-Hughes Law, passed in 1917, made it possible for many more schools to teach home economics because the government allotted money to schools that met certain requirements. This act also raised the standards of work by requiring the schools to follow regulations set out in the law. The George-Reed Act of 1929 was an outgrowth of the previous law and made more definite provisions and appropriations for vocational home economics.

5. What was taught in the first home economics courses?

The subject matter of the early classes was very elementary. Sewing instruction consisted of making samplers, models, and miniature garments so that fundamental stitches would be learned. Cooking consisted of preparing small sized portions of food, and fancy dishes that had little relation to actual life situations.

In a few years, home management was added although the emphasis was still placed on cooking and sewing. Application of scientific principles to food preparation meant that the work in the cooking classes was enlarged to include the study of carbohydrates, protein, fats, and starches. Planning of meals became the basis for the cooking lessons.

Millinery work and textile study were added to the sewing classes. As soon as sewing machines came into general usage, fine hand sewing was not stressed as much as it had been in the beginning.

6. What subjects are now included in the home economics curriculum?

The principal courses now offered in the home economics departments are still foods and clothing. However, many new units have been added to the subject matter. Typical units, in addition to the above, are: textiles, dressmaking, tailoring, costume design, history of costume, related art, consumer education, care of home, home furnishing, home management, nutrition and dietetics, home nursing and hygiene, meal preparation and meal service, child care, and family relationships.

7. How does the time allotment and grade placement of today compare with that of the early days?

At first home economics began in the fourth grade, with one sixty or ninety minute period a week devoted to laboratory practice. Gradually this lengthened to two or four double periods a week. Today the most common practice is to begin home economics in the seventh grade, continuing it through the twelfth, and meeting for sixty minutes daily.

8. What was the nature of the subject matter of the first textbooks?

The first home economics textbooks were written for use by the instructor and consisted mainly of a compilation of recipes. For the most part they were poorly written and showed that the authors had little knowledge of the subject. Books dealing with clothing were first written early in the twentieth century and had chapters concerning textiles, sewing procedures, history of costume, care of clothing, and millinery.

9. What is the nature of the subject matter of the modern textbooks?

Many textbooks are now available for both students and

teachers. There are books on foods, clothing, home management, health and hygiene, budgeting, consumer education, child care, interior decoration, color and design, history of design, nutrition, dietetics, table service, and family relationships. Many books deal with several phases of the above, although foods and clothing study are seldom combined in the same book. Questions at the end of the chapter facilitate the understanding of the material, and work books often accompany the texts. Illustrations are generally well worked out, and the books are written for the different age levels.

10. How have the classrooms changed since the early days?

The first laboratories were housed in unused rooms in the basement, and were often dark and poorly ventilated. In many instances sewing instruction was given in a regular classroom. Inadequate cooking facilities resulted in the use of the "demonstration method," which meant that the girls watched the teacher prepare some recipe.

The first cooking equipment was the hollow square type. Stoves and working areas were arranged in a square with a supply table in the center. However, the latest type of equipment consists of units providing for four girls working together. In each unit there is everything that the group needs. Rooms now resemble a modern home kitchen. Most laboratories have a dining room or dinette equipment in the kitchen in order to serve meals. Additional equipment includes storage space, refrigerator, laundry equipment, and table service.

Clothing rooms are characterized by large tables that provide a working space and drawers for equipment, electric and foot-power sewing machines, iron and ironing board, large mirror, fitting-room, and a lavatory. Some schools have a cottage where classes are held and where more extensive household practices are taught.

11. When was home economics first taught in each state?

Table 4, chapter IV, shows when forty states introduced home economics. (See page 46). From this table one is able to see that in certain sections of the country home economics was offered much earlier than in others.

The New England and midwest states were first to teach home economics. These regions offered some form of cooking and sewing in the late nineteenth century. The southern and far western states followed in the early part of the twentieth century. It should be noted that Georgia and California are the exceptions to this, since they belong to the former group by introducing home economics in 1895 and 1884 respectively.

12. What is the extent to which home economics is offered today?

It is impossible to tell the exact number of schools teaching home economics today because neither can the states give absolutely accurate information, nor was the United States Office of Education able to get answers from every school in regard to a recent questionnaire. The results obtained by the author relative to this question were discarded

in favor of the statistics obtained from a government survey conducted in 1938, 1939, and 1940.

These figures, which include both vocational and non-vocational schools, indicate that 72 per cent of the junior and senior high schools in the United States were teaching home economics in 1938-39. However, 90 per cent of the girls and 1 per cent of the boys graduating in 1941 had taken some form of home economics work while enrolled in the secondary schools. Schools with an enrollment of less than fifty seldom offered home economics.

13. What are the trends in the home economics movement today?

Trends in home economics today are towards well-rounded courses involving all the aspects of homemaking, with growing emphasis on consumer education. The core-curriculum of home economics is still the study of family relationships. That home economics is a growing subject is evidenced by the fact that more schools are teaching it every year, and that more boys and girls are enrolled in it annually. Vocational schools, as a rule, offer courses that are more well-rounded than do the nonvocational schools. There is a tendency for home economics to be placed in later grades in the curriculum, although enrollment shows a steady decline after the ninth year.

Recommendations

Since the material concerning the history of the home economics movement is very scattered, and since many states and cities know very little about early practices in their

communities, a valuable contribution to the educational field would be studies of the development of home economics for the various states, counties, and cities. This should prove interesting and worthwhile to those who are interested in the historical aspects of education.

Investigations should also be made that will aid in determining the relative merits of current practices. This study indicates the most frequent practices in time allotment, grade placement, and content of courses. Research work needs to be done that will determine whether or not the existing situations are adequately controlled and fulfilled. Perhaps the practices in vogue today are not the most efficient and best suited to the needs of the child.

Despite the availability of home economics instruction to a large proportion of pupils in the high schools of the country, the question may well be raised as to whether the need for such instruction is adequately met. Approximately one-fourth of the junior and senior high schools do not offer home economics. Should they offer it? The answer to the question, of course, depends in part upon the philosophy of education held. If it is believed that the high schools should assist pupils in solving problems of daily living, then the program of instruction should be organized so that there is opportunity for studying the aspects of home and family living with which practically all pupils are concerned. This does not necessarily mean that home economics should be offered. Since, however, home economics education deals predominantly

with such problems, the practicability of extending it to all high schools may well be considered. If home economics is to be extended to schools where it is not now available, school administrators in various sized communities will need to see the value of making provision for it and to discover ways of providing instruction in this field. Since the expense of equipping a department is one reason that the smaller communities do not offer home economics, school administrators should welcome information relative to minimum requirements for and equipment needed.

With the increase in the number of boys who are enrolling in home economics classes, it is highly desirable that studies be made to determine to what extent experiences similar to those girls have in home economics are adapted to boys, and the modifications which need to be made to make such instruction of maximum value to boys. Likewise, studies need to be made to determine the relative merits of the practices of teaching home economics to boys of varying ages in classes with girls, in segregated groups, or with a schedule so planned that each sex may have classroom experiences in separate groups and others in mixed groups.

The fact that vocational schools maintain higher requirements and teach more of every phase of home economics than the nonvocational schools, indicates that the latter should study carefully its program in order to see if it would be possible to raise its requirements. Research work dealing with

a comparison of these two types of schools would be of value to both administrators and teachers.

Thus, it is to be hoped that with what has been done in both practice and research the field of home economics will show continued growth and improvement.

APPENDIX

Letter sent to State Superintendents of Public Instruction

Dear Mr. _____:

I am writing a master's thesis on the "History of Home Economics in the Public Schools of the United States". It is necessary for me to seek the aid of the State Superintendents of Public Instruction as neither the United States Office of Education nor the American Home Economics Association could give me the desired information.

1. In what year was home economics first taught in the public schools of _____?
2. In what year was home economics legalized by law in _____?
3. How many elementary and secondary schools in _____ are now teaching vocational and non-vocational home economics? _____

Any information that you wish to add may be written on the back of this letter. I would greatly appreciate your cooperation, and will be glad to send you results of my study that might interest you. Thank you for your time and trouble that the above has entailed.

Yours truly,

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Abel, Mary. "Mrs. Richards and the Home Economics Movement," Journal of Home Economics, III (October, 1911), pp. 342-348.
- Andrews, Benjamin R. "Home Economics Education in the United States," School and Society, L (December 30, 1930), pp. 841-847.
- Andrews, Benjamin R. "Miss Catherine E. Beecher, The Pioneer in Home Economics," Journal of Home Economics, IV (June, 1912), pp. 211-222.
- Baylor, A. S. "Seventeen Years of Home Economics," School Life, XXI (December, 1935), pp. 98-99.
- Beecher, Catherine E. Domestic Economy. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1854 (revised).
- Bevier, Isabel. "Development of Home Economics," Journal of Home Economics, IX (January, 1917), pp. 1-7.
- Bevier, Isabel. Home Economics in Education. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1924.
- Bevier, Isabel, and Usher, Susannah. The Home Economics Movement. Boston: Whitcomb and Barrows, 1906. Pp. 67.
- Biennial Survey of Education 1926-1928. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 16. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1930. P. 967.
- Bowman, Leona Florence. Problems in Home Economics. Chicago, Illinois: The University of Chicago Press, 1925. P. 18.
- Brown, T. E. "Development of Home Economics Education in North Carolina," Journal of Home Economics, XIX (October, 1927), pp. 581-582.
- Calvin, Henrietta W. "Home Economics Education," Biennial Survey of Education 1921-1922, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 13, Vol. I. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1924. Pp. 369-401.

- Calvin, Henrietta, and Lyford, Carrie Alberta. "Home Economics," Biennial Survey of Education 1916-1918, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 88, Vol. I. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1921. Pp. 355-390.
- Calvin, Henrietta W. "The Development of Home Economics in the Philadelphia Public Schools," Practical Home Economics, XIII (March, 1935), pp. 68 and 84.
- Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 35. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1918. Pp. 32-33.
- Cauley, Mary W. "History of the Teaching of Sewing in the Boston Schools." Report prepared for the Household Science and Arts teachers of Boston in 1935.
- Compton's Pictured Encyclopedia. "Home Economics," Vol. VI (1941), pp. 325-329.
- "Cooking in the Public Schools," The Outlook, LXIII (September 30, 1899), pp. 281-282.
- Cooley, Anna M. "Selection of Domestic Art Subject Matter for Secondary Schools," Journal of Home Economics, I (February, 1909), pp. 52-61.
- Cooley, Anna M., et al. Teaching Home Economics. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919.
- Cubberley, Ellwood P. Public Education in the United States. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919. Pp. xviii and 782.
- "Dates and Events in the History of Home Economics Movement," Journal of Home Economics, III (October, 1911), pp. 336-341.
- "Domestic Science in New York City Schools," Journal of Home Economics, I (February, 1909), pp. 77-80.
- "Domestic Science in Texas," Journal of Home Economics, II (February, 1910), p. 108.
- Eby, Frederick. Development of Education in Texas. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925. Pp. xv and 354.
- Education for the Home. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 37. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1914. Pp. 13-14.

Encyclopedia Americana. Vol. XIV, 1938, pp. 333-334.

Fenney, Ross L. A Brief History of the American Public School. New York: Macmillan Co., 1925.

Flagy, Etta Proctor. "Home Economics in Los Angeles," Practical Home Economics, XII (December, 1934), pp. 352-353.

Good, Carter V. "The High School Curriculum in Home Economics," Journal of Home Economics, XIX (December, 1927), pp. 686-690.

Goodspeed, Helen C. "Home Economics Education for a Large City High School," Journal of Home Economics, XXIV (May, 1932), pp. 422-427.

Goodspeed, Helen C. "Recent Developments in Home Economics in Philadelphia," Journal of Home Economics, XXX (May, 1938), pp. 326-327.

Hailman, Eudora L. "The Principles and Methods of Educating Our Girls for Motherhood," National Education Association Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1889. Topeka: Kansas Publishing House, 1889, pp. 455-473.

Hanna, Agnes K. "Standards for High School Textbooks in Home Economics," Journal of Home Economics, VIII (July, 1916), pp. 349-352.

"History of Home Making in Washington Public Schools," Practical Home Economics, XII (July, 1934), pp. 195-196.

"Home Economics in California," Journal of Home Economics, II (June, 1910), p. 337.

"Home Economics Conference," The Outlook, Vol. LXVIII (October 14, 1899), pp. 338-389.

"Home Economics in the Public High Schools, 1938-1939. United States of Education, Vocational Education Bulletin No. 213, Home Economics Series No. 24. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1941. P. 114.

Hussey, Anna E. "Home Economics in Kansas City Schools," Practical Home Economics, XV (June, 1937), pp. 200-201 and 221-222.

Indiana State Courses of Study, 1914-1915, 1915-1916, 1917-1918, 1929, 1931, 1938.

Indianapolis School Board Reports, 1892-1895.

- Industrial Education in Columbus, Georgia. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 25. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1919. Pp. 7-25.
- Inglis, Alexander. Principles of Secondary Education. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918, pp. 572-615.
- Jacobs, E. S. "Forty Years of Home Economics in the Public Schools of Washington, D. C.," XXII (November, 1930), pp. 903-906.
- Johnson, William H. "The Home Arts Laboratory in the Chicago High Schools," Journal of Home Economics, XXXI (January, 1939), pp. 106.
- Johnston, Charles Hughes, et al. Junior and Senior High School Administration. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1939. P. 77.
- Keen, Charlotte. "Home Economics in the Detroit Schools," Journal of Home Economics, VIII (September, 1916), pp. 479-487.
- Kent, Druzilla Crary. A Study of the Results of Planning for Home Economics Education in the Southern States. New York City: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1936. Pp. ix and 172.
- Kinne, Helen. "Vocational Value of Household Arts," National Education Association Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1910.
- "Lake Placid Conference on Home Economics," Journal of Home Economics, I (February, 1909), p. 4.
- Langworthy, C. F. "Home Economics in the United States for Men and Boys," Journal of Home Economics, V (June, 1912), pp. 239-248.
- Lengelfelter, Mary Rebecca, and Kitson, Harry Dexter. Vocations for Girls. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1939. Pp. 26-36.
- Lybarger, Elizabeth, and Pressey, Alice Donnelly. "Home Economics: 1914 and 1935," Journal of Home Economics, XXVIII (January, 1936), pp. 1-8.
- Miller, Ellen, and Gleitz, Florence M. "Home Economics at the Elementary Level," Journal of Home Economics, XXXIII (January, 1941), pp. 14-21.
- Miller, Ellen, and Lewis, Dora S. "Home Economics in the United States," Journal of Home Economics, XXXI (September, 1939), pp. 447-466.

- Mobley, Clyde Elizabeth. "A Study of the Development of Home Economics in Secondary Schools." Unpublished Master's thesis, Department of Education, George Peabody College, 1927. P. 100.
- Mobley, Clyde. "Home Economics Education in Louisiana," Practical Home Economics, XV (February, 1937), pp. 41-44.
- Monroe, Paul. Cyclopedia of Information. Vol. III. New York: Macmillan Co., 1912, pp. 318-332.
- Monroe, Paul. Cyclopedia of Information. Vol. II. New York: Macmillan Co., 1912, p. 353.
- Munhall, Grace C. "Home Economics in Pittsburgh Public Schools," Practical Home Economics, XVI (June, 1938), pp. 234-235.
- Newall, M. A. "Revision of the Common School Curriculum," National Education Association Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1881. Pp. 84-85.
- "News From the Field," Journal of Home Economics, IX (June, 1917), pp. 295-296.
- Noble, Stuart. A History of American Education. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1938.
- Phillips, Ethel L. "An Analysis of Textbooks in Clothing and Textiles," Journal of Home Economics, XIV (October, 1922), pp. 471-477.
- Raitt, Effie I. "Home Economics in Washington," Practical Home Economics, XIV (June, 1936), pp. 169-170.
- Reorganization of Home Economics in Secondary Schools. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 5. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1922.
- Richardson, Anna E. "Fundamental Problems of Homemaking in Public Schools," National Education Association Journal of Proceedings and Addresses, 1922. Published by National Education Association, Washington, D. C. Pp. 1465-1466.
- Shultz, Hazel. "Units in Home Economics," Practical Home Economics, XIII (March, 1935), p. 67.
- Snedden, David. "Where Are We Going in Home Economics?" Journal of Home Economics, XX (September, 1928), pp. 628-632.

- Spafford, Ival. Fundamentals in Teaching Home Economics. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1935. Pp. xii, 407.
- Spethman, Marie T. "Institutions in the United States Giving Instructions in Home Economics," Journal of Home Economics, III (June, 1911), pp. 269-294.
- "Statistical Survey of Education," Biennial Survey of Education 1916-1918, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 91, Vol. IV. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1921. P. 270.
- "Statistical Survey of Education 1921-1922," Biennial Survey of Education 1921-1922, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 14, Vol. II. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1924. Pp. 1-30.
- "Statistics of School Systems," Biennial Survey of Education 1931-1932, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 2. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933. P. 45.
- "Statistical Summary of Education," Biennial Survey of Education 1934-36, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 2, Vol. I. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940.
- Swain, F. L. "Homemaking in Chicago Public Schools," Practical Home Economics, XIII (June, 1935), pp. 168-169.
- Swift, Mildred. "Yesterday and Today in Our Foods Laboratories," Practical Home Economics, XVI (May, 1938), pp. 190-191.
- "Trends in Home Economics Education," Practical Home Economics, XVI (March, 1938), p. 106.
- Vocational Education in Home Economics. United States Office of Education, Vocational Education Bulletin No. 151, Home Economics, Series No. 12. Washington: Government Printing Office, June, 1930. P. 164.
- Vocational Education in Home Economics. United States Office of Education, Bulletin No. 151. Washington: Government Printing Office, June, 1930. Pp. vii, 164.
- Westfall, M., et al. "History of Home Economics in New York City Schools," Practical Home Economics, XII (June, 1934), pp. 169-177.
- Whitcomb, Emeline S. "Achievements in Home Economics Education," Biennial Survey of Education 1924-1926. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 5. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1928. Pp. 225-250.

- Whitcomb, Emeline S. "Home Economics Education," Biennial Survey of Education 1926-1928. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 16. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1930. Pp. 209-230.
- Whitcomb, Emeline S. "Homemaking Education," Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-1929. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 20, Vol. I. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1932. Pp. 237-270.
- Whitcomb, Emeline S. "Progress in Home Economics Education," Biennial Survey of Education, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 26. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1927. Pp. 197-213.
- Wilkinson, R. S. "Development of Home Economics in Negro Schools," Journal of Home Economics, XX (June, 1928), pp. 394-398.
- Williams, Florence. "The Present Status of Home Economics Education," Journal of Home Economics, XIV (May, 1922), pp. 255-258.
- Works, George A. "The Relation of Home Economics to the Rest of the Rural High School Program," Journal of Home Economics, XV (January, 1923), pp. 1-6.
- World Book Encyclopedia. "Home Economics," Vol. VIII (1941), pp. 3205-3211.

(This certification-sheet is to be bound with the thesis. The major professor should have it filled out at the oral examination.)

Name of candidate:

Elizabeth Randolph .

Oral examination:

Date March 23, 1942 .

Committee:

Albert Mock , Chairman
Nathan Gurney
A. B. Barlow
Wm. Baird

Thesis title:

A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE TEACHING
OF HOME ECONOMICS IN THE UNITED
STATES.

Thesis approved in final form:

Date March 13, 1942 .

Major Professor Albert Mock .

(Please return this certification-sheet, along with two copies of the thesis and the candidate's record, to the Graduate Office, Room 105, Jordan Hall. The third copy of the thesis should be returned to the candidate immediately after the oral examination.)