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## Research Bulletin of the National Education Association

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*Secretary, J. W. CRABTREE*

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**Director of Research: William G. Carr**

**Associate Directors: Margaret Alltucker Norton, Frank W. Hubbard**

**Assistant Director: Richard R. Foster**

**Executive and Editorial Offices - - 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.**

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## FOREWORD

Since its organization, the National Education Association has been interested in every worthwhile effort to provide each child in America with a fair and adequate educational opportunity. Probably no one group of children has been so continuously or severely handicapped by inadequate educational facilities as the children of rural people. This bulletin makes vividly definite a series of general facts which have long been recognized. Well-informed educators have always known that rural children were not receiving as good an educational opportunity as city children. The extent and severity of this handicap is brought out with startling clearness in these pages.

To point out the existence of these inequalities is only the first and least important function of this publication. Having summarized existing conditions and shown the need for remedial measures in rural education, the bulletin goes on to the more important task of suggesting what these measures may be. These methods of attack, these improved procedures, these changes in plans of administration, finance, and instruction constitute a most essential and valuable contribution.

It is not suggested that the education of rural children be made identical with that of urban children. Differing needs and environments must be taken into account. But neither the urban nor the rural child should be given an inferior education; the opportunity of each should be rich and complete in its kind. The educational needs of rural children are fundamentally simple—trained and professionally-minded teachers, safe and healthful schoolhouses, a dynamic curriculum. This bulletin points out some of the ways in which these rights of the rural child may be assured.

The content of this bulletin should become a part of the professional background of every rural school teacher and administrator in the country. It should be studied by those who are preparing to enter rural school work. It has a message, too, for city school teachers and officials, for one of our greatest needs in educational leadership is a point of view which transcends local boundaries and includes the welfare of all children in its purpose. The facts in this publication should be brought forcibly and repeatedly to the attention of every state legislature until laws are enacted which will restore to the rural child the educational rights granted him by the federal and state constitutions. Let no one read this bulletin and passively accept it. Let it become a center of disturbance, a starting point in a nation-wide campaign to bring relief to the farm by educating the farmer's children.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary,*  
*National Education Association.*

## The Scope of the Problem of Rural Education

Rural education<sup>1</sup> is about one-third of the Nation's total educational task.

According to the 1930 census 44,600,000 persons live in unincorporated and rural territory. This constitutes 36 percent, or about one-third, of the total population of the United States.<sup>2</sup>

About nine million farm children are enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools in the United States. This means that one school child in every three comes from the farm.

There are about one hundred fifty thousand one-room schoolhouses in use in the United States. This means that about three-fifths of all public school buildings are of the familiar one-room "little-red" type. In addition, many farm children are enrolled in the Nation's eighteen thousand consolidated schools and twenty thousand two-room schools.

Approximately two hundred thousand teachers are working in one-room or two-room rural schools. These teachers constitute nearly one-third of the Nation's army of 640,000 elementary public school teachers. Likewise, among the two hundred thousand high-school teachers, about 75,000 are employed in small rural and village high schools.<sup>3</sup>

The preceding facts reveal something of the importance of rural schools in the national program of education, but the full significance of rural education cannot be estimated solely in such numerical terms. The service of the school to the children, youths, and adults in rural areas has for America a significance which extends far beyond the mere statistical statement that it involves about one-third of the total educational job. It is not a function of the present bulletin to examine in detail all these economic and social implications of the rural school problem. However, by way of introduction, a few of these relationships may be briefly mentioned.

In the first place, rural education is important because agriculture is our greatest and our basic national industry. Second, the rural school is

the one widely available public agency which can assume responsibility for the health, welfare, and protection of the rural child when the home becomes unable or unwilling to accept these functions. Finally, an effective rural school is an essential element in the education of all children for the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy. In a word, rural education is important because rural life itself is important.

There is little reason to suppose that the basic problems of rural education are transitory. The social composition of the rural population may change. Methods of farming may be revolutionized. Inventions and machinery, such as the telephone and the tractor, may reorganize the whole social and economic background of rural life. The tides of population may ebb and flow between city and country. Amidst all this change, the education of the farm child for twentieth-century citizenship in a democracy remains a baffling problem and a continuing challenge.

### Rural Education and Child Welfare

Under the conditions ordinarily found in the open country and in small village communities, the one important public agency for child welfare is the school. Students of the health of children agree that the school program and environment play a major part in the building of sound physique and in the development of lifelong health habits. In rural areas where highly specialized medical advice, health clinics, hospitals, and frequently even the most essential medical services are not available, the responsibility of the school is exceptionally heavy. With respect to child labor, too, students of the question agree that school attendance laws represent the best approach to the difficult problem of child labor in agriculture. In the open country, where charitable agencies, special institutions, and other social services are not to be found, the school must assume an unusually large share of the responsibility for the protection of childhood.

<sup>1</sup> Rural education as used in this bulletin, unless otherwise defined, refers to the education of children, youths, and adults residing on farms. Rural school means a school located in the open country or a school in a village or town which serves also a considerable farm area. Rural children means farm boys and girls. These definitions are not proposed as more desirable or more accurate than others. They are used merely to facilitate the discussion in this bulletin and to isolate a specific and definite problem. Because of incomplete data it will be necessary at times to use the term rural as defined by the Census Bureau and other agencies. Where this is done, however, the fact will be noted.

<sup>2</sup> U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. *Fifteenth Census; United States Summary*. (Population Bulletin, First Series). Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1931. p. 78.

<sup>3</sup> Estimates based on Phillips, Frank M. *Statistics of State School Systems, 1927-28*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 5. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. p. 28-31. Gaumnitz, W. H. *Some Comparative Statistics of Public School Education for Urban and Rural Communities*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Rural School Circular, 1928, No. 27. Washington, D. C.: Gaumnitz, W. H. *The Smallness of America's Rural High Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 13. p. 9.

## Rural Education and National Welfare

Agriculture is by far the largest national industry. In the number of its employees it exceeds the combined employees of the next five largest industries—construction work, railroads, textiles, machinery, and coal. In the value of investment, agriculture again exceeds the combined total of the five next largest industries—railroads, oil, electricity, lumber, and iron and steel.<sup>1</sup> The management and protection of this great investment is not merely a rural problem, but a national problem as well. Agriculture is more than an important national industry; it is the basic industry—the one undertaking essential to the very existence of all other industries.

To suppose that national welfare can be permanently established without a sound program for agriculture is to fall into a serious error. Let agriculture cease to function, and the dwellers of cities would soon be willing to barter skyscrapers for a loaf of bread. The American philosophy of life does not contemplate a peasant farming class bound to the soil and permanently relegated to an inferior social and economic status. The Nation as a whole has a legitimate interest in the upkeep of rural community life. Each farm community is a source of widespread national influence. Its products feed and clothe the urban population; its young people enter all fields of work in cities, villages, and on farms; its adult inhabitants possess equal political rights with the inhabitants of cities and share actively in the formation of national policies. There is a constant interchange of population between farm and town. One study of these relationships shows that from the high school of a single typical farm community of less than 500 people, there went forth, in the ninety years, 1830-1920, 3,604 men and women. Of this group, more than one-third migrated to points outside the home community, and more than one-sixth went to points outside the home state. The same investigation, after an intensive study of the geographic and occupational scope of this migration, concludes that:

The ordinary farm community is shown . . . to be connected up with the life of the whole Nation. So far-reaching is the influence of a typical obscure farm community that the statesmen and thinking citizens of the Nation appear to be highly interested parties to all rural community problems.<sup>2</sup>

When the Nation recognizes the reciprocal interests of farm and city life, it will accord the same consideration to rural life and rural education that it now gives to crop reports, food estimates, and farm-labor statistics. The farm is the greatest potential market for the products of our manufacturing centers.

Rural education helps to place the farmer on a sound economic footing and to assure business stability generally throughout the Nation. A single generation of soundly educated farmers, trained to apply scientific methods to their work, keenly aware of the economic problems relating to production, able and willing to cooperate among themselves, would be a most effective and permanent form of farm relief.

That education does function to encourage a progressive and cooperative attitude among farmers is indicated by several recent investigations.<sup>3</sup> High-school and college graduates contribute a relatively large proportion of the members of farmers' cooperative marketing associations, while those who have had little or no education contribute a relatively large percent of those who remain outside of the cooperative associations. The most recent study of this question concludes that:

Possession of at least a high-school education seems to be one of the most important single factors in determining membership relations insofar as the data in the survey indicate. Possibly farmers with more formal educational training are accustomed to use their reasoning powers to a greater extent and are, therefore, less influenced by the sway of past experiences which, for the less educated farmers, play a larger role in determining the decisions upon new problems that confront them. The significance of this educational influence in relation to demands for better rural schools and for more adult educational work to make up part of the earlier educational deficiencies of present farmers is self-evident.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Evans, Clark. "Twenty Giants of American Industry." *New York Times*, March 25, 1928.

<sup>2</sup> Hoag, Emily F. *The National Influence of a Single Farm Community*. U. S. Department of Agriculture Bulletin No. 984. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1926. p. 55. For additional statistics on the migration of rural high-school graduates, see: Whitlow, C. M. "The Geographical Distribution of High-School Graduates." *School Review* 39: 213-16; March, 1931. Dolch, E. W. "Geographical and Occupational Distribution of Graduates of a Rural High School." *School Review* 33: 413-21; June, 1925.

<sup>3</sup> Manny, T. B. *Farmers' Experiences and Opinions as Factors Influencing Their Cotton-Marketing Methods*. U. S. Department of Agriculture, Circular No. 144. January, 1931. 62 p. Jones, J. W., and Jesness, O. B. *Membership Relations of Cooperative Associations*. U. S. Department of Agriculture, Circular No. 407. 1927. 29 p. Fetrow, W. W. *Attitude of Oklahoma Farmers toward the Oklahoma Cotton Growers' Association*. Oklahoma Experiment Station, Bulletin 178. 60 p. Merrill, F. A. *Does Education Pay the Farmer?* U. S. Department of Agriculture, Extension Service Circular 52. 1927. Mimeographed, 16 p. Hamer, Oliver Stuart. *The Master Farmers of America and Their Education*. Iowa City: University of Iowa, 1930. Studies in Education, First Series No. 193. 151 p.

<sup>4</sup> Manny, T. B., *ibid.*, p. 51.

Such investigations do not mean that all farm children are destined to be farmers and that their education should be framed exclusively in terms of farm life and farm problems. On the contrary, it is accepted that "a percentage of farm youth do, will, and must, so far as we can see, go to the cities as a normal thing."<sup>1</sup>

As the efficiency of the farmer increases, fewer farmers are needed. The Department of Agriculture estimates the net movement from farms to cities in the years 1924-1930 at 4,500,000 people.<sup>2</sup> This means that the rural school must train farm boys and girls so that they can: (1) intelligently decide whether they should leave the farm or stay on the farm and (2) live effectively and happily in whichever environment they may choose. Such a program calls for a comprehensive and balanced scheme of student guidance by all of the rural educational forces.<sup>3</sup>

### Rural Education and Democratic Government

Democratic government presupposes equality of opportunity, especially equality of educational opportunity. A democracy which consistently provides inferior schools for a large proportion of its future citizens is in danger. Few would seriously propose that an identical education for farm and city children is either desirable or practicable. However, it is a matter of common knowledge that the rural child is not receiving a fair educational opportunity. While rural children and urban children may well have different educational needs, the schools provided to satisfy these needs should be equally good. The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection demands for every rural child "as satisfactory schooling, health protection, and welfare facilities as the city child."<sup>4</sup>

In this introductory statement detailed description of the disadvantageous position of rural education cannot be included. A few facts, however, will suffice to place the general situation in outline before us. The inferior educa-

tional program offered rural children can neither be denied, ignored, nor justified. The average salary of teachers in one-room rural schools is approximately \$900 per year. As a result, rural children are being taught by relatively young, transient, immature, inexperienced, and untrained teachers. Their schools are open thirty-three days less each year than city schools. They enjoy fewer high-school opportunities. While three city school children out of every ten are enrolled in high schools, only one rural school child in every ten is enrolled in high school. Rural school buildings are worth about one-third as much as city school buildings. Rural schools spend less than half as much for educational equipment as city schools spend. In safety, comfort, health, sanitation, attractiveness, and equipment, the rural schoolhouse lags behind. These are undeniable facts familiar to everyone who knows the rural school situation.<sup>5</sup>

The above facts and many more that will be presented later show conclusively that in America today equal educational opportunity is a myth. Until such conditions as these are widely known and resolutely faced, there is no possibility of realizing the American ideal of a complete educational opportunity for every child. Once these facts become generally known and their bearing and importance are generally understood, school people should point the way to a solution of the urgent problems of rural education.

### Purposes and Scope of this Bulletin

The purposes of this bulletin are to facilitate the study of rural school conditions and to encourage measures to meet the needs thus revealed. The bulletin describes, in as definite and exact terms as possible, some of the salient characteristics of rural education as conducted in the United States at present. Building on this factual basis, the bulletin suggests steps for meeting the needs revealed. As far as space permits, examples of progressive practice are cited.

<sup>1</sup> Galpin, C. J., quoted in Frost, Norman. "The Adjustment of Education to the Needs of Farm-Dwelling People." *Bulletin of the Department of Rural Education*. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, February, 1930, p. 21-24.

<sup>2</sup> U. S. Department of Agriculture, Bureau of Agricultural Economics. *The Agricultural Situation*, Vol. 15, No. 3. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, March 1, 1931, p. 3.

<sup>3</sup> See Hatcher, O. Latham. *Guiding Rural Boys and Girls*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1930, 326 p.

<sup>4</sup> White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. *Proceedings*, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Daily, November 28, 1930, Section II, p. 55.

<sup>5</sup> Information given in this paragraph is taken from advance data collected for the 1929-30 Biennial Survey of Education of the United States Office of Education. For other sources, consult the following references: Gaumnitz, W. H. *Some Comparative Statistics of Public School Education in Urban and Rural Communities*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Rural School Circular, 1928, No. 27. Crabtree, J. W. "Statement before the Committee on Education and Labor." U. S. Senate, February 16, 1931. *Hearing* . . . on S. 1491, *A Bill To Aid in the Reduction of Taxes on Farm Lands* . . . Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, p. 6-9. Carr, William G. "Some Crucial Problems in Rural Education." *Journal of the National Education Association* 19: 282-84; December, 1930.

The many and varied aspects of rural education make it necessary to subdivide the problem for convenience in discussion. In order to accomplish this purpose the general field of rural education has been divided into ten major problems. In connection with each of these ten problems the bulletin gives a brief analysis of existing conditions and needs, a description of proposed and applied solutions, and a carefully selected bibliography which it is hoped will lead to further study of the various problems handled.

*Ten Problems of Rural Education*—Review of the literature on rural education suggests these ten basic problems:

1. How can better units of administration be provided?
2. How can more adequate financial support be secured?
3. How can rural boys and girls be kept in school?
4. How can the rural school curriculum be vitalized?
5. How can better teaching be done in rural schools?
6. How can rural people be kept interested in their schools?
7. How can better trained teachers be provided for rural schools?
8. How can secondary school opportunities be extended to rural boys and girls?
9. How can rural school buildings be made more attractive and useful?
10. How can rural teachers be given helpful supervision?

These ten problems may be further subdivided into many more, but they represent a convenient basic list to which the various issues in rural education can be referred. The arrangement of the ten problems does not represent an attempt to place them in order of importance. While all the problems mentioned are highly important, their relative significance will vary among different communities and states.

### How To Use this Bulletin

In the preparation of this bulletin the needs of the following groups have been kept in mind:

1. *County and other rural school superintendents* can use the bulletin as a handbook of

information for themselves and for their public. It suggests certain basic principles of rural school administration and shows how these principles have been put into effect. The entire bulletin or selected parts of it can be used as a basis for rural teachers' institutes. It suggests fruitful fields for study and investigation of local problems and supplies a basis for comparing local and national statistics.

2. *State and county rural school supervisors* will be especially interested in the sections on the curriculum, effective teaching, and helpful supervision. They will want to compare the facts presented here with the conditions prevailing in schools which they serve. They may want to call particular portions of the bulletin to the attention of individual teachers and parents.

3. *Principals of rural consolidated schools* will find similar uses for this bulletin.

4. *Rural parent-teacher associations* under wise leadership can devote a series of meetings to the consideration of this bulletin and to its application to their own local situation.

5. *Instructors and supervisors in rural education courses* given in departments of education, teachers colleges, and normal schools can use the bulletin as a textbook or as supplementary reading material.

6. *Trustees and school boards* for rural, consolidated, and township districts can use the bulletin as a ready source of information concerning progressive policies and practices in rural education.

7. *Editors of rural newspapers and magazines* can use the bulletin as a handbook of information and as a basis for editorials on the particular problems in rural education which claim their interest.

These and other groups should find the bulletin helpful. All who use it should ask themselves: What does this bulletin contain that will help me? How does it apply to the problems of my class, my school system, my community? How can I help to improve rural education?

Such an attitude will make the bulletin achieve its ultimate goal—an adequate educational opportunity for every rural child.

## 1. Efficient Units of Administration

### Present Conditions

Nothing is more unanimously agreed upon both by educational leaders and students of government than the inadequacy of the present unit for administering rural schools in most states. Repeated studies show that too small units are excessively expensive and educationally ineffective. Many authoritative studies of state school organization emphasize the need for thinking of education in terms larger than the small rural district. Following are a few typical recommendations from state school surveys:

**Arkansas:** As long as the district system is maintained, the inequalities in the wealth of districts are so great as to make impossible any significant approach to equality in school funds and consequently in educational opportunity for the children of Arkansas. Arkansas may temporize with the present situation. She may reduce the existing evils, but she cannot cure them unless, or until, she abolishes the district system with its legion of accompanying evils.<sup>1</sup>

**California:** The district unit for school administration has done its best work; it is expensive and ineffective, and present-day needs in rural education call for its abolition.<sup>2</sup>

**Florida:** The district system is largely responsible for the glaring inequalities in education.<sup>3</sup>

**Illinois:** The evils of the district system and the hopelessness of endeavoring to equalize educational opportunity and school burdens as long as the district is maintained as the chief and dominant source of school revenue, have been pointed out by every authority on the organization and support of public schools for the last one hundred years.<sup>4</sup>

**Minnesota:** Any study of the district system of school support in Minnesota will show that this system is rife with inequalities and injustice. The district is too small and too irregular a unit for satisfactory school administration.<sup>5</sup>

**Missouri:** The most fundamental reason for the decline of the rural school is the plan of dividing the territory of the state into small districts. This system may have answered a need in the day when it was established but that day is long since gone.<sup>6</sup>

**New Jersey:** A study of existing conditions in the rural schools leads inevitably to the conclusion that a satisfactory schooling cannot be provided for the

children of these schools under the present district system.<sup>7</sup>

**Oklahoma:** As to preserving the district system because of its so-called democracy, we may state that the chief reason for demanding its abolition is that it is the most undemocratic system that could be devised. The essence of democracy is equality of opportunity. We have shown that the district system not only fails to provide such equality but makes any approach to equality impossible.<sup>8</sup>

**South Dakota:** The small school district is an almost insurmountable obstacle to the type of school organization required by a modern rural population.<sup>9</sup>

### Proposed Remedies

Although these and other surveys show that the typical small unit of administration is excessively expensive for the quantity and quality of educational service received, there is no unanimity of opinion as to what larger unit may be best substituted for the district system. Indeed, it is unlikely that any one plan could be applied with uniformly excellent results to all states and communities. Each state has its own problems; and after learning all that it can from the comparative experience of other states, each state must work out its own solution in the light of sound principles and an adequate analysis of local needs and conditions.

The following are the principal larger units in use or proposed at present: the consolidated school district, the superintendency union, the township unit, the community unit, and the county unit. Each will be briefly discussed.

**Consolidated school districts**—The consolidated school district is not necessarily bounded by the lines of any other existing political unit. It is simply a union of two or more school districts. Consolidations vary in size. At one extreme is the consolidation of two very small districts. Such a consolidation may still employ only one teacher, furnish no transportation, enroll only a dozen children, and represent little or no significant educational advance over the former two separate districts. On the other

<sup>1</sup> U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. *The Public School System of Arkansas*. Bulletin, 1923, No. 11. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1923. Part II, "Public School Finance," p. 85.

<sup>2</sup> California Special Legislative Committee on Education. *Report*. Sacramento, Calif.: State of California, 1920. p. 51-2.

<sup>3</sup> Florida Educational Survey Commission. *Official Report to the Senate and House of Representatives, Florida State Legislature*. Tallahassee, Apr. 2, 1929. p. 286.

<sup>4</sup> Swift, Fletcher Harper. *Studies in Public School Finance, the Middle West*. Education Series No. 3. Minneapolis, Minn.: University of Minnesota, 1925. p. 80.

<sup>5</sup> Swift, Fletcher Harper. *Ibid.*, p. 136.

<sup>6</sup> Strayer, George D., and Englehardt, N. L., directors. "Preliminary Report of the Survey of the Public Schools and Higher Institutions in the State of Missouri." *Eightieth Annual Report of the Public Schools*, Part I. Jefferson City, Missouri, 1929. p. 127.

<sup>7</sup> Updegraff, Harlan, director. *Report of the Commission to Survey Public Education*. Trenton, N. J.: State of New Jersey, 1930. p. 139.

<sup>8</sup> U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. *Public Education in Oklahoma*. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1922. p. 49.

<sup>9</sup> U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. *The Educational System of South Dakota*. Bulletin, 1918, No. 31. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1918. p. 28.

hand, some consolidations include a large territory, use a large fleet of buses for pupil transportation, maintain an extensive elementary and secondary school program, and even provide homes for the faculty and for some of the pupils. Some consolidated districts maintain a school in the open country, some at crossroads, some in a village or town. Some may maintain a number of schoolhouses scattered throughout the consolidated area, but all under one administration. The laws governing the consolidation of schools also vary widely in strength. Some states merely permit consolidation of school districts if authorized at an election in the districts concerned; others require an election to be called under certain conditions; still others compel consolidation of districts in certain cases.

The great variability among consolidated schools is well brought out by an investigation of 260 typical consolidations reported in 1924.<sup>1</sup> The middle fifty percent of these consolidations varied approximately as indicated below:

Area included in consolidation, 25 to 65 miles  
Taxable property in consolidated area, \$750,000 to \$2,500,000  
Cost per pupil enrolled, \$55 to \$110  
Value of school property, \$30,000 to \$100,000  
Average daily elementary school attendance, 120 to 270  
Number of teachers in elementary grades, 2-10  
Average one-way distance of transportation furnished, 3.5 to 7 miles.

When it is remembered that the above figures exclude the extreme variations in the upper and lower quarters of the 260 consolidations, and that all the consolidations included in the study were named as "typical" by their state departments of education, the great diversity of the consolidated school is apparent.

Variety, then, is the rule in consolidations. For this reason, it is impossible to discuss the advantages and disadvantages of consolidated schools in general. However, it is generally true that consolidations make for better classification and grading of pupils, allow some specialization of work among teachers, and can provide better buildings and equipment at little or no increased total outlay. Furthermore, when many small schools are consolidated under favorable conditions fewer teachers need to be employed.

Money saved can be spent for transportation of pupils, for better salaries, and for general enlargement and improvement of the work of the school. Consolidated schools also frequently serve as community centers, decreasing the isolation of rural life. Some consolidated school districts are able to provide secondary school opportunities, specialized vocational education and guidance, dormitories for students residing at a great distance, diversified social and extra-curriculum programs, and other advantages.

Many investigations have been reported comparing the achievement of pupils in one-room schools with those in the larger and consolidated rural schools. While these studies are not completely unanimous, a large majority of them show that pupils in the larger schools have mastered the fundamentals of learning better, grade for grade, than those trained in one-teacher schools.<sup>2</sup> While the mere consolidation of rural schools is not in itself a guarantee of improved educational achievement, the data assembled indicate that, on the whole, pupils in the larger rural schools are learning more in the subjects of instruction that can be measured. Data from a group of studies bearing on this point are shown in Chart I.

All of the foregoing advantages, however, inhere in any unit large enough to make for efficient and economical education. They are not peculiar to consolidated school districts but may be found in some township and county units as well. There are also some disadvantages of the consolidated district which should be mentioned. First, since consolidation is generally on a voluntary or semi-voluntary basis, it is often brought about very slowly and with disproportionate effort. There is always the possibility of bargaining and vote-trading among the districts voting on a consolidation referendum with the consequent danger that the educational interests of the children may be neglected. Furthermore, voluntary consolidation proceeds according to no large-scale plan. Future development may not be anticipated, districts which should be included may be omitted, and some small districts with many children and little wealth may be left "stranded" between two or more consolidated districts which for selfish reasons do not wish to extend their boundaries.

<sup>1</sup> Abel, James F. *A Study of 260 School Consolidations*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1924, No. 32. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1924. 39 p.

<sup>2</sup> Covert, Timon. *Educational Achievements of One-Teacher and of Larger Rural Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1928, No. 15. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1928. 23 p.

Again, when high-school districts are consolidated while corresponding elementary school districts are left decentralized, the latter may find themselves unable to obtain adequate funds. With all these disadvantages, the consolidated district represents, under the school laws now in force in many states, an important step forward and is the only method by which desirable enlargement of rural school units may be secured.

**Superintendency unions**<sup>1</sup>—In New England the basic units of school control are the towns. These are units of irregular shape and widely varied area and population. While the towns are, on the average, much larger than the one-room school districts of the West and Middle-West, it has been urged that many of these towns could profitably be combined for school purposes. This is being gradually accomplished in several of the New England states.<sup>2</sup> Connecticut has grouped its 94 towns under 17 field super-

visors and 26 town supervising agents appointed by the State Board of Education. Maine has brought its 500 towns under 130 town union superintendents, appointed by the several town school committees. Massachusetts has placed its 230 towns under 76 town union superintendents, chosen as in Maine. New Hampshire follows a similar plan, placing its 221 towns under 51 union superintendents nominated by the joint board of the town union and appointed by the State Board of Education. Rhode Island has 15 towns, 9 of which are under union town superintendencies and 6 remain under a single town administration. Vermont has a rather complicated system of intermediate districts which involves the grouping of many of its towns into single units for school administrative purposes.

Several other intermediate units are in use which are somewhat similar in principle to the New England town unions. These include the

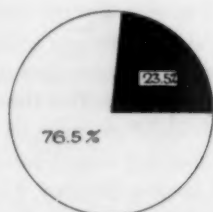
<sup>1</sup> Cubberley, Ellwood P. *State School Administration*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927. p. 185-91. Cook, W. A. *Federal and State School Administration*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1927. p. 183-5.

<sup>2</sup> U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. *Educational Directory*, Part I. Bulletin, 1931, No. 1. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1931. p. 20-31. "Salaries and Certain Provisions Relating to Rural School Superintendents, 1930-31." *Journal of the National Education Association* 20: 186. May, 1931.

CHART I

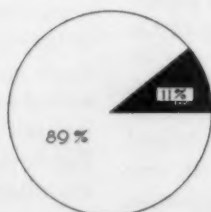
## COMPARISONS OF ACHIEVEMENT IN LARGE AND SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS

ACHIEVEMENT IN  
READING



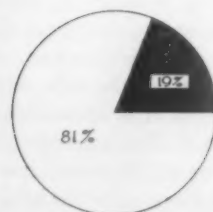
Based on 51 Comparisons

ACHIEVEMENT IN  
ARITHMETIC



Based on 82 Comparisons

ACHIEVEMENT IN  
SPELLING



Based on 31 Comparisons

□ Percent of comparisons in which children from large rural schools showed superior ability.

■ Percent of comparisons in which children from small rural schools showed superior ability

Research Division National Education Assoc.

Based on Covert, Timon. *Educational Achievements of One-teacher and of Larger Rural Schools*, U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1928, No. 15, p. 19

magisterial districts of West Virginia, the magisterial districts and division superintendencies of Virginia, and the system of district superintendents of New York.<sup>1</sup>

**Township unit**—The township is a unit originally adopted by Congress as a convenient basis for surveying the public lands. It is a perfectly square area, six miles on each side, and its border lines have not the slightest relation to natural geographic boundaries. The township as a form of local school administration is strongest in Indiana and the Dakotas, with limited use in Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, and elsewhere.<sup>2</sup>

That the township system represents an advance over the small district unit is generally agreed. But students of rural school administration point out many disadvantages, chiefly because it cannot coincide with natural geographic boundaries. There is little evidence that this unit is being seriously considered for possible adoption in additional states.

**Community unit**—It is a matter of common observation that there exist in rural areas certain social and economic groups. The members of these groups use a common trading center, attend the same rural or village churches and lodges, and use the same postoffice and railroad station. Many investigations have shown that it is possible to locate these groups and to determine the boundary lines which separate them from similar groups.<sup>3</sup>

It has been suggested, notably by the New York Rural School Survey, that these community areas be defined and utilized as the local unit for school control.<sup>4</sup> The essential features of the community unit idea have been summarized thus:<sup>5</sup>

1. The territory outside of cities and villages of 4500 or more population is to be laid out in local districts without reference to the boundaries of political units. In the formation of the districts factors to be considered are: roads, topography, and existing trade, social, and educational centers. Provision is made for the modification of boundaries as changes

in transportation, communication, or educational needs might dictate.

2. The local units thus selected are to be large enough to maintain economically an effective four-year high school.

3. The community units are to integrate the educational interests of town and country. The rural portions of the unit are to be an integral part of the administrative scheme.

4. An intermediate unit is to be formed by grouping community units for supervisory and certain administrative purposes.

All school units tend to become, in a sense, community units. But the plan of dividing an entire state into communities of unified social and economic units for the purposes of school administration has not yet been tried. The consolidated school district is in many cases a true community district also. Valuable guidance for rural school administration in a given state could doubtless be obtained by determining the boundaries of the natural communities within the state and comparing these with existing school district and attendance district lines.

**The county unit**—Few terms in school administration have so many meanings as the term *county unit*.<sup>6</sup> The term is used here to mean a plan of school administration under which the county is the unit of direct local school control, recognized as such by statute, and administered by a county board of education through an appointed county superintendent and his staff. Differences of opinion exist as to the effectiveness of the county unit in achieving desirable educational objectives. There is need for a careful evaluation of results secured under the county unit plan and under other plans. A few such studies have already been reported and the following factual conclusions have been reached, subject, however, to further checking and verification:

1. County superintendents selected under the appointive, county-unit plans have more advanced training than those selected by general election.<sup>7</sup> See Chart II.

<sup>1</sup> These plans are described and evaluated in the following references: Cavins, L. V., director. *Survey of Education in West Virginia*, Vol. 1. Charleston, West Va.: State Board of Education, 1928. p. 110-26. O'Shea, M. V., director. *Public Education in Virginia*, Richmond, Va.: Educational Commission, 1928. p. 69, 302-8. Morrison, J. Cayce. "Clarifying the Aims of Rural School Service." *Nation's Schools* 7: 21-6, March, 1931.

<sup>2</sup> Cubberley, E. P. *op. cit.*, p. 193.

<sup>3</sup> For example: Sanderson, D. and Thompson, W. S. *The Social Areas of Otsego County, New York*. Bulletin No. 422. Ithaca, N. Y.: Cornell University, 1923. Kalb, J. H. *Rural Primary Groups*. Research Bulletin No. 51. Madison, Wisconsin: Wisconsin Agricultural Experiment Station, 1921.

<sup>4</sup> Works, George A., director. *Rural School Survey of New York State*, Vol. 1. Ithaca, N. Y.: Joint Committee on Rural Schools, 1922, p. 198 ff.

<sup>5</sup> Based on: Works, George A. "Adaptation of Local School Administration to Rural Conditions." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 15: 574-80. November, 1929.

<sup>6</sup> Butterworth, Julian E. "Types of County Educational Control in the United States." *Journal of Educational Research* 15: 349-56. May, 1927.

<sup>7</sup> Tink, Edmund Lewis. *Certain Phases of County Educational Organization*. Contributions to Education, No. 363. New York: Columbia University, 1929, p. 35. This study compares the appointive county superintendents of Alabama, North Carolina, and Maryland with the elected superintendents of Florida.

Clough, G. O. "The Appointed County Superintendent." *Georgia Educational Journal* 23: 13-15. April, 1931. This study compares superintendents in Texas and Louisiana, the latter a county-unit state.

2. County superintendents under the appointive plan possess more educational experience than those under the elective plan. The elective officials more commonly come from non-educational fields of work or from non-administrative educational work.<sup>1</sup> See Chart II.

3. Appointive county superintendents constitute a more stable working group than those chosen by popular election. They retain their positions longer and serve second terms more frequently.<sup>2</sup> See Chart II.

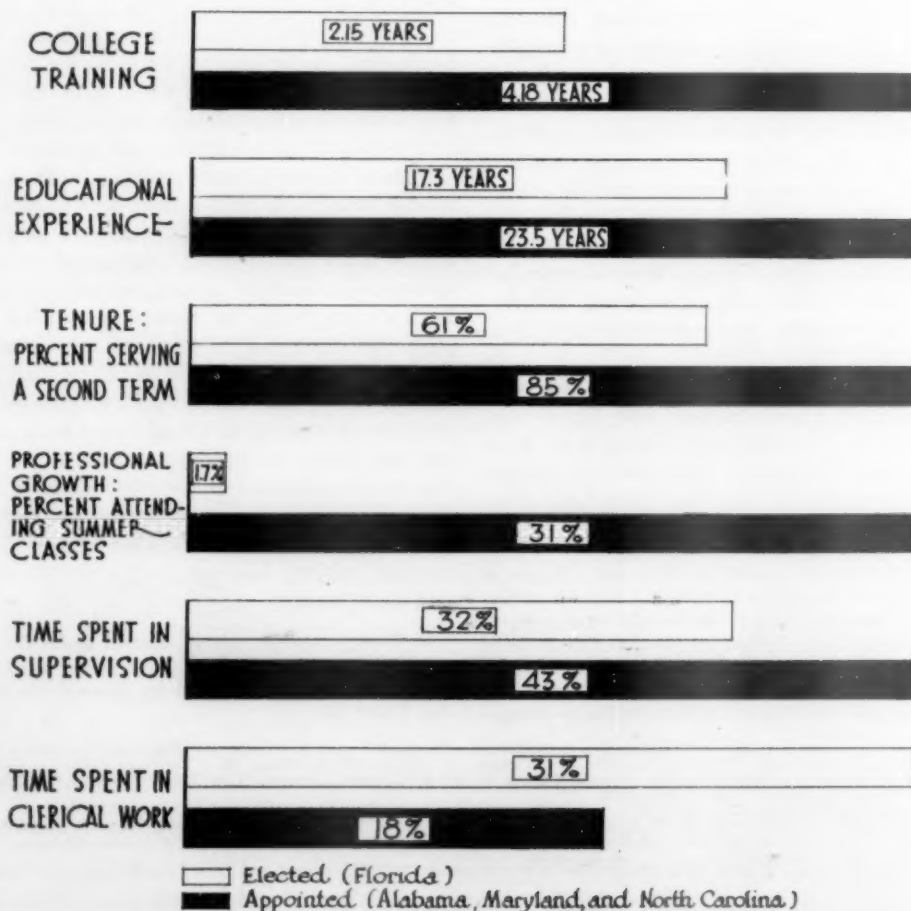
4. Salaries paid to appointed superintendents are

<sup>1</sup> Tink, E. L. *op. cit.*, p. 37-42; Clough, G. O., *op. cit.*, p. 13.

<sup>2</sup> Tink, E. L. *op. cit.*, p. 42-3.

CHART II

## ELECTED COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS COMPARED WITH APPOINTED COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS (DIFFERENT SCALES)



Research Division, National Education Ass'n.

Based on Tink, E.L. *Certain Phases of County Educational Organization*, p 32-70.

not higher than those paid elected county superintendents, except in cases where qualifications are markedly superior.<sup>1</sup>

5. County superintendents chosen by appointment are more active professionally than those chosen by popular election. They attend summer school more frequently, are present more regularly at professional meetings, and do more research work and professional writing.<sup>2</sup> See Chart II.

6. The county superintendent who is selected by appointment is typically more active in educational service than the superintendent who is elected. He gives more time to holding professional meetings with teachers, uses more educational organizations in his work, reserves more time to the supervision and improvement of instruction, and devotes less time to routine clerical activities.<sup>3</sup> See Chart II.

7. The county unit of administration is accompanied by "development and improvement in the degree of equality which exists in the educational offerings made in one-room schools, in two-room schools, and in mixed and graded schools." In other words, the county unit is generally associated with the removal of educational inequalities.<sup>4</sup>

8. In common with other plans involving or encouraging the use of larger units, the county-unit plan may make substantial savings in overhead expenditures.<sup>5</sup>

9. The presence of the county unit of school administration encourages the consolidation of schools, the provision of transportation for school children, and the abandonment of unnecessarily small attendance districts.<sup>6</sup>

✓ *Characteristics of a good unit for rural school administration*—No single type of administrative unit is equally effective in all parts of the Nation or even in all parts of a single state. For any given area, that unit is best which most effectively aids the educational process. Whatever this unit may be it will possess in every case certain characteristics. Comparison of three lists of the characteristics of a good unit of school administration indicates that such a unit will include as far as possible these conditions.<sup>7</sup>

1. An effective unit is large enough and financially strong enough to cooperate efficiently with the state and other agencies in financing a good elementary school program.

2. An effective unit reduces as far as possible the number and extent of inequalities in ability to finance

a complete elementary and secondary educational offering.

3. An effective unit retains and develops local interest in and understanding of the school program.

4. An effective unit provides competent, non-political control.

5. An effective unit assures progressive professional supervision.

6. An effective unit reduces gross differences in the educational offering available to different groups of children.

7. An effective unit provides an adequate and varied curriculum.

While no one of the above criteria is acceptable if considered by itself, taken together they represent a cross-section of the findings of experience and study. In applying these characteristics of an effective unit in a particular local situation, due regard must be had to local conditions and the degree of emphasis placed on each of the criteria should vary in terms of these conditions. It is recognized also that, while desirable standards for school units may be developed, special conditions of scattered population or geographical barriers will frequently demand special administrative arrangements.

Research as to the effectiveness of various types of local school units is badly needed. The following program for research on this problem has recently been formulated.<sup>8</sup>

1. What type of local school unit is desirable in a particular situation?

- What grades are to be included?
- What curriculums are needed?
- What extension of the school program to adults is desirable?
- What wealth is needed to supply the above facilities?
- How many pupils are necessary to justify the above facilities?

2. What social and psychological factors ought to be considered?

- What are the facilities for communication and transportation?
- What racial, national, religious, occupational, or business groups are present?
- How will the presence of these groups affect the public attitude toward the school?

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 45-6. <sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 47-57. <sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 57-69.

<sup>4</sup> Nuttall, L. John. *Progress in Adjusting Differences of Amount of Educational Opportunity Offered under the County Unit Systems of Maryland and Utah*. Contributions to Education, No. 431. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931, p. 78.

<sup>5</sup> See, for example: Barnes, Chester H. "Financial Aspects of a County Unit of Administration for Pennsylvania." *Twelfth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1925, p. 51-6. Myers, J. E. "The County Unit Plan." *Oregon Educational Journal* 3: 5, 19-20, January, 1929. Richardson, E. S. "How the County Unit System Enables the Board to Save Money." *Nation's Schools* 3: 27-32, April, 1929. Palmer, G. Lloyd and Biehl, J. C. "A Study of Consolidation Costs in Frederick County, Maryland." *Sixty-fourth Annual Report*, Baltimore, Md.: State Board of Education, 1930, p. 95-7.

<sup>6</sup> Abel, James F. *Consolidation of Schools and Transportation of Pupils*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1923, No. 41. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1923, p. 24-5, 82-99.

<sup>7</sup> Based on lists of criteria for the local unit of school administration as presented by: Butterworth, Julian E. "Types of Local School Units." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1931, p. 202-6. Cook, William A., *Federal and State School Administration*, New York: Crowell Company, 1927. "Characteristics of an Efficient Unit," p. 187-92. Works, George A., "The Community as a Local Unit of Administration." *Ninth Annual Pennsylvania Schoolmen's Week Proceedings*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1922, p. 131-42.

<sup>8</sup> Adapted from Butterworth, Julian E. "Types of Local School Units, *op. cit.*, p. 205-6.

3. What variety in local units is desirable?
  - a. Is the same unit equally effective for all states?
  - b. Is the same unit equally effective for all areas within a given state?

The answers to such questions as these, combined with the general guiding principles cited above, would probably suggest what local school unit in each area is likely to prove most efficient. This theoretical basis of selection would doubtless need to be submitted to the tests of practical experience and controlled experimentation.

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3. BURRIS, BENJAMIN J. *The County School System, How Organized and Administered*. Indiana Education Bulletin No. 73. Indianapolis, Indiana: Department of Public Instruction, 1924. 56 p.  
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4. BUTTERWORTH, JULIAN E. *Rural School Administration*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1927. 379 p.  
A consideration of major problems of organization and administration of rural school systems of America.
5. CARR, WILLIAM G. *The County Unit of School Administration*. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1931. 144 p.  
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6. COOK, KATHERINE M. *Rural Education in 1926-28*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1929, No. 18. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1929. 44 p.  
Contains sections on "Centralizing Tendencies in State and County Administration," "Changes Affecting Local Administration," and "Centralization of Small Schools and Districts."
7. COOPER, W. J. "Some Suggestions for Improving Rural School Administration and Support." *Proceedings*, 1929. Vol. 67. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1929. p. 501-4.  
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8. COVERT, TIMON. *Educational Achievements of One-Teacher and of Larger Rural Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1928, No. 15. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1928. 23 p.  
A study made to determine whether the change from a small to a larger school organization in rural territory results in greater educational efficiency. Finds in a majority of cases that pupils in larger rural schools are better trained.
9. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *State School Administration*. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1927. p. 139-269.  
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10. DEFFENBAUGH, W. S. *School Administration in State Educational Survey Reports*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1930, No. 35. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. 34 p.  
Summarizes data and recommendations from state educational survey reports on various phases of local school administration.
11. WORKS, GEORGE A. *The Community as a Local Unit of Rural School Administration*. University of Pennsylvania, Bulletin, Vol. 23, No. 1, p. 131-42. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1922.  
Defines the "Community" and lists functions to be performed by the local school organization. Map suggesting community units in Delaware County, New York.

THE DISTRICT unit is too small and too unequal in resources for taxing purposes or for supervision, and the substitution of some larger unit for rural school administration and support is necessary if any substantial progress in rural education is to be made.—Cubberley, Ellwood P. *State School Administration*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1927. p. 258.

## 2. Adequate Financing

America is a wealthy nation, yet we have in many states rural schools which under present laws cannot possibly be given adequate financial support. This seeming paradox is due to three basic causes:

1. Methods of raising public revenues are antiquated and inefficient.
2. The Nation's wealth is unevenly distributed among the states, counties, and school districts, while methods used to apportion central school funds fail to recognize these existing differences in ability to pay for schools.
3. Units of administration are too small for effective financial management.

Discussion of the first two points only is presented here, since the need for a larger unit of administration has been discussed under the preceding topic.

### Present Status of Financial Support of Rural Schools

The financial support accorded rural schools at present is far below the amount needed to permit them to meet their great responsibility and far below the amount available for city schools. While recent data are lacking, figures for 1925-26 indicate that rural schools are cheaper schools than urban schools, and that the amount spent for them is insufficient to provide adequate educational services. These facts are presented in Table 1. The facts must be critically evaluated. Undoubtedly, a salary of \$855 in a rural community has greater purchasing power than the same salary would have in a large city. Factors other than the different costs of living in country and city may also com-

pensate somewhat for the differences revealed in Table 1. However, even when all such factors are allowed for, the financial differential operating against the education of the rural child is serious.

*The farmer and his taxes*—Some seek to explain the discrimination against the rural child in terms of the financial inability of the United States to educate every one of its children. Economists and other students who have investigated this question, however, assure us that the United States spends relatively little on education—less than 3 percent of its national income, as a matter of fact.<sup>1</sup> The evidence is clear that it is well within the financial ability of America to give every child a rich and complete educational opportunity. We must reject the explanation that rural children are handicapped because the Nation cannot afford to educate them. Yet farm taxes are high and school taxes constitute a significant portion of the farmer's total tax load. Each year thousands of farms are seized by the sheriff for delinquent taxes. The fact is that in spite of great national wealth, the method in use for raising public revenues is so inadequate, inefficient, and unjust that more generous support for schools must, in many places, await comprehensive revision of the tax program.

The farmer is one of the chief sufferers from the almost exclusive reliance on the general property tax which still encumbers the public revenue systems of the United States. In 1926-27, the latest years for which a comprehensive national study is available, taxes claimed about 30 percent of the net rent of farm real estate. On the basis of intensive studies in 14 states

<sup>1</sup> National Education Association, Research Division. "Investing in Public Education." *Research Bulletin* 8: 193; September, 1930. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

TABLE 1.—FINANCIAL STATISTICS OF URBAN AND RURAL SCHOOLS, 1925-26 <sup>1</sup>

| Financial factor                                                | Urban    | Rural   | Percent rural is of urban |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|----------|---------|---------------------------|
| 1                                                               | 2        | 3       | 4                         |
| 1. Current expense per pupil in average daily attendance.....   | \$100.31 | \$62.72 | 62.5                      |
| 2. Capital outlay per pupil in average daily attendance.....    | 29.51    | 12.29   | 41.6                      |
| 3. Total cost per pupil in average daily attendance.....        | 129.82   | 75.01   | 57.8                      |
| 4. Value of school property per child enrolled.....             | 299.00   | 99.00   | 33.1                      |
| 5. Average salary of teachers, supervisors, and principals..... | 1787.00  | 855.00  | 47.8                      |

<sup>1</sup> Gaumnitz, W. H. *Some Comparative Statistics of Public School Education in Urban and Rural Communities*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Rural School Circular No. 27. Washington, D. C. 1928, p. 5. In this table rural means open country and centers under 2,500 in population.

the United States Department of Agriculture reached this conclusion:

Farm property is heavily taxed and . . . along with other real estate and certain other classes of tangible property, it is bearing more than its reasonable share of the cost of local government. The methods by which the local units are financed place on tangible property almost the whole weight of local expenditures.<sup>1</sup>

The general property tax is by far the most important tax paid by American farmers. In 1927, this tax accounted for more than four-fifths of the total tax collections. Chart III presents graphically the taxes paid by farmers. It indicates the excessive reliance of most states on the general property tax as a source of public revenue.

Is the policy shown in Chart III economically sound and equitable? If we turn to experts in taxation and government for an answer we

hear a thorough condemnation of the general property tax as at present administered. Seligman of Columbia says:

The general property tax as administered today is beyond all doubt the worst tax known in the civilized world.

Bullock of Harvard states that:

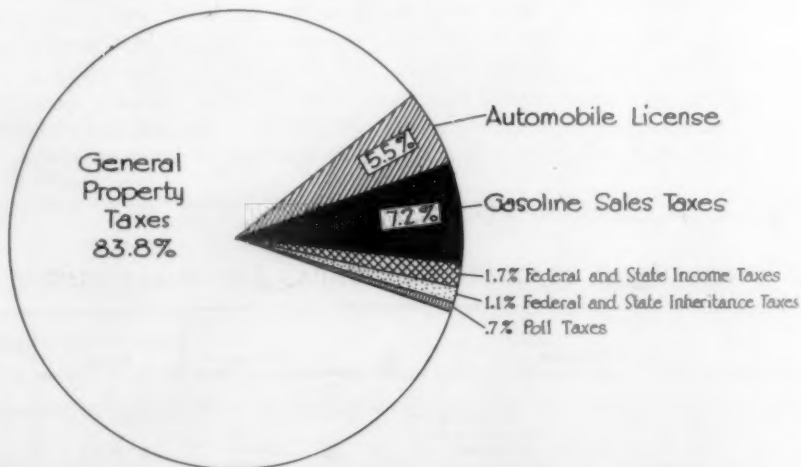
Far from being an American invention, the general property tax is a discarded European device, which has been fastened upon us rather by historical accident than by reason of its peculiarly American and democratic qualities.

Lutz of Stanford refers to "the grave evils and injustices of the general property tax." He declares that it disequalizes the tax burden; "introduces and perpetuates a very undesirable moral attitude toward this, and, in time, toward all tax laws"; permits intangible property to

<sup>1</sup> Coombs, Whitney. *Taxation of Farm Property*. Technical Bulletin No. 172, February, 1930. United States Department of Agriculture. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. p. 67.

CHART III

## TAXES PAID BY FARMERS IN THE UNITED STATES-1927

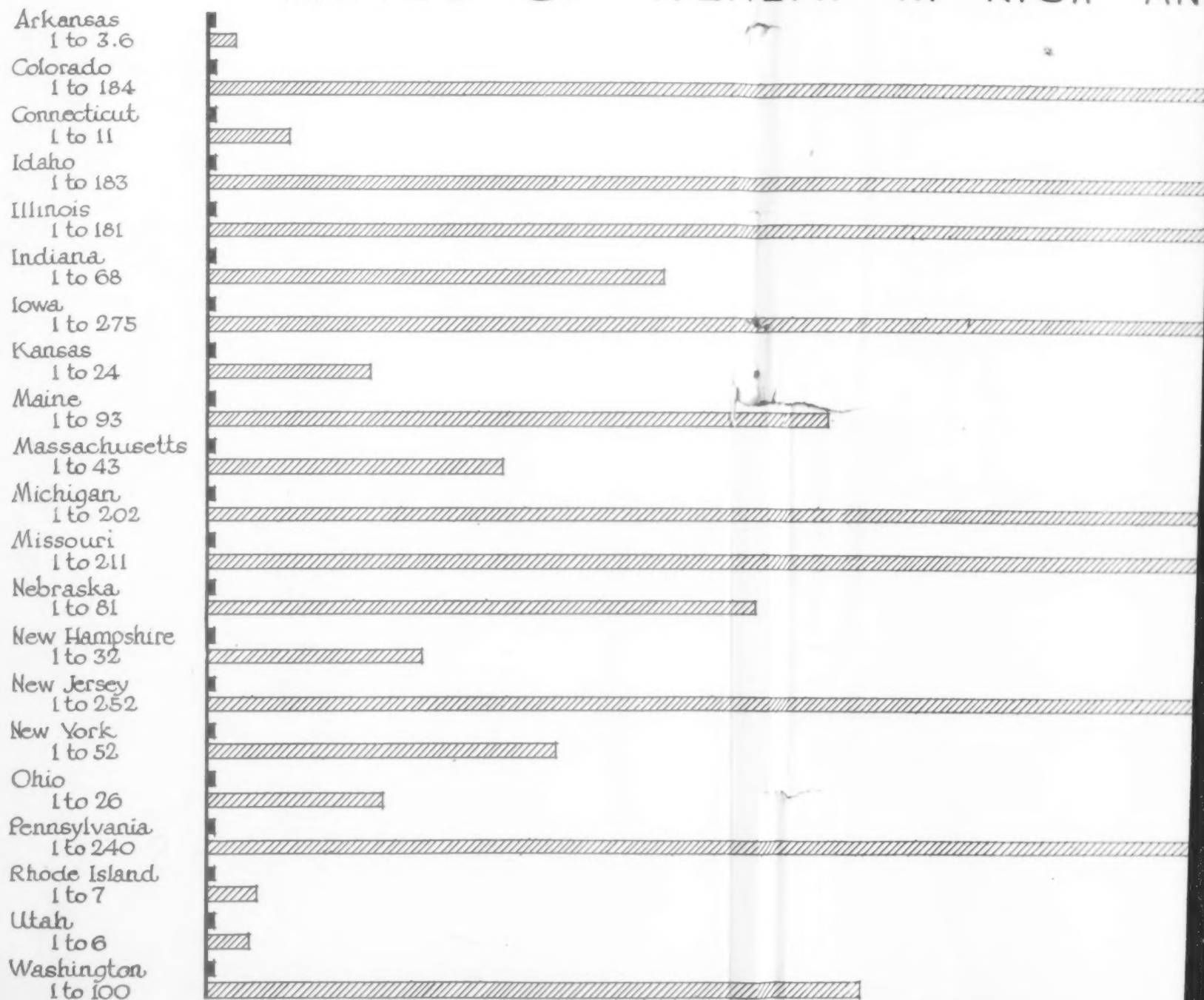


Research Division National Education Assoc.

Data from Coombs, Whitney. *Taxation of Farm Property*. Technical Bulletin No. 172, February, 1930. United States Department of Agriculture, p. 3

CHART IV

## RATIOS OF WEALTH IN RICH AND



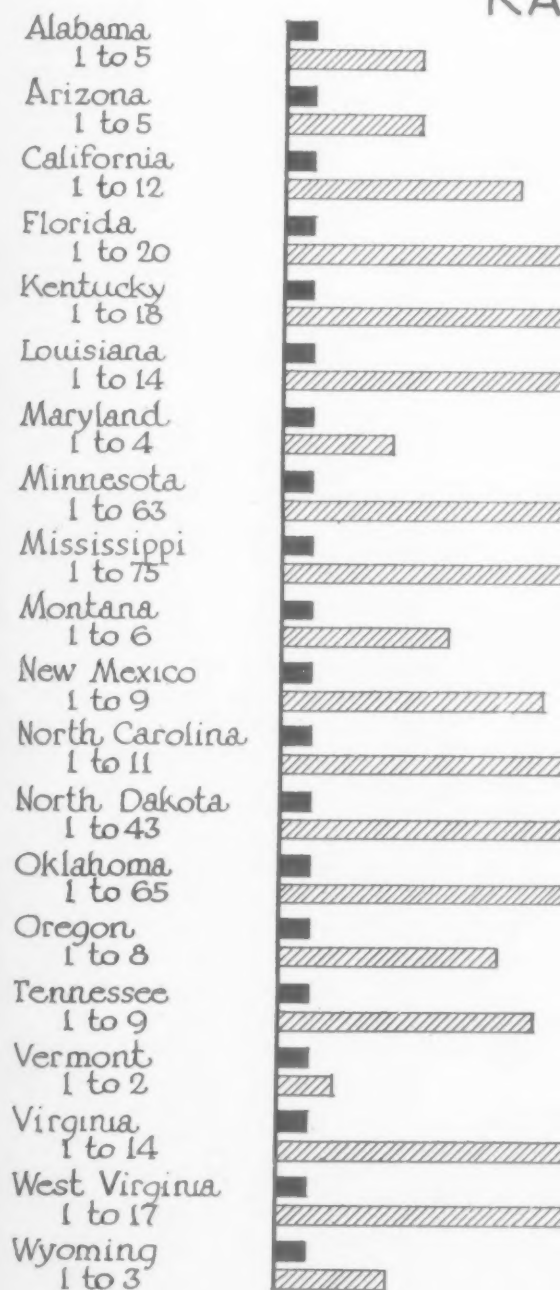
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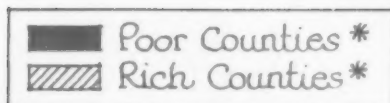
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CHART V

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escape from taxation; and stands in the way of the introduction of more efficient systems.<sup>1</sup> Similar indictments of the general property tax might be multiplied almost indefinitely.

*Uneven distribution of wealth*—The economic texture of any state is infinitely varied. Side by side with a thriving city, where property values are high and much wealth is accumulated, we may find a poverty-stricken rural area where the battle for a livelihood is always bitter and its outcome dubious. In the former situation, a reasonable tax will easily support excellent schools. In the contrasting district even meager school facilities can be paid for only with real personal sacrifice.

This variation in ability to pay for schools is not confined to any state or group of states, but is a factor which affects the rural schools of every state. Not all rural school districts are in the poor group and not all urban areas have an unusually favorable economic situation. Nevertheless, by and large, the balance of wealth favors the city and severely restricts the educational opportunities of the rural child.

Striking differences in ability to support schools in forty-one states are illustrated in Charts IV and V. These charts contrast rich and poor districts and counties respectively with reference to their financial ability to provide good public schools. They show that inequalities in ability at least as great as those indicated exist in each of the states represented. In some states the inequalities are known to be even greater than those pictured. In other states complete data are not available. For these and other reasons<sup>2</sup> comparisons as to differences in financial ability should not be made between states. The data of these charts are not offered with a view to showing that inequalities in one state are greater than those in another. Their purpose is rather to emphasize the fact that serious inequalities in ability exist in practically every state. In studying these charts, an important fact must be kept in mind. All prospective citizens—rich and poor, urban and rural—should have an opportunity to acquire a sound

education at public expense. Our form of government requires this, and our state constitutions expressly direct the respective state legislatures to provide it. Charts IV and V show clearly that as long as the support of education is regarded as a purely local matter, an equal educational opportunity is impossible.

### Improving Rural School Finance

The problems involved in financing rural education are to be met in two ways: (1) by reorganizing state tax systems so that an adequate amount of money can be raised, and (2) by providing state funds with which to offset local differences in the ability to support schools. Each of these measures is briefly discussed below.

1. *Revision of tax systems*—Many states have made significant progress in the past ten or fifteen years in modernizing their systems of public revenue. Very influential in this work has been the recommendation of the National Tax Association prepared by a committee of tax experts.<sup>3</sup> Reduced to its essentials this plan proposes a public revenue system based on three fundamental elements:

1. The payment by every gainfully occupied person of a direct personal income tax to the government of the state where he resides.
2. The local taxation of tangible property where it is located.
3. The imposition of a tax on the income of business conducted for profit.

The complete report should be carefully studied by all those interested in making state tax systems fairer and more efficient.

Various proposals have been made for the amelioration of the evils existing in the general property tax. Although some economists favor the entire abolition of the property tax, the weight of authoritative opinion seems to favor the reduction of the general property tax and its assignment to local taxing units exclusively. This would necessitate levying other types of state taxes to supplement the general property tax. The following taxes are frequently suggested for this purpose: the personal income

<sup>1</sup> National Education Association, Research Division, *School Revenues and New Methods of Taxation*, Studies in State Educational Administration, No. 2, Washington, D. C.: the Association, January, 1933, p. 2.

<sup>2</sup> Comparisons should not be made between states for a number of other reasons. Bases of comparison between rich and poor communities are not the same in all states. In some states comparisons are made in terms of the amount of wealth per census child; in others in terms of the amount per pupil in attendance; in still others the amount of wealth per teaching unit is compared. The Research Division will be glad to furnish information, upon request, concerning the data used in each state. Basic data used are not in all cases for the same year. Some states are already doing much to equalize by means of state aid programs, etc., the inequalities indicated in these charts.

<sup>3</sup> National Tax Association, "Preliminary Report of the Committee Appointed . . . to Prepare a Plan of a Model System of State and Local Taxation," *Proceedings*, 1919, Vol. 57, New York: the Association, p. 426-70.

tax, the sales tax, the severance tax, the business income tax, and the inheritance tax.

*Personal income tax*—At present,<sup>1</sup> sixteen states levy a personal income tax. Of these only four—Arkansas, Delaware, Massachusetts, and Wisconsin—definitely earmark this tax, or a portion of it, for school purposes. In most of the remaining twelve states, however, the proceeds of the income tax form an important part of the state general revenue funds from which state school appropriations are made.<sup>2</sup>

*Sales tax*—The tax on sales in the commonwealths of the United States is generally limited to the sales of certain commodities. Tobacco and gasoline are by far the most commonly used commodities for the levying of sales taxes. Every state levies a gasoline sales tax and twelve states levy a tax on the sale of tobacco products. The former is nearly always allocated to road building but in at least four states—Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, and Texas—a part of the proceeds of gasoline taxes are available for schools. The use of the tobacco tax for school purposes is somewhat more common; at least five states definitely allocate the tobacco tax or a part of it to school purposes.

*Severance taxes*—The severance tax ordinarily takes the form of a royalty on the extraction of minerals. In at least six states—Alaska, Arkansas, Louisiana, Minnesota, Montana, and Oklahoma—a part of all of the proceeds of a severance tax are assigned to the public schools.

*Business income taxes*—A tax on the income derived from business conducted within the state frequently accompanies a state personal income tax. At least five states allocate all or part of their business income taxes to the support of schools. In several other states the proceeds of business income taxes form a part of the general fund out of which school appropriations are made.

*Inheritance tax*—All except three states levy a tax on the transfer of property by inheritance

and at least four states—Kentucky, Michigan, Montana, and Virginia—allocate the returns to public education. In a number of other states, also, inheritance taxes contribute significantly, although indirectly, to state school support through the crediting of their proceeds to state general revenue funds.

The foregoing brief list of indirect taxes suggests the need for careful study of these tax problems by school people. The present bulletin does not attempt to provide the material for such a study, although other publications of the Research Division serve this purpose.<sup>3</sup>

The rural school problem is in large part a problem of insufficient funds. Over large areas the mounting general property tax is approaching, if it has not actually reached, the point of confiscation. Fundamental improvement of the rural school situation, therefore, must in many states await a badly needed reorganization of the public revenue system. Leaders in education, urban and rural, state and local, should make themselves able to contribute to the solution of this problem by attaining a working knowledge of sound tax principles and practices.

2. *Apportionment of state school funds*—After a just and effective system of taxation is in effect and the money thus collected is received by the state treasury, there yet remains the problem of distributing these funds back to the local spending agencies. What principles should govern a state in fixing its plan for apportioning funds to local school districts? Historically, the theory of apportioning state school funds has passed through three stages. As long as school funds were small and education was a purely local concern, it seemed entirely logical and satisfactory to distribute state funds to each county or school district in proportion to the number of children of school age in the district. A second stage in the development followed when it became evident that a distribution on the basis of the number of children was difficult to administer and doubtful in results. It was reasoned that the state school fund ought to

<sup>1</sup> 1931 legislation is not included in these statements.

<sup>2</sup> National Education Association, Research Division. *The Personal Income Tax and School Support*. Studies in State Educational Administration, Study Number 8, February, 1931. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1931, p. 13-19.

<sup>3</sup> National Education Association, Research Division. "Major Issues in School Finance, Part I." *Research Bulletin* 4: 236-65, November, 1926. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1926.

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National Education Association, Research Division. "A Self-survey Plan for State School Systems, Part I: Checklists." *Research Bulletin* 8: 54-87; March, 1930. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1930.

National Education Association, Research Division. "A Self-survey Plan for State School Systems, Part II: Handbook." *Research Bulletin*, 8: 90-163; May, 1930. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1930.

National Education Association, Research Division. *School Revenues and New Methods of Taxation*. Studies in State Educational Administration, Study Number 2, January, 1930. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1930, 12 p.

National Education Association, Research Division. *The Personal Income Tax and School Support*. Studies in State Educational Administration, Study Number 8, February, 1931. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1931, 20 p.

encourage local districts to provide good schools. States gradually began to distribute all or part of their school funds in such a way as to reward school districts which were willing to go further than the others in the development of their educational program. This second theory of reward-for-effort was a great advance over the early crude methods of apportionment. More recently, however, the theory of reward-for-effort has in turn been critically regarded. The increasing concentration of wealth emphasized the fact that some communities need state aid far more desperately than others. Some communities, indeed, could not meet state minimum educational requirements without such aid. Yet the reward-for-effort theory, at least as ordinarily put into practice, denied state aid to the less wealthy districts and gave aid abundantly to the wealthy districts which needed it least. Out of this condition grew a third principle of apportionment: that state school funds should be distributed so as to permit every district to offer a reasonable program of education on a reasonable tax. Few, if any state apportionment plans today illustrate perfectly either the early plan of simple participation, the later plan of stimulation, or the principle of equalization. Elements of all these principles are reflected in the apportionment plans in use in most states. The trend, however, is clearly toward an increased emphasis on the equalization principle.

Reduced to its simplest terms the equalization principle means an adequate state school fund apportioned in such a way that a reasonable educational opportunity is available to every child without unreasonable local taxation. The importance of this principle to the rural child is clear.

The details of plans for applying the principle of equalization differ somewhat from state to state. The essentials, however, remain the same. The application of the equalization principle to a given state involves extensive collection of statistical information and the interpretation of this data as a basis for legislation. The steps in such an investigation are: (a) the fixing of a minimum educational program to be provided throughout the state, (b) estimating the cost of this minimum program, (c) fixing a minimum school tax rate to be levied in every

school district, and (d) discovering the amount needed in each local unit which, when added to the amount raised by the minimum local tax, will provide the minimum educational program.

The facts shown in Charts IV and V confront every state with two alternatives. They can deny many of their children, chiefly those in rural areas, a complete educational opportunity, or they can recognize that nothing is ultimately more important to a state than the education of its children. They can put into practice the principle that every dollar of wealth in the state, no matter where it is located or in what form it exists, must pay its just proportion of the cost of educating all the children of the state no matter where they happen to live. When this is done and when the funds to do it are provided through modern, just, and effective tax systems, the rural school problem will be brought far along to its solution.<sup>1</sup>

## Selected References

1. BALDWIN, ROBERT DODGE. *Financing Rural Education*. Stevens Point, Wisconsin: Rural Service Press, 1927. 210 p.

A study of the problem of rural school finance from the standpoint of state school financial legislation. Summarizes practices in financing rural education, evaluates the results of these practices, and suggests plans for state school financing.

2. MORT, PAUL R. *State Support for Public Schools*. School Administration Series. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. 104 p.

Part I discusses the nature of a satisfactory system of state support for public schools with regard to the equalization of educational opportunity; the cost of the minimum educational program; and division of support between state and locality. Part II describes technics involved in the development of such a system and suggests needed research on the problem of state support of public schools.

3. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. "Major Issues in School Finance." *Research Bulletins* 4: 236-58; November, 1926—Part I; and 5: 2-63; January, 1927—Part II. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

Part I presents data to show the nation's economic ability to meet school costs and discusses school costs and economy in public expenditures. Part II discusses school costs in relation to the economic resources of the states, state advance

<sup>1</sup>It is desirable, however, that reforms in taxation and apportionment be accompanied by reforms in the administrative unit. Indefensibly small and inefficient school units should be discouraged rather than perpetuated by taxation and apportionment legislation.

toward sound school finance programs, and the essentials of a sound plan of state taxation.

4. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. *The Personal Income Tax and School Support*. Studies in State Educational Administration, No. 8. Washington, D. C.: the Association, February, 1930. 20 p.

Estimates the effectiveness of the personal income tax as an administrative and fiscal measure and discusses its economic and social results, with special reference to school finance.

5. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. *School Revenues and New Methods of Taxation*. Studies in State Educational Administration, No. 2, January, 1930. 12 p.

A summary of recent legal provisions for taxation in the different states. Bibliographies.

6. NATIONAL TAX ASSOCIATION. "Preliminary Report of the Committee Appointed . . . To Prepare a Plan of a Model System of State and Local Taxation." *Proceedings* 1919. Vol. 57. New York: the Association. p. 426-70.

Recommends plan of state and local taxation based upon three fundamental principles: (1) the

payment by every person of a direct personal tax to the government under which he is domiciled;  
(2) the taxation of tangible property at its situs;  
(3) the taxation of business carried on for profit.

7. NEULEN, LESTER NELSON. *State Aid for Educational Projects in the Public Schools*. Contributions to Education, No. 308. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 84 p.

Analyzes the practice of state aid for educational projects and concludes that it is in popular favor and is likely to be continued. Finds, however, that state leadership and the raising of state requirements have been more effective than the utilization of special subsidies.

8. SWIFT, FLETCHER HARPER, and ZIMMERMAN, BRUCE L. *State School Taxes and School Funds and Their Apportionment*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1928, No. 29. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1928. 431 p.

Describes briefly the state school revenues and apportionment systems in each state, as of 1926.

WE NEED a new plan of school financing. . . . Ability to support governmental agencies and especially schools is no longer adequately measured by the general property tax. An increasing number of states report other types of tax used in whole or in part to support schools such as income tax, inheritance tax, occupational and license tax, and sales tax. In the latter are included five states with a tobacco tax and one with a tax on malt syrup. It is reasonable to assume that wealth in these new forms and found chiefly in cities is dependent more or less on the existence of a "back country." If so, its prosperity and its advantages, especially in educational opportunity, are matters of vital importance to the possessors of such wealth. All this appears to call for a large unit—probably a state unit if just and fair taxes are to be levied. The law which levies the tax must of course provide the machinery for handling and apportioning the funds.—William John Cooper, *United States Commissioner of Education. Proceedings, 1929, National Education Association, p. 502.*

### 3. Better Attendance in Rural Schools

#### What Are the Facts Concerning Rural School Attendance?

Three factors are involved in the question of better attendance—the length of term, the proportion of children enrolled, and the regularity of attendance. On each of these points the rural school lags behind.

Rural schools are open only for brief terms. While one- and two-teacher schools offered in 1925 an average term of 150.5 days, city schools offered an average of 183 days.<sup>1</sup> A recent survey of selected counties in five states shows an average term of 166 days in one-teacher schools, 168 days in two-teacher schools, and 178 days in cities over 2500 in population.<sup>2</sup> In rural<sup>3</sup> secondary schools, 87 percent of the students enrolled have a term of less than 181 days while only 41 percent of the total enrolment in urban high schools have a term shorter than 181 days.<sup>4</sup>

In addition to the national statistics, the following reports from typical state surveys further illustrate the differential operating against the rural child with respect to school terms.

**Indiana:** The Rural Education Survey Committee found that 89 percent of the children outside of towns and cities attended schools which were open less than 161 days a year. Less than 1 percent of the children enrolled in cities were thus handicapped.<sup>5</sup>

**Maryland:** The State Department of Education finds that one-teacher schools are responsible for 3 out of every 4 short terms (less than 180 days). This general condition has been true for a number of years.<sup>6</sup>

**Missouri:** The State Survey Commission found 53 rural districts with a term of less than four months. Only 1 rural school in 25 had a term as long as 9 months.<sup>7</sup>

**North Carolina:** Official reports show that the term of rural schools was 44 days shorter than that of city schools in 1920. Since then the gap has been lessened gradually but even in 1927-28 rural schools for white children were open 36 days less than those for white children in cities. The colored schools showed a difference of 51 days between city and rural terms.<sup>8</sup>

Conditions such as these mean that many farm children get less schooling in eight years than city children get in six years.

Rural children are handicapped also by the irregularity of their attendance on the short sessions available to them. Ayer's study of the attendance records of 72,120 rural children in 10 states in 1922 showed that half the children in rural communities were attending school less than seven and one-half months; over a fourth, less than five months; and thirteen percent, less than three months.<sup>9</sup> A recent sampling of rural schools in twenty-two counties of five states showed 48 percent of the non-transported children under seven years old attending less than 151 days. Older children showed a slightly better attendance but even among children 15 and 16 years of age, 29 percent attended school less than 151 days.<sup>10</sup> For the Nation as a whole in 1925-26, elementary school attendance was 85 percent of the enrolment in rural<sup>11</sup> areas and 91 percent of the enrolment in urban areas.<sup>12</sup>

In individual states a similar situation prevails. In Delaware the children in one-room schools are absent, on the average, eight days more each year than the children in the larger schools.<sup>13</sup> In Maryland, 12 percent of the children enrolled in one-room schools are absent 40 days or more, as against 7 percent of the chil-

<sup>1</sup> Gaumnitz, W. H. *Salaries and Salary Trends of Teachers in Rural Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1929, No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1929, p. 37. More recent data, as yet incomplete and unpublished, suggest that the discrepancy between urban and rural school terms still exists but is decreasing.

<sup>2</sup> Cook, Katherine M., and Gaumnitz, W. H. "Availability of Schools in Rural Communities," *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1931, p. 80.

<sup>3</sup> *Rural high schools* in this case are defined as those located in centers of less than 2500 population.

<sup>4</sup> Cook and Gaumnitz, *op. cit.* p. 92.

<sup>5</sup> Indiana Rural Education Survey Committee. *Report*. 1926. Indianapolis, Indiana: State Superintendent of Public Instruction, p. 15-19.

<sup>6</sup> Maryland State Department of Education. *Sixty-fourth Annual Report*. Baltimore, Md.: State Department of Education, 1930, p. 18-19.

<sup>7</sup> Strayer, George D., and Englehardt, N. L., *op. cit.*, p. 121.

<sup>8</sup> North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction. *Biennial Report, 1926-27 and 1927-28*. Raleigh, N. C.: State Department of Public Instruction, p. 15-17.

<sup>9</sup> Ayer, Adelaide M. "A Study of Rural School Attendance," *Proceedings 1925*, Vol. 63. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1925, p. 526-39.

<sup>10</sup> Cook and Gaumnitz, *op. cit.*, p. 74.

<sup>11</sup> *Rural* here means places of less than 2500 inhabitants or the open country.

<sup>12</sup> Gaumnitz, W. H. *Some Comparative Statistics . . . for Rural and Urban Communities, 1928*. U. S. Department of the Interior Office of Education, Rural School Circular No. 27. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1928, p. 4.

<sup>13</sup> Delaware Department of Public Instruction. *Annual Report*. Dover, Del.: Department of Public Instruction, 1929, p. 151-53, 244.

dren in graded schools.<sup>1</sup> These illustrations could be multiplied indefinitely to show that the attendance of rural children at school is unsatisfactory. The differences in school opportunity in the United States are shown graphically in Chart VI.

### How Can Rural School Attendance Be Improved?

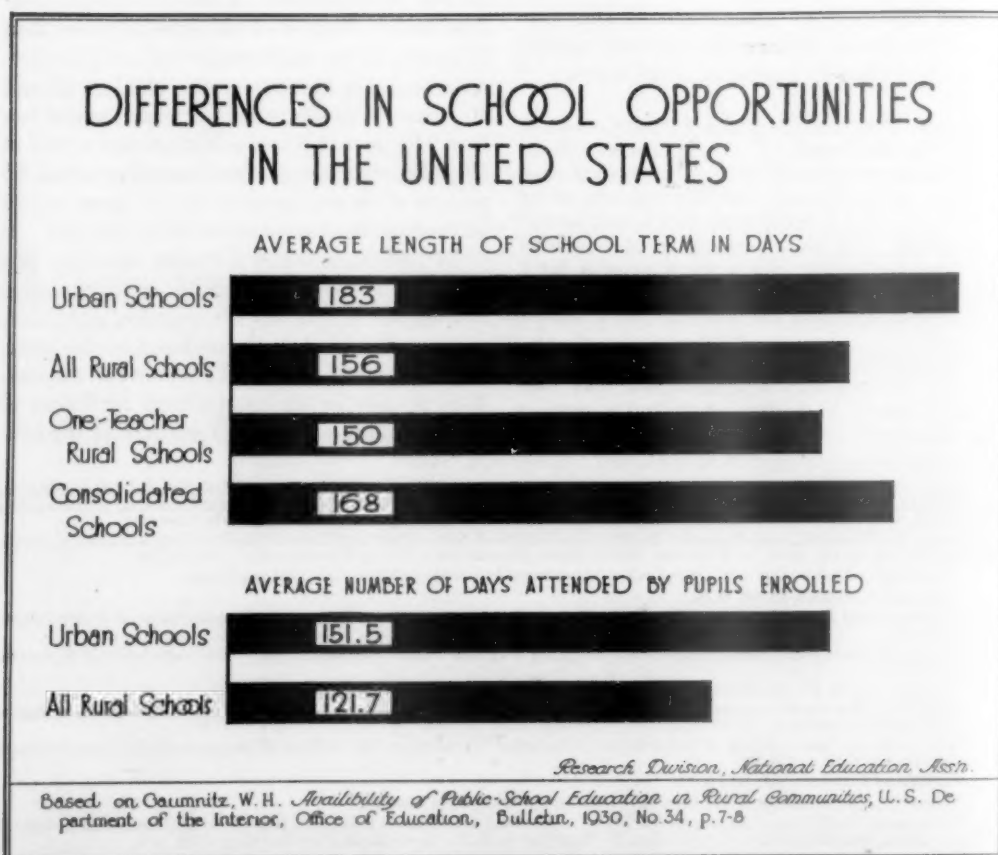
There is no single, general panacea which will bring better attendance to the rural schools. In this field, as in others, progress in any one respect will accompany progress all along the line. Local needs and conditions must determine the best steps to be taken to bring rural boys and girls into the schools and to keep them there. The basis for an intelligent attack on the problem is a knowledge of the causes

of irregular attendance. These causes never operate singly and frequently involve many other aspects of rural school administration. Numerous investigations of the causes of non-attendance and irregular attendance in rural schools have been reported. These causes suggest the steps which may be taken to insure better attendance in rural schools. Some of these steps are listed below:

1. *Longer terms*—A short school term is commonly accompanied by more irregularity in attendance than longer terms. Ayer, in a study of 9 counties in 5 states, found that 47 percent of the children in schools offering 139-day terms were present less than 80 days, while only 19 percent of the children in schools offering 179-day terms were present less than 80 days.<sup>2</sup> In brief, children having the shorter term did not even attend the school that was available as

<sup>1</sup> Maryland State Department of Education, *op. cit.*, p. 29.  
<sup>2</sup> Ayer, *op. cit.*, p. 526-39.

CHART VI



well as did the children having the longer term. Long terms encourage and reward better attendance.

2. *Freedom from injurious work*—Child labor is not confined to the cities. Some of its least regulated and most arduous forms are found in rural communities. Cooper and Cooper found that work, either agricultural or in other occupations, was the leading cause of absence in the one-teacher schools of Delaware.<sup>1</sup> In earlier investigations of the National Child Labor Committee, Folks found that 73 out of 132 cases of late entry in school and 70 out of 90 cases of early withdrawal from school were due to work on farms and in canneries.<sup>2</sup> It is significant also that the fifteen states with the highest percent of non-attendance are also the fifteen states with the highest percent of children employed in agriculture.<sup>3</sup> The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection concludes that "agriculture has always involved more child workers than all other occupations together; it includes a large number of young workers; it employs thousands of children as migratory workers; it presents difficult problems of control."<sup>4</sup> Regular school attendance and adequate legislation regulating the labor of children on farms go hand in hand.

3. *Good economic conditions*—Closely related to the factor of work as a cause of non-attendance is the economic status of the homes from which the rural schools draw their pupils. A study of 13,069 school records of farmers' children in three states showed that the children of tenant farmers were absent a somewhat larger percent of the school term than the children of farm-owners.<sup>5</sup> Summarizing similar studies in 37 states, the White House Confer-

ence on Child Health and Protection concludes "that the children of owners are in the most favorable position, especially in regard to school attendance; those of tenants on a cash basis come next, and children of tenants on a crop-share basis, those who are hired out, and those in 'contract labor' families have the poorest showing."<sup>6</sup> Eighteen states have enacted laws specifying that poverty in the home is an acceptable excuse for non-attendance at school unless books, clothing, and other necessary articles are provided at public expense.<sup>7</sup>

4. *Enforcement of attendance laws*—According to one investigation, twelve states fail to provide for the appointment of school attendance officials outside of the cities.<sup>8</sup> Another investigation reports that in only eleven states are educational or moral qualifications prescribed for persons charged with the administration of compulsory attendance laws.<sup>9</sup> As a result many attendance officers have no professional preparation for their work. An unpublished study covering several eastern states found that 60 percent of the attendance officers had only an elementary school education, and only 14 percent could by any means be classified as professionally trained.<sup>10</sup> A study of compulsory attendance service in the union school districts of New York State showed that the median attendance officer had not completed the eighth grade and gave only 3 percent of his time to the enforcement of the attendance laws.<sup>11</sup> In Ohio the median county attendance officer had only nine years of schooling.<sup>12</sup> When we consider that the attendance officer should be more social worker than policeman and that the effectiveness of court action in compulsory attendance cases depends principally on the character

<sup>1</sup> Cooper, Richard Watson, and Cooper, Hermann. *The One-Teacher School in Delaware: A Study in Attendance*. University of Delaware Press, Newark, Del., 1925. p. 266.

<sup>2</sup> Folks, Gertrude. "Farm Labor versus School Attendance." *American Child* 2: 73-89; May, 1920. See also: McIntire, Ruth. "The Effect of Agricultural Employment upon School Attendance." *Elementary School Journal* 18: 536-43; March, 1918.

<sup>3</sup> White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. *Preliminary Committee Reports*. New York: Century Co., 1930. p. 263.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 261.

<sup>5</sup> Folks, *op. cit.*, p. 73-89.

<sup>6</sup> White House Conference, *op. cit.*, p. 262. See also: Interstate Commerce Commission. *Rate Structure Investigation*. Part 3, "Cotton." Report No. 1700. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, p. 685-6.

<sup>7</sup> Keesecker, Ward W. *Laws Relating to Compulsory Education*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1928, No. 20. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1928. 70 p.

<sup>8</sup> Denius, H. G. *Legal Status of the School Attendance Official*. Unpublished master's thesis, Ohio State University, Columbus Ohio, 1926.

<sup>9</sup> Liebler, Charles C. "Qualifications and Compensation of Persons Charged with the Enforcement of Compulsory Education." *Elementary School Journal* 27: 695-706; May, 1927.

<sup>10</sup> Reported in C. C. Liebler, *ibid.*, p. 705.

<sup>11</sup> Hanson, Whittier Lorenz. *The Costs of Compulsory Attendance Services in the State of New York and Some Factors Affecting the Cost*. Contributions to Education, No. 158. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. 122 p.

<sup>12</sup> Sloan, Paul W. *Present Status of the County Attendance Officers in Ohio*. Unpublished master's thesis, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio, 1927. 77 p.

of the evidence presented by attendance officers,<sup>1</sup> the necessity for a high type of professional attendance service in rural areas is emphasized.

5. *Health*—Preventable illness is common among rural children, and this fact accounts for a considerable proportion of the irregular attendance in rural schools. An examination of the children of the county schools (largely farm children) in Virginia showed 15 percent with defective vision, 4 percent with defective hearing, 57 percent with defective teeth, 23 percent, one-tenth or more underweight, and 29 percent not vaccinated against smallpox.<sup>2</sup> These conditions are fairly typical of other states where inspections have been made and reported.<sup>3</sup> On the other hand, rural children appear to enjoy relative freedom from such communicable diseases as typhoid fever, diphtheria, and measles when compared with children in villages and in small and medium-sized cities. In New York State, for instance, the incidence of diphtheria in unincorporated areas was 70 cases per 100,000 as compared with 180 cases in cities of 10,000 to 20,000 population.<sup>4</sup>

Illness is prominently mentioned as a cause of absence from rural schools by many investigations.<sup>5</sup> Illness heads the lists of causes of absence in studies of rural schools in West Virginia and Maryland and is second in importance in Utah. A vigorous public health program supported by effective health instruction will significantly improve irregular school attendance in most rural areas.

6. *Transportation*—Under rural conditions, especially where transportation to school is not available, bad weather may be of considerable importance as a factor in causing irregular attendance. Closely connected with bad weather as a cause of absence is the distance from

school. Twenty-two states exempt children living at specified distances from school from the provisions of the compulsory attendance laws.<sup>6</sup> Distance from school may, therefore, even allow children to grow up without any formal education whatever. The Texas Survey Commission states that "in the sparsely settled counties of southwest Texas . . . more than 50 percent of the area is geographically exempt from the operation of the compulsory attendance law." Furthermore, "the aggregate (of children thus exempted) is undoubtedly considerable."<sup>7</sup> Reavis, in a study of five Maryland counties, found that where transportation was not provided distance was the most important of fifty selected factors in determining attendance.<sup>8</sup> Other surveys, as in Delaware and Virginia, reach similar conclusions. A study of attendance covering sixty thousand children in five states concludes, "that distance is a decisive factor in school enrolment, attendance, and attenuation, and that it works a special hardship on young children, but that it affects thousands of rural children at all the different age-levels is believed to be a reasonable conclusion from the data presented."<sup>9</sup> The bad effects of inclement weather and isolation on regular attendance can be overcome to a large extent in most rural areas by a program of transportation at public expense.

7. *Attractive school opportunities and related conditions*—Difficult to measure objectively, but doubtless of great importance in causing absence from rural schools, is the low "pulling-power" of the rural school itself. A good school, well-adapted to the needs of the community, with something definite to offer every child who enters its doors, will do much to attract children and to keep them in regular attendance. An ineffective school will encourage late entry, early withdrawal, and frequent

<sup>1</sup> Bender, John Frederick. *The Functions of Courts in Enforcing School Attendance Laws*. Contributions to Education, No. 262. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927. 187 p.

<sup>2</sup> Assembled from mimeographed data by Kyte, George C. "Pupil Status in the Rural School." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part II. 1931. National Society for the Study of Education, p. 36.

<sup>3</sup> For further data see: Wood, T. D., et al. *Health Improvement in Rural Schools*. Chicago: American Medical Association, 1922. 52 p.

<sup>4</sup> Godfrey, E. S. "Age Distribution of Communicable Diseases According to Size of Community." *American Journal of Public Health* 18: 616-31; May, 1928.

<sup>5</sup> Maryland State Board of Education. *Op. cit.*, p. 29. Cooper and Cooper. *Op. cit.*, p. 322. National Child Labor Committee. *Rural Child Welfare*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1922. Chapter III.

<sup>6</sup> Keesecker, *op. cit.*, p. 11.

<sup>7</sup> Works, George A., director. *General Report*. Texas Educational Survey Report, Vol. 8. Austin, Texas: Educational Survey Commission, 1925. See also Vol. 1, p. 397. Other studies concerning how far rural children live from school are summarized in Cook and Gaumnitz, *op. cit.*, p. 56-66.

<sup>8</sup> Reavis, George H. *Factors Controlling Attendance in Rural Schools*. Contributions to Education, No. 108. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1920. p. 13 ff.

<sup>9</sup> Cook and Gaumnitz, *op. cit.*, p. 73.

absences. In this sense the problem of attendance is part of the whole problem of improved rural school facilities.

### Selected References

1. AYER, ADELAIDE M. "A Study of Rural School Attendance." *Proceedings*, 1925. Vol. 63. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1925. p. 526-39.

A study made to determine actual school attendance of rural children of the United States; the effect of attendance upon school work; and how school attendance is affected by child labor. It includes records of 72,120 children of 70 counties in 10 states.

2. COOK, KATHERINE M., and GAUMNITZ, W. H. "Availability of Schools in Rural Communities." Chapter 3, *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1931, 272 p.

This study aims to show to what extent educational facilities, elementary and secondary, supported at public expense, are available to rural children.

3. COOPER, RICHARD WATSON, and COOPER, HERMANN. *The One-Teacher School in Delaware: A Study in Attendance*. Newark, Delaware: University of Delaware Press, 1925. 434 p.

An attempt to find factors governing the attendance and enrolment of one-teacher schools in Delaware. The causes of absence in order of their importance were found to be: agricultural work, illness, other work, parental indifference, weather, and a few miscellaneous causes such as poverty and truancy.

4. INDIANA STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, DIVISION OF ATTENDANCE. *The Hoosier Attendance Officer*, Indianapolis, Indiana: State Department of Public Instruction.

A periodical for attendance officers published monthly. Contains information as to court decisions, recommendations for improving attendance, tabulation of truancy reports, the work of attendance officers, and related topics.

5. KEESECKER, WARD W. *Laws Relating to Compulsory Education*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1928, No. 20. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1928. 70 p.

An analysis of the compulsory attendance laws of each state, tabulating legislative features relating to school attendance and terms,

6. LIEBLER, CHARLES C. "Qualifications and Compensation of Persons Charged with the Enforcement of Compulsory Education." *Elementary School Journal* 27: 695-706; May, 1927.

An examination of the statutes providing for the qualifications, appointment, and compensation of compulsory education officers.

7. REAVIS, GEORGE H. *Factors Controlling Attendance in Rural Schools*. Contributions to Education, No. 108. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1920. 69 p.

A study of attendance covering five Maryland counties. The results show that the following factors were particularly significant: distance from school; retardation and acceleration in grade placement; rating in class; the teacher's qualifications, and the educational interest of the community.

REGULAR SCHOOL attendance is an attitude of mind which may or may not become a habit. It needs to be instilled in the mental life of rural teachers, parents, and pupils. The elementary school is an institution of society, and passes on to the younger generations, those customs and traditions found to be most worth while for the general welfare of society. Success in life depends in part upon one's regular attendance to the job at hand. The school and the home must cooperate to see that such habits of action are firmly instilled in the youth of the nation. Punctuality and regularity of attendance at school are essential to such training.—Hermann Cooper, *An Accounting of Progress and Attendance of Rural School Children in Delaware*. Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. p. 123.

## 4. A Living and Growing Curriculum<sup>1</sup>

### The Status of the Rural School Curriculum

It is trite but necessary to point out that the way of life for which children must somehow be prepared is astonishingly different from the mode of life followed by their parents and their grandparents. During the last half century, each year has added its quota of change and diversity to civilization<sup>2</sup> until we have at last been driven to accept a condition of constant and accelerating change as the natural order of things. The marvels of new inventions and scientific discoveries have ceased to astonish us. No machine is so uncannily human, no medical discovery so revolutionary, and no feat of engineering so audacious as to cause anything but the mildest ripple of surprise. Our entire culture has changed so rapidly that we have become immune to discoveries and inventions which a generation ago would have startled the world into agitated concern. This increasingly rapid development of mechanical and technical knowledge has revolutionized every aspect of our material life.

While these industrial and mechanical changes have crowded one upon the other, changes no less sweeping and obvious have occurred in social, political, and economic relationships. In these fields, too, incessant shifting and change have become the only sure and predictable characteristic, and mere novelty, while it may annoy us, has ceased to surprise us. Change—radical, rapid, and frequently unpredictable change—is the distinguishing feature of the modern way of life.

Into such a culture the school must help to initiate the successive generations. It must prepare boys and girls to live successfully and happily in an altering world. Since no one can predict the future for even a few years in advance, the school must prepare pupils to adjust intelligently to new ideas, new ways of doing things, new human relationships.<sup>3</sup> Moreover, the school will not make its greatest possible

contribution unless it helps its pupils to participate wisely in the actual direction and management of the social and physical forces about them.<sup>4</sup> To propose such a function for the school at once suggests the inadequacy of any conception of education which is limited to a few routine skills and a few traditional disciplines. Such a conception belongs to the past, for it no longer meets the insistent demands of the present era.

Considerations such as the foregoing have impelled educational leaders to urge the need for extensive and continuous study of what the schools teach and might teach and for thoroughgoing revision of the curriculum in the light of these studies. While disagreements exist as to the exact nature of this revision, a widely-accepted body of general principles and practices has been developed.<sup>5</sup> Many school systems have intensively studied the problem of what to teach and are now operating continuous and progressive programs of curriculum revision. In the main, however, the influence of the modern curriculum has been felt strongly only in the larger city systems. The rural schools have not as yet seen the need for a changed philosophy and content of education. With a few exceptions, the curriculum in rural schools is turned to the dead past.

The following abstracts summarize the findings of a few state school surveys concerning the value of what has been taught in rural schools. While some states have doubtless made great progress since these reports were written, the general picture of the situation is in the main an accurate one.

**Florida:** In general, this study shows an unusual emphasis upon the tool subjects, such as reading, arithmetic, writing, and spelling. There is a corresponding lack of the newer subjectmatter that has been introduced into the elementary school curriculum in response to our changing civilization. This situation holds for both rural and urban schools but is more marked for the rural schools. It was likewise noted in this study that the teachers were following a type of school program that deals almost entirely with children as a group. Very little

<sup>1</sup> For lists of books dealing with general curricular problems consult: "Books Dealing with General Curriculum Problems of the Secondary School," "Books Dealing with General Curriculum Problems of the Junior High School," "Books Dealing with General Curricular Problems." *Research Bulletin* 7: 243; 6: 54; 3: 168-69. September, 1929; January, 1928; September-November, 1925. National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

<sup>2</sup> "Illustrations of Significant Discoveries Since 1890." *Research Bulletin* 7: 177-79; September, 1929.

<sup>3</sup> Kilpatrick, William H. *Education for a Changing Civilization*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1926. 143 p.

<sup>4</sup> Finney, Ross L. *Sociological Philosophy of Education*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1928. 563 p.

<sup>5</sup> National Society for the Study of Education. "Foundations of Curriculum Making." *Twenty-Sixth Yearbook, Part II*. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1926. 236 p.

time was discovered that was set aside for the treatment of boys and girls as individuals. Another shortcoming of the elementary school curriculum is the failure to adjust the curriculum to bright and dull-normal children. . . . The true situation, however, could not be fairly represented without stating that examples of the more modern type of school curriculum were found. . . . On the whole Florida boys and girls are not being offered an elementary school program that meets the demand of present-day conditions. This situation obtains also for the secondary school.<sup>1</sup>

**Mississippi:** The [rural] schools, with their faces turned to the past, cling to much educational material that has long ago outlived its usefulness. Public opinion still has it that what was good enough for the fathers is good enough for the sons. What is needed in the schools, one often hears, is not more of the new-fangled subjects but more of the three R's. To overcome tradition, to supplant the old and outlived with what is genuinely required by the new economic and social life of the people, is the great problem confronting Mississippi, in common with other states.<sup>2</sup>

**New York:** The conclusion of it all is that the curriculum now being pursued by rural children is not providing an educational opportunity consistent with modern standards.<sup>3</sup>

**North Carolina:** Speaking of the rural elementary schools, the report says: Their actual study program, while based on the state course, is extremely narrow, particularly in the one-room schools. It consists in grades 1, 2, 3, and 4 almost exclusively of reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic; seldom indeed in these grades is there instruction in drawing, music, history, geography, physiology, or agriculture. The three R's are likewise prominent in the day's work of the more favored pupils who reach grades 5, 6, and 7; however, attention is given in these grades to geography and physiology, and a little history, with an occasional reading lesson in agriculture. Cooking and sewing for girls and hand-work for boys are almost unknown in the white schools, but a little in these activities is frequently attempted under the direction of the Jeanes teachers in colored schools. . . . It is generally agreed that the state should provide for the children of the open country the advantages of a diversified school program.<sup>4</sup>

**Texas:** This course of study was not organized with the rural ungraded schools in mind. It is not intended for any teacher with more than four grades.

The subjectmatter is outlined by subjects and grades according to city school standards. All subjects are independently organized. Correlation is mentioned but is not worked out in any way that would help the rural teacher reduce his many duties. . . . In making over this curriculum to fit his conditions the rural teacher works blindly and unaided with results such as one might expect. . . . The rural teacher, most heavily burdened, least well-trained, and, in the main, unsupervised, is given a curriculum not suited to rural school conditions and is given only general advice in adjusting it effectively to his own situation. A curriculum should be constructed in terms of the rural school situation.<sup>5</sup>

**Virginia:** A more vital curriculum is needed. The traditional subjects are not sufficient to prepare children for this modern world so that new subjects, topics, and activities should be introduced.<sup>6</sup>

**Virginia:** It is true that the complete state course of study is effective in very few rural or semi-rural schools, the subjects most neglected being music, drawing, nature study, agriculture, sewing, cooking, and manual training.<sup>7</sup>

These and other analyses of the present rural school curriculum may be summarized by the following quotation dealing with rural education in general rather than in any one state:

Curriculum organization and content [of the rural schools] have been and are formal and unrelated to the life of the child, community, or society, while the environment abounds with vital material. The [rural school] curriculum is organized upon the subject-matter-to-be-learned basis, while the child's life has been teeming with potentially educative activities and experiences. . . . The rural school finds in rural life a superior educational laboratory. To neglect it as we have is an educational crime against the rural child.<sup>8</sup>

The need for a thorough reconsideration of the rural school curriculum is indicated by the above material.

## Principles and Practices Improving the Rural School Curriculum

Study of a number of authoritative statements concerning the rural school curriculum leads to the formulation of several general

<sup>1</sup> Florida Educational Survey Commission. *Official Report to the Senate and House of Representatives, Florida State Legislature*. Tallahassee, Fla.: State of Florida, 1922. p. 211-12.

<sup>2</sup> Mississippi Survey Commission, M. V. O'Shea, director. *Public Education in Mississippi*. Jackson, Miss.: State Department of Education, 1926. p. 54.

<sup>3</sup> Works, George A., and others. *Rural School Survey of New York State*. Vol. 4. Ithaca, N. Y.: Joint Committee on Rural Schools, 1922. p. 198.

<sup>4</sup> *Public Education in North Carolina*. Report to Public School Commission of North Carolina. New York: General Education Board, 1921. p. 27-8.

<sup>5</sup> Works, George A., director. *Texas Educational Survey Reports*. Vol. 5. Austin, Texas: Educational Survey Commission, 1925. p. 320, 321, 325, 328.

<sup>6</sup> O'Shea, M. V., director. *Public Education in Virginia*. Report to the Educational Commission of Virginia, Richmond, Va. 1928. p. 116.

<sup>7</sup> Virginia Education Commission and Virginia Survey Staff, Alexander Inglis, director. *Virginia Public Schools*. Part I. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1920. p. 99.

<sup>8</sup> Brim, Orville G. "Guiding Principles in Rural Education." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1931. p. 262.

principles to guide in its revision. The enumeration of these principles does not imply that the ultimate objectives of rural and urban education are different. As a matter of fact, education in city and country has the same general aims. However, the differing environments and the consequent differences in school organization make complete identity between urban and rural curricula impossible. Some of the principles which follow apply to curriculum construction in general; others have particular significance for the rural schools. The list is not intended to be a complete statement of the general principles governing curriculum construction. It merely summarizes what a number of recognized authorities have written on the subject. The references in the footnotes indicate the sources drawn upon and the location of further discussion.

1. Each responsible curriculum-developing unit (usually state or county) should have available exact knowledge as to the distinctive characteristics of its rural population.<sup>1</sup>

2. Courses of study for use over a wide area should not be organized primarily for city educational conditions, leaving difficult adjustments to the rural teachers and supervisors.<sup>2</sup>

3. The primary responsibility of the curriculum is to provide material which will help each rural child to adjust most effectively to the practical and cultural demands of modern life. This does not mean, for most rural pupils, a college-preparatory course.<sup>3</sup>

4. A definite and workable plan of state and county organization for continuous rural curriculum revision should be provided.<sup>4</sup>

5. The educational resources peculiar to rural environment should be discovered and capitalized in the curriculum.<sup>5</sup>

6. The rural school needs to take advantage of all administrative plans which make it feasible to enrich and vary the curriculum without increasing the size of staff.<sup>6</sup>

7. The rural curriculum should be based, to an increasing degree, on comprehensive experimental investigation conducted in rural school environments.<sup>7</sup>

8. The rural curriculum should prepare the rural child to choose wisely his own life and vocation—it should not be limited merely to preparation for the single vocation of agriculture.<sup>8</sup>

*Some recent curriculum revision programs—* Each state and county must handle its own problems of curriculum revision. A stereotyped plan of organization for curriculum construction ought not to be uncritically adopted. The curriculum-constructing organization in each area must be determined in the light of local conditions. However, study of plans in effect elsewhere may be suggestive as to what to adopt or avoid in a particular situation. A few of these plans are described below. Further information about these plans may be secured by following up the references given in the footnotes.<sup>9</sup>

**Maryland:** This state has a well developed county-unit system, with professionally-trained full-time supervisors in each county. State Superintendent A. S. Cook states: "The making of a course of study is the most important instrument of supervision. We do not want a state course of study in Maryland, but we do want twenty-three county courses." On this basis, each county in the state has attacked its own curriculum problems. In Baltimore County, for example, the work began by an age-grade progress survey and the testing of each pupil in reading and arithmetic. This examination of existing conditions was followed by group meetings including every teacher in the county. At these meetings the rural teachers discussed these questions:

1. What is the teacher's responsibility in the revision of a course of study?

2. What three subjects in our curriculum have been given sufficient thought to justify selection for immediate detailed revision?

3. What definite suggestions do you offer regarding: (a) procedure for revision, (b) modification of content, and (c) activities as factors in the curriculum?

Teachers' institutes during the year also discussed curriculum revision. Tentative drafts of proposed changes were distributed to teachers for try-out under normal classroom conditions. As the supervisors visited classes, they noted the success or failure of these proposals. The result of this united study was a course of study in reading and arithmetic.

<sup>1</sup> Dunn, Fannie W. "The Rural Elementary Curriculum." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1931. p. 120. Brim, Orville G. "Guiding Principles in Rural Education." *Loc. cit.*, p. 263.

<sup>2</sup> Dunn, Fannie W. *Op. cit.*, p. 121. Brim, Orville G. *Op. cit.*, p. 263. Works, George A., director. *Rural School Survey of New York State*. Vol. 4, Chapter IX, "Elementary Rural School Curriculum—General Principles," by Orville G. Brim, p. 109.

<sup>3</sup> Ferriss, Emory N. "Some Important Curricular Problems in Rural Secondary Education." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1931. p. 151. Works, *op. cit.*, Vol. 7, Chapter VII, "The Curriculum," by E. N. Ferriss, p. 179.

<sup>4</sup> Ferriss, *op. cit.*, p. 152. Works, *op. cit.*, Vol. 4, p. 110-11.

<sup>5</sup> Ferriss, *op. cit.*, p. 152. Brim, *op. cit.*, p. 262.

<sup>6</sup> Ferriss, *op. cit.*, p. 153. Works, *op. cit.*, Vol. 7, p. 180.

<sup>7</sup> Brim, *op. cit.*, p. 264. Works, *op. cit.*, Vol. 7, p. 173.

<sup>8</sup> Works, *op. cit.*, Vol. 7, p. 173. National Society for the Study of Education. "The Foundations of Curriculum Making." *Twenty-Sixth Yearbook*, Part II. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1926. 236 p.

<sup>9</sup> The plans presented here refer to state and county practice only. For suggestive descriptions of city practice in curriculum revision see: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. "The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum." *Fourth Yearbook*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1926. p. 28-58.

metic in which each of the teachers in Baltimore County could see the best of his own thinking reflected.<sup>1</sup>

**Alabama:** In 1929 the State Board of Education appointed a committee to revise the state course of study for elementary schools. Since one objective of the committee was to produce a course of study which would be acceptable to teachers, supervisors, and administrators throughout the state, the cooperation of various groups of educators within the state was secured. Representatives of the State Department of Education, subjectmatter specialists, principals, superintendents, city supervisors, state regional supervisors, county superintendents, and approximately 5,000 teachers participated in the work of revision, guided by the advice of an expert in curriculum-making.

The relationship of the state to localities with respect to the objectives, content, method, and outcomes of the curriculum was determined by the application of two principles. The first, an interpretation of "equalization of educational opportunity," was to the effect that "a state may make mandatory such curriculum materials as will guarantee the adjustment of instruction to the abilities of individual pupils;" the second, that "a state should make available curriculum materials which will encourage local progress."

The use of these two principles in formulating the objectives of the curriculum led to the conclusion that general objectives should be prescribed by the state; whereas specific objectives are only suggested and may be varied to meet local conditions. While the state requires the use of certain textbook, the content is not necessarily limited to the material contained therein. The state course of study encourages local systems to supplement the textbook with outside material. Methods are suggested, but there are no mandatory regulations governing them. Type lessons are presented, ranging from the recitation type to units of work.

While the state course of study suggests desirable outcomes in each grade and subject for the average child, teachers are warned not to expect the same results from all children. The committee considered that state examinations at certain periods encourage practices that are contrary to both principles cited above. Individual abilities and aptitudes are apt to be disregarded and instruction directed toward passing the examination. The committee felt that the rough measure provided by their definition of outcomes was more desirable than the mandatory state examination.<sup>2</sup>

**Idaho:** During the school year 1927-28 the State Board of Education approved for tentative use in the elementary schools a revised course of study in reading, language, spelling, and penmanship. The

preparation of the course was a project of the class in curriculum study in the summer session at the University of Idaho. The work was promoted and directed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. When the course of study has been tried out in the schools, and necessary revisions made it will be adopted as part of the complete revision in prospect for the entire course. The State Education Association and the classroom teachers of the state will cooperate in the revision and subsequent testing of the curriculum.<sup>3</sup>

**Indiana:** The State Superintendent of Public Instruction appointed four committees to revise the elementary curriculum. The direction and supervision of the work was in charge of the General Executive Committee. The task of determining curriculum practice in the subject fields devolved upon the Subject Executive Committee. Data to be used by the Subject Committee was collected and compiled by the Experimentation and Research Committee and plans for adapting the course of study to the needs of the small school were formulated by the Small School Committee. Much of the work in the various subject fields was done by subcommittees.

A bulletin,<sup>4</sup> setting forth the principles and objectives of the revised curriculum was prepared by the General Executive Committee to serve as a guide to the subject committees in the construction of the curriculum and the teachers and supervisors for whom it is being prepared. A cooperative plan of curriculum construction was recommended so that a more extensive and effective use of the completed course could result from the participation in its construction by those for whom it is devised.

The course of study is based upon the general principle that "education is the development of the individual that fits him to live well in a social environment." The "integrating" function of education is recognized as the basic objective in the development of the course of study. The "seven cardinal principles"<sup>5</sup> are accepted as general objectives of education: health, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, ethical character, worthy use of leisure, vocational efficiency, and good citizenship.

Certain guiding principles of elementary curriculum revision are suggested, as: curriculum construction and revision should be a continuous process; the curriculum should be constructed by educators although the attitude of the general public should be considered; the success of curriculum revision is measured largely by the degree to which it is understood and used by the teachers of the state; the construction or revision of a curriculum should be based upon the result of scientific research; there should be a reasonable degree of

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 47-50.

<sup>2</sup> Caswell, H. L. "The Alabama Curriculum Program." *Peabody Journal of Education* 8: 16-23; July, 1930.

<sup>3</sup> Idaho, *Eighth Biennial Report of the State Board of Education, 1927-28*. Boise, Idaho: State Board of Education, 1928, p. 24.

<sup>4</sup> *Guiding Principles of Elementary Curriculum Revision for the State of Indiana*. Indianapolis: Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 107, 1929. 13 p.

<sup>5</sup> *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1918, No. 35. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 1918. p. 11.

uniformity in grade placement of fundamental subjects, allowing for local variations.<sup>1</sup>

**Iowa:** The preparation of a new elementary course of study was a major project in Iowa in 1927-28. An executive committee was appointed to take charge of the work. Subsidiary committees, composed of representatives of the various educational groups of the state, prepared the units of subjectmatter under the direction of the executive committee. The objectives of the course of study, together with a report of committee procedures, were presented at the annual meeting of the Iowa State Teachers Association.

In accordance with the plan of the executive committee, the material for each subject was organized to include first, a preliminary statement of the aims and objectives of the course; second, general directions dealing with the books and materials required for teaching the subject; third, a statement of general methods and suggestions for typical exercises or teaching devices; fourth, an outline of the course of study by years, including essential subjectmatter, a statement of the relation of the course of study to the textbook in use, important methods of teaching, standards of achievement, the use of tests, the relation of the work in this particular subject to other subjects in the same grade, special helps to rural teachers, special primary problems and a list of pupils' references; fifth, a minimum list of books for the teacher's professional library.

Since the course of study would be used in both rural and graded schools, the material could include only the core of instruction. The fact that a variety of textbooks were in use in the state also had to be considered. An attempt was made to adapt the organization and language of the course of study to the untrained teacher.<sup>2</sup>

**New Mexico:** The preparation of a course of study for the elementary schools was undertaken by classes studying curriculum revision in the University of New Mexico. In the summer of 1927 the class made a study of the literature pertaining to philosophy of education, modern methods of teaching, scientific studies of the determination of subjectmatter to be included, and methods of planning and developing courses of study. The task of studying material in the various subjects taught in the elementary schools was assigned to committees. In the summer of 1928, the class prepared a course of study in language. Any teacher in the state could participate in the construction of the curriculum. Contributions from teachers were integrated with the work of the class.

The tentative course thus prepared was presented to the officers of the New Mexico Education Association, the State Department of Education, repre-

sentatives from higher institutions of learning, and city and county superintendents. The course was then revised in the light of suggestions and criticisms obtained from these sources and adapted for use in the schools.<sup>3</sup>

**Oklahoma:** The Twelfth Legislature of Oklahoma appropriated the sum of \$10,000 for the purpose of constructing an elementary course of study. The undertaking was made a cooperative enterprise. Thousands of teachers and administrative officials helped to work out the details. A central committee, consisting of twenty-two teachers and superintendents, directed the work of construction.<sup>4</sup>

**Pennsylvania:** Recognizing that changes in elementary school procedure necessitate modifications of the course of study, a committee was appointed to revise that in use in the schools of Allegheny County, Pennsylvania. This committee composed of supervising principals worked in conjunction with the county superintendent and his assistants. It was decided that the revised course of study should "point out the aims of instruction in each subject, indicate the materials or content in each field, suggest types of activities or procedures to be employed and indicate desirable achievements to be secured." It was also decided that the teachers of the county should participate in the program of revision. Work in the various subject fields was done by committees, in some instances guided by the advice of subjectmatter specialists from the University of Pittsburgh. The committees examined various courses of study and investigated a number of scientific studies in curriculum construction in preparation for the work of revision.

Individual differences among pupils were recognized in the revision. An attempt was made to keep standards flexible. The committee report points out that the new course of study is not to be regarded as a constant, but that it will serve its purpose best when used to guide child development.<sup>5</sup>

**Tennessee:** In 1927 a course of study was prepared for the elementary schools of Hamilton County. The task of developing this curriculum was undertaken by teachers in the county, working in committees. Each subject to be included was studied by these committees who made a final report setting forth the objectives with means of attaining them, sources of materials, and minimum requirements. In addition to the subjects required to be taught in elementary schools by the state laws, the county course of study lists the following: health and nutrition, nature study, kindness to animals, drawing and citizenship. The completed course of study was printed as a manual and a copy was placed in the hands of each teacher with instructions to note changes which should be made from time to time.<sup>6</sup>

**West Virginia:** During the school year 1926-27, fifteen committees, composed of over eighteen hun-

<sup>1</sup> *Guiding Principles of Elementary Curriculum Revision for the State of Indiana*. Indianapolis: Department of Public Instruction, Bulletin 107, 1929. 13 p.

<sup>2</sup> Samuelson, Agnes. "The Organization of the Iowa Elementary Course of Study." *Elementary School Journal* 29: 416-20; February, 1929.

<sup>3</sup> U. S. Department of the Interior. *Biennial Survey of Education, 1926-28*. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 16. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. p. 129.

<sup>4</sup> Oklahoma. *Thirteenth Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1928-30*. Oklahoma City: State Department of Public Instruction, 1930. p. 14.

<sup>5</sup> *School Report of Allegheny County, Pennsylvania, 1927-28*. Pittsburgh, Pa.: 595 Union Trust Building. p. 13-5.

<sup>6</sup> *Fifty-third Annual Report of the Hamilton County, Tennessee, Public Schools, 1929-30*. Hamilton County, Tennessee, p. 25-6.

dred teachers, principals, superintendents, and members of normal school and college faculties, were appointed to construct an elementary course of study. These committees worked under the direction of the state superintendent. A tentative course of study was developed and approved for use during the school year 1927-28 by the State Board of Education. After a thorough trial in schools throughout the state, the course was revised in accordance with the results of this state-wide try-out. The State Superintendent in this report points out that there is no such thing as a finished course of study and suggests that bulletins showing improved phases of the curriculum be published from time to time.<sup>1</sup>

Lack of space prevents the inclusion of statements relative to the curriculum programs now in progress in many other states and counties exercising leadership in this field.

## Selected References

1. BRIM, ORVILLE G. *Rural Education*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1923. 302 p.

Discusses the purposes of the rural school as related to rural problems, proposes standards for judging these purposes, points out the educational possibilities and need of the rural environment, and draws certain conclusions concerning practical implications for rural elementary education.

2. CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Rural Life and Education*. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1922. 377 p.

Among other educational problems the author discusses those pertaining to the rural school curriculum; such as, the influence of tradition and the adaptation of the curriculum to the life of the rural community.

3. DUNN, FANNIE W. *A Rural Curriculum: An Outstanding Need in Rural Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Rural School Leaflet No. 40, 1926. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 4 p.

Emphasizes the need of a curriculum for rural schools which takes account of the rural situation. Suggests that it should provide for profitable use of rural potentialities.

4. HEYL, HELEN HAY. "Differentiation in Curricula to Meet the Life and Needs of Rural Children." *Rural School Supervision*, U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1927, No. 24. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. p. 43-6.

Attempts to answer the question "In what ways and to what degree should elementary-school curricula vary significantly as between rural and urban regions?" Discusses objectives of rural and urban elementary education, variations in approach, emphasis, and content.

5. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Department of Superintendence. "The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum." *Fourth*

*Yearbook*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1926. 520 p.

Discusses fundamental considerations in curriculum building, and tells how city, county, and state school systems are attacking the problem of curriculum revision; also contains reports of national subject committees.

6. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Research Division. "Keeping Pace with the Advancing Curriculum." *Research Bulletin* 3: 112-61; September-November, 1925. "Creating a Curriculum for Adolescent Youth." *Research Bulletin* 6: 2-79; January, 1928. "Vitalizing the High-School Curriculum." *Research Bulletin* 7: 174-275; September, 1929. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

These three bulletins deal with the elementary junior high-school and high-school curriculum, respectively. They discuss the curriculum in relation to changes in modern life and recent advances in educational science. The necessity for differentiation of courses of study to meet the needs of pupils of different interests and abilities is emphasized. The bulletins also summarize research findings concerning curriculum-building in the various subject-matter fields. Selected bibliographies are included.

7. NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION. *Twenty-Sixth Yearbook*, Part I. "Curriculum-Making: Past and Present." Part II, "The Foundations of Curriculum-Making." Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1926. 475 and 236 p.

Part I reviews a century of curriculum-making, discusses the influence of such factors as the theory of mental discipline and modern scientific research on the curriculum. Part II presents a general statement of the working principles of curriculum construction.

8. REYNOLDS, ANNIE. *Characteristic Features of Recent Superior State Courses of Study*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Rural School Leaflet No. 41. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1926. 13 p.

Reviews general conditions making for better state courses of study. Discusses the adaptation of state courses to needs of rural teachers and gives illustrations of specific improvement in the treatment of elementary subjects.

9. SNEDDEN, DAVID. "Schools for Farmers' Sons—Present Deficiencies—Future Prospects." *Journal of Rural Education* 1: 241-46; February, 1922.

Suggests flexible curricula and suitable courses for the able-minded, the bookish, and the mechanical.

10. U. S. DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, OFFICE OF EDUCATION. *Biennial Survey of Education, 1926-28*. Bulletin, 1930, No. 16. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. Chapter 5, "Rural Education." p. 127-30.

Summarizes the work in curriculum construction and revision for rural schools.

<sup>1</sup> West Virginia. *Report of the State Superintendent of Free Schools, West Virginia, 1927-28*. Charleston: State Department of Education. 1928. p. 23-6.

## 5. Better Teaching in Rural Schools

### The Present Quality of Teaching in Rural Schools

As long as the present inadequate training and salaries of most rural teachers continue,<sup>1</sup> the quality of teaching offered can never rise to the greatest heights of efficiency. Nevertheless, while working for better qualified teachers, much remains to be done and can be done to improve the quality of the instruction now being offered.

Surveys of current teaching practices in rural schools yield rather discouraging findings. A summary of a few of these studies will indicate the general nature of the existing situation. A study of 1343 recitations in the rural schools of New York in 1922 showed that 39 percent involved drill, 46 percent involved rehearsals of the textbook, and only 3 percent involved motivated discussion centering around a problem which demanded a solution. To these textbook rehearsals and drill lessons, the pupils made little contribution of their own. In 96 percent of all the recitations, material was derived solely from the pages of the text. In only 10 percent of the recitations did the pupils contribute information from their own experience and in only 17.5 percent did the teacher attempt to

relate the classwork to the experiences of the pupil. Only 14 percent of the assignments involved constructive work, problem-solving, and appreciation; only 7 percent were developed by the class itself; and only 5 percent gave attention to the differences in individual needs and experiences.<sup>2</sup> A similar study of 1246 recitations in Texas<sup>3</sup> rural schools and of 238 recitations in open country and village schools in South Dakota<sup>4</sup> yielded similar conclusions.

In the Utah School Survey an attempt was made to indicate both strong and weak points in the teaching as observed. Some of the findings with respect to two subjects only are presented in Figure 1.

*Crumbling the teacher's time*—Budgeting the hours of school time among the various grades and subjects is an especially difficult and important phase of successful teaching in rural schools. The California Curriculum Study found that the preparation of a time schedule was "the greatest difficulty which teachers in rural schools were facing."<sup>5</sup> The investigation found that some teachers were attempting to handle more than thirty-five classes in a single day; that the rural schools overemphasized reading, spelling, and arithmetic and gave too little attention to the content subjects, that sub-

<sup>1</sup> See Section 7 of this bulletin for evidence on this point.

<sup>2</sup> Works, George A., director. "The Teaching Personnel." *Rural School Survey of New York State*. Vol. 4. Ithaca, N. Y.: Joint Committee on Rural Schools, 1922. Part II. "Elementary Rural School Curriculum." O. G. Brim, p. 189-98.

<sup>3</sup> Works, George A., director. "Courses of Study and Instruction." *Texas Educational Survey Reports*, Vol. 5. Austin, Texas: Educational Survey Commission, 1924. Chapter 10. "The Actual Curriculum Presented in School." p. 365-79.

<sup>4</sup> U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. *The Educational System of South Dakota*. Bulletin, 1918, No. 31. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1918. p. 114-30.

<sup>5</sup> Bagley, William C. and Kyte, George C. *The California Curriculum Study*. Berkeley, California: The University of California Press, 1926. p. 68.

FIGURE 1.—SUMMARY OF READING AND ARITHMETIC TEACHING OBSERVED IN THE UTAH SCHOOL SURVEY

| Subject         | Strong Points                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       | Weak Points                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 |
|-----------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1               | 2                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   | 3                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                           |
| Reading.....    | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Use of supplementary reading material as well as regular textbooks.</li> <li>2. Skillful checks used by teachers to determine pupil's comprehension of material read silently.</li> <li>3. Use of home-made and commercial seat-work material to re-enforce class instruction.</li> </ol> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Pupils sometimes read word by word while the teacher printed or wrote.</li> <li>2. Pupils sometimes pronounced words and phrases in concert.</li> <li>3. Some teachers were mechanically using formal procedures and failing to secure the understanding and interest of their pupils.</li> </ol> |
| Arithmetic..... | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Objective teaching through imitative games, such as "playing store".</li> <li>2. Practical use made of learned material,—as in telling time by the clock.</li> <li>3. Use of practice tests.</li> </ol>                                                                                   | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Waste of class time in having pupils check their answers to problems during the class period.</li> <li>2. Loss of time in unnecessary explanations of problems.</li> </ol>                                                                                                                        |

<sup>1</sup> Adapted from U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education. *Survey of Education in Utah*. Bulletin, 1926, No. 18. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1926. p. 113-25.

jects were scheduled at inappropriate times (e.g. physical education immediately after lunch; penmanship immediately after play periods); and that subjects involving similar activities over a long period of time were often grouped together.<sup>1</sup>

Similar conditions are reported by other investigations. The Texas Survey found that among 154 teachers in one-room schools, only 12 had as few as 20 classes per day, while 10 reported more than 40 classes per day. As a consequence, class periods were extremely brief. Six classes recited two minutes; twenty-six recited three minutes; one-fourth of all the classes met for 10 minutes or less.<sup>2</sup> The 3 R's were highly emphasized and frequently such subjects as civics, nature study, hygiene, and music were given no place in the program. Similarly, the New York Rural School Survey reported a median of 29 recitations per day in the eight-grade rural schools and nearly half of these recitations were 10 minutes in length, or shorter.<sup>3</sup> Earlier surveys in Virginia<sup>4</sup> and South Dakota<sup>5</sup> revealed a similar situation.

These small classes with only a few minutes allotted to each constitute one of the major difficulties of rural school teaching. As Horace Mann wrote in 1838, "they crumble the teacher's time into dust."

### Improving the Quality of Instruction in Rural Schools

As already pointed out, the problem of high-quality instruction in rural schools is first of all a problem of placing a trained and highly capable teacher in every rural schoolhouse. This can hardly be done under the salary schedules for rural teachers prevailing at present in most parts of the country. Nevertheless, much can be done to facilitate the work of the rural school teacher and to make it more effective. Some of the methods for improving instruction which have been used successfully follow:<sup>6</sup>

#### 1. *Suggestions from the state course of study*—Some of the new state courses of study

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.* p. 89, 106, 118, 129.

<sup>2</sup> Works, George A., director. "Courses of Study and Instruction." *Texas Educational Survey Reports*, Vol. 5. Austin, Texas: Educational Survey Commission, 1924. p. 321-4.

<sup>3</sup> Works, George A. *Op. cit.* p. 161-3.

<sup>4</sup> Inglis, Alexander, Director. *Virginia Public Schools*. Part I. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co. 1920. p. 97-102, 325-7.

<sup>5</sup> *Op. cit.* p. 114.

<sup>6</sup> Improvement of instruction through the supervision program is separately treated in a later section.

<sup>7</sup> Reynolds, Annie. *Characteristic Features of Recent Superior State Courses of Study*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Rural School Leaflet, No. 41. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, April, 1926. 13 p. Reineohl, Charles Myron. *Analytic Survey of State Courses of Study for Elementary Schools*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1922, No. 42. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1922. 116 p.

<sup>8</sup> Caswell, Hollis L. *Program Making in Small Elementary Schools*. Field Studies, No. 1. Nashville, Tenn.: George Peabody College for Teachers, 1930. 77 p.

<sup>9</sup> For a summary of prevailing practice and a bibliography see: Mann, Carleton Hunter, *How Schools Use Their Time*. Contributions to Education, No. 333. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. 202 p.

have been prepared with the needs of rural schools in mind and especially helpful material for rural school teachers has been included.<sup>7</sup> A well-made state course of study will help the rural teacher. It should be suggestive but not highly restrictive in nature. It should encourage individual initiative and local studies of curriculum problems.

2. *Planning the daily program*—Much helpful research has been conducted on time-allotment practices in rural schools. One of the outstanding problems faced by the teacher in a small rural school is the budgeting of time for recitation purposes. A technic for constructing programs according to the needs of particular schools has recently been suggested.<sup>8</sup>

3. *Effective use of time*—In order to utilize the school day most effectively these suggestions may be followed, as far as conditions will permit:

a. Subjects which are closely related in content may be taught as a single unit. Suggested correlations as found in 26 model state courses of study are listed in Table 2. Over half of the model programs suggested the correlations of history with civics and writing with drawing.

b. Subjects or grades or both may be alternated from year to year. See Table 2.

c. Grades may be grouped into divisions, each division being taught as a single unit, although each child is definitely assigned to a given grade within the division. The frequency of certain grade combinations, as recommended by state courses of study, is shown in Table 3. The most commonly recommended combinations are: grades 5 and 6 in spelling, reading, and arithmetic; grades 3 and 4 in reading; and grades 7 and 8 in reading, language, spelling, and arithmetic.

d. Care may be exercised to see that subjects are not scheduled at inappropriate hours of the day.

e. The teacher's special interest in a particular grade or subject should not be allowed to distort the schedule of classes.

f. Content and appreciation subjects should be given a place in the program commensurate with their importance. Over-emphasis on the drill subjects should be avoided.<sup>9</sup>

g. A wider use of directed study, individual reading, and self-instruction may relieve the overcrowded program and at the same time provide for individual needs.

**TABLE 2.—COMBINATION AND ALTER-  
NATION OF SUBJECTS SUGGESTED  
IN 26 MODEL PROGRAMS IN STATE  
COURSES OF STUDY<sup>1</sup>**

| Subjects Combined or Alternated | Number of programs | Grades most frequently suggested |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1                               | 2                  | 3                                |
| History with civics.....        | 15                 | 7-8                              |
| History with geography.....     | 7                  | 5-6                              |
| Writing with drawing.....       | 12                 | All classes                      |
| Reading with spelling.....      | 8                  | 1-4                              |
| Reading with history.....       | 7                  | 3-5                              |
| Reading with language.....      | 5                  | 1-3                              |
| Geography with hygiene.....     | 6                  | 5-6                              |
| Language with spelling.....     | 6                  | 1-3                              |
| Hygiene with agriculture.....   | 5                  | 7-8                              |

<sup>1</sup> Reinoehl, Charles Myron. *Analytic Survey of State Courses of Study for Rural Elementary Schools*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1922, No. 42. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1923. p. 22.

4. *Help from professional reading*—Space does not permit detailed descriptions of improved teaching practices which have been worked out in rural school situations. Below is a list of books which describes how these improved practices have been put into effect. If every rural teacher and school officer could read one of these books each term, a stream of new and effective teaching devices would soon begin to permeate the practice of teaching in the rural schools.<sup>1</sup>

### Selected References

1. BENEDICT, AGNES E. *Children at the Cross Roads*. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, Division of Publications, 1930: 238 p.

Individual case stories of the work of visiting teachers among maladjusted rural children in Monmouth County, New Jersey; Huron County,

Ohio; and Boone County, Missouri. This work was under the direction of the National Committee on Visiting Teachers.

2. COLLINGS, ELLSWORTH. *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1923. 346 p.

Report of an extended experiment with a project curriculum in a small rural school for the purpose of comparing results with schools using the traditional type. The curriculum devised for use in this experiment differs from the usual offerings of the rural school, its content being selected from the purposes of the pupils in real life. Four projects, called excursion, hand, play and story, made up the curriculum. Two "control" schools, similar to the experimental school in all respects save curriculums, were selected for comparison. All three schools used in this experiment were located in McDonald County, Missouri. At the end of four years the experimental school was found to rate higher than the "control" schools with respect to acquisition of common facts and skills, attitudes toward the school and education in general, and desirable changes in community life.

3. COOLEY, ROSSA B. *School Acres: An Adventure in Rural Education*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1930. 166 p.

Account of an experiment in negro education in the Penn School, St. Helena's Island, South Carolina. This school was founded by Laura M. Towne during the Civil War. It has endeavored to provide for the negro an education adapted to his needs.

4. DEWEY, EVELYN. *New Schools for Old*. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1919. 337 p.

The story of the transformation of the Porter school, near Kirksville, Missouri, under the leadership of a teacher who was able to see the latent possibilities of the one-room school. Gives detailed account of the reconstruction of the school plant and of the reorganization of the school and social life of the community. Shows what can be done toward the solution of the

<sup>1</sup> The list is restricted to a few books describing actual conditions. Many of the standard textbooks on rural school teaching, not included here, have useful chapters describing typical experiences in rural schools.

**TABLE 3.—GRADE COMBINATIONS IN SCHOOL SUBJECTS IN 26 MODEL PROGRAMS IN STATE COURSES OF STUDY<sup>1</sup>**

| Subjects          | Number of programs combining |                |                |                |                |                |                |
|-------------------|------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
|                   | Grades 1 and 2               | Grades 2 and 3 | Grades 3 and 4 | Grades 4 and 5 | Grades 5 and 6 | Grades 6 and 7 | Grades 7 and 8 |
| 1                 | 2                            | 3              | 4              | 5              | 6              | 7              | 8              |
| Reading.....      | 13                           | 5              | 24             | 6              | 19             | 5              | 19             |
| Language.....     | 15                           | 5              | 16             | 6              | 16             | 6              | 19             |
| Spelling.....     | 3                            | 2              | 18             | 10             | 26             | 12             | 21             |
| Arithmetic.....   | 10                           | 1              | 16             | 5              | 22             | 6              | 20             |
| History.....      | 4                            | 4              | 4              | 4              | 11             | 5              | 18             |
| Geography.....    | 1                            | 2              | 10             | 8              | 15             | 8              | 13             |
| Hygiene.....      | 4                            | 4              | 3              | 4              | 12             | 4              | 10             |
| Nature study..... | 11                           | 5              | 8              | 1              | 5              |                |                |
| Agriculture.....  |                              |                |                | 2              | 1              | 5              | 6              |

<sup>1</sup> Reinoehl, Charles Myron. *Op. cit.* p. 20.

economic, social, and ethical problems encountered in a rural community.

5. DUNN, FANNIE W., and EVERETT, MARCIA A. *Four Years in a Country School*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. 173 p.

Report of the progress of an experimental rural school conducted by Teachers College, Columbia University, at Quaker Grove, Warren County, New Jersey, with a view to working out, in a typical rural school situation, the organization and curriculum best adapted to the conditions of the one-teacher school. Tells how certain problems were dealt with, as: child labor on the farm, educating children from foreign-speaking homes, and providing for pupils who are mentally too immature for first grade. The school building and equipment, the curriculum, the method of grouping pupils, and the daily work in the classroom are described in detail.

6. FIELD, JESSIE W. *The Corn Lady: the Story of a Country Teacher's Work*. Chicago: A. Flanagan Company, 1911. 107 p.

Personal letters in which a young teacher tells of her attempts to relate the work of a one-room country school to the life of a rural community in Iowa. An old book, but still good.

7. HATCHER, O. LATHAM, Editor. *A Mountain School*. Richmond, Virginia: Garrett & Massie, Inc. 1930. 248 p.

Report of an experiment in the mountain school of Konnarock, Virginia. Gives an account, not only of the school, but of the homes from which the children come to the school, their parents, and the children themselves. Discusses problems relating to the curriculum, the testing program, teaching the various subjects, social and recreational activities, and character building.

8. KIRKPATRICK, MARION G. *The Rural School from Within*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1917. 302 p.

The writer gives an account of his experiences as a teacher of a Kansas rural school. The problems and mistakes of the beginning teacher are treated sympathetically. Such problems as leadership in the community, "managing" the pupils and the school board, and repairing the school building receive humorous as well as sympathetic treatment.

9. MALCOLM, DAVID JOHNSTON. *The Letters of a County Superintendent to His Daughter*. New York: Benjamin H. Sanborn and Co., 1927. 165 p.

Recounts the actual experiences of a county superintendent, in the form of personal letters. Treats of the problems of the rural teacher with practical suggestions for their solution. Deals with questions of discipline, methods of conducting the recitation, making programs and lesson plans, beautifying the school grounds, and securing community cooperation and support.

10. NELSON, C. A., and WINDES, E. E. *A Type Rural High School*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1924, No. 4. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1924. 36 p.

A description of the Mount Vernon High School, Skagit County, Washington, a typical union high school. Gives the essential details of the organization of the district, transportation of pupils, organization of the school, the buildings and equipment, the student body, administration, the teaching staff, curricula and vocational courses of study.

11. "SCHOOLS WHICH ARE PROPHECIES." A series of articles in the *Journal of the National Education Association*.

The following articles in this series describe rural or semi-rural schools: "A Rural School Blazes a New Trail." Bessie M. King. October, 1928. "The Dream of a Far-Seeing Educator." Glenn K. Kelly, May, 1930. "A Midwest Rural School." Charles W. Howard. February, 1928.

12. SMITH, CLARA H., and ALVEY, LA RAE. *Milpitas—A Rural School Project in Teacher Training*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Rural School Leaflet, No. 27, 1924. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1924. 19 p.

The Milpitas School was made into a training school for teachers in 1921 by the San Jose, California, State Teachers College. This was done with three objectives in mind: (1) to give prospective teachers an opportunity to teach in a rural school; (2) to give them an opportunity to teach children of foreign parents; (3) to demonstrate what could be done in a rural school by utilizing existing agencies. This report gives an account of the progress of the project and of results obtained.

13. STABLETON, JOHN KAY. *Diary of a Western Schoolmaster*. Chicago, Ill.: Ainsworth and Co., 1900. 140 p.

An account of fifteen years' experience in dealing with adolescent boys in the school room. Reported as case studies, giving a character sketch of each boy, his particular problem, and the method of handling it. Out of print, but available in many libraries.

THE CHIEF ESSENTIAL is a teacher qualified for the desired type of work. . . . With the advance of the progressive educational idea, and its concrete exemplification in hundreds of situations, suggestions and materials are increasingly available. Have we not reached the time when we are justified in expecting that every rural school, however small, shall be a place of genuine education of high quality?—Fannie W. Dunn, *Teachers College, Columbia University. Proceedings, 1930, National Education Association. p. 474.*

## 6. Rural School Interpretation

Rural people are deeply interested in the welfare of their children. They want their children to develop into healthy, responsible, successful men and women. But rural parents frequently fail to understand the large contribution which the schools can make to the future well-being of their children. They fail to recognize that an effective school can guide and encourage the mental, social, and physical growth of their children. They tend to think of all education outside of the fundamentals as mere "booklearning." This limited view of education is due largely to the fact that educational leaders have failed to interpret the broader aspects of the educational program to rural people.

Furthermore, even when the rural public has been drawn to a consideration of school policy, the approach has been almost exclusively from the viewpoint of financial support. Peck and Stevenson, in a study of publicity campaigns in rural school districts, found that 66 percent of the campaigns were concerned with the raising of funds for capital outlays and 16 percent with increases in teachers' salaries. On the other hand, only 6 percent of these campaigns were concerned with building up interest in education as a social process, and only 2 percent were aimed at the development of some aspect of rural community life.<sup>1</sup> These facts suggest the need for continuous and comprehensive educational interpretation in rural areas. Campaigns for increased school support are at times highly desirable and even necessary. But such campaigns should grow out of a continuous and broad program of school publicity, rather than being merely spasmodic and hasty emergency appeals for more funds.<sup>2</sup>

### The Need for Interpreting the Schools to Rural People

Alexander reports an investigation in this field based on the opinions of 86 successful rural school officials.<sup>3</sup> According to this study, the following motives rank high in effectiveness in

securing public support for rural school programs:

1. To give one's children as good a chance in life as any children get.
2. To give children a better education than their parents had.
3. To make farm life more attractive.
4. To provide high-school opportunities close to home.

The agencies used in a group of county school systems for enlisting public support and appreciation have been studied by Hines and Jones,<sup>4</sup> and by Peck and Stevenson.<sup>5</sup>

Table 4 presents certain findings from these two investigations. While the two studies are not strictly comparable, the table shows in a general way how the publicity methods actually in use compare with judgments as to their relative effectiveness. It also indicates the wide range of publicity media which are available for use in programs of rural school interpretation. Figure 2 illustrates how one medium, the school newspaper, may be used to inform the rural public of the needs and services of its schools.

In any such program there will be found certain groups which are readily won over to an appreciation of the value of education and certain other groups which are more difficult to convince. Peck and Stevenson found that the following groups rendered the strongest support to education: families with children in school, business and professional men, women's clubs, and skilled labor. Among the most active opponents the same investigators list retired citizens and families with no children in school.<sup>6</sup> Prominent among the causes for failure of campaigns for rural school support are these: ignorance of the people, lack of campaign organization, lack of public interest, lack of effective publicity, hard times, and lack of evidence as to the need for the improvements requested. These causes for failure indicate that in many cases the school people themselves are in part to blame for the lack of appreciation of educational values which farmers frequently reveal.

<sup>1</sup> Peck, R. R. and Stevenson, P. R. "Rural Publicity." *Educational Research Bulletin* 2: 315-20; November 28, 1923.

<sup>2</sup> For a bibliography of school publicity consult: *Journal of the National Education Association* 19: 82; March, 1930.

<sup>3</sup> Alexander, Carter. "Publicity Work for Better Support of Rural Schools." *Journal of Educational Research* 7: 1-13; January, 1923.

<sup>4</sup> Hines, Harlan Cameron and Jones, Robinson G. *Public School Publicity*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1923. 72 p.

<sup>5</sup> *Op. cit.* p. 317.

<sup>6</sup> Peck and Stevenson. *Op. cit.* p. 318.

## Successful Plans for Interpreting the Schools to Rural People

Following are a few illustrations of successful experience in rural school publicity.

1. *Securing a township high school in Illinois*<sup>1</sup>—Increased enrolment in an Illinois district rendered inadequate the building occupied jointly by high school and graded school. The two school boards decided that the only solution lay in erecting a new building for the township high-school district. Feeling the need for the widest possible publicity concerning existing conditions and future needs, they enlisted the support of the local paper and presented the problem through its columns. In an assembly of all the school officials of the township a resolution was passed endorsing the proposition for a new high-school building and calling a public mass meeting to present the facts to the people. In calling the meeting the columns of the local paper were again used freely and handbills were posted throughout the village and township.

The proposition was put before a representa-

tive gathering of business and professional men, farmers, and people from every walk of life, and a general discussion was entered into by the public. The result was the adoption of a resolution endorsing the proposition and calling upon the high-school board to take the necessary steps. The petition to call a special election for selecting a high-school site, erecting the building, and issuing bonds was started then and was three days later handed to the secretary of the high-school board, signed by over five hundred voters.

The board met at once and called the special election. They were asking a \$75,000 bond issue, almost the five percent limit allowed by law, and a five acre site. Notices and sample ballots were posted in every prominent place in the township. The newspaper also carried the notice and sample ballot and gave publicity to existing conditions. Members of the board went before the local commercial association and the Tax Payers' League explaining educational problems and asking support. In each case the organ-

<sup>1</sup> Hart, T. C. "Cooperation between School Boards and the Public." *American School Board Journal* 64: 51-2; March, 1922.

TABLE 4.—USE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF THIRTY PUBLICITY METHODS USED IN RURAL SCHOOLS

| Method of Publicity                          | Percent of counties using methods indicated <sup>1</sup> | Scores assigned as to the effectiveness of methods indicated <sup>2</sup> |
|----------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. School reports.....                       | 98                                                       | Not included in study                                                     |
| 2. Circular letters.....                     | 80                                                       | 40                                                                        |
| 3. Exhibits.....                             | 78                                                       | 26                                                                        |
| 4. General newspapers.....                   | 77                                                       | 15 <sup>3</sup>                                                           |
|                                              |                                                          | 52 <sup>4</sup>                                                           |
| 5. Public addresses.....                     | 77                                                       | 55                                                                        |
| 6. Personal letters.....                     | 63                                                       | 33                                                                        |
| 7. Circulars and handbills.....              | 37                                                       | 11                                                                        |
| 8. Publicity bulletins.....                  | 21                                                       | Not included in study                                                     |
| 9. School newspapers.....                    | 20                                                       | "                                                                         |
| 10. Educational magazines.....               | 17                                                       | "                                                                         |
| 11. County fairs.....                        | 12                                                       | "                                                                         |
| 12. Calendars.....                           | 8                                                        | "                                                                         |
| 13. General magazines.....                   | 5                                                        | "                                                                         |
| 14. Stereopticon slides.....                 | 5                                                        | "                                                                         |
| 15. Teachers institutes.....                 | 3                                                        | "                                                                         |
| 16. Spelling contests.....                   | 2                                                        | "                                                                         |
| 17. Parent-teacher associations.....         | 2                                                        | "                                                                         |
| 18. Community meetings.....                  | 2                                                        | "                                                                         |
| 19. Community picnics.....                   | 2                                                        | 76                                                                        |
| 20. Personal interviews.....                 | 2                                                        | Not included in study                                                     |
| 21. School surveys.....                      | Not included in study                                    | 96                                                                        |
| 22. Talks by pupils.....                     | "                                                        | 33                                                                        |
| 23. Instructions to voters.....              | "                                                        | 29                                                                        |
| 24. Posters.....                             | "                                                        | 20                                                                        |
| 25. Advance polling.....                     | "                                                        | 18                                                                        |
| 26. School parades.....                      | "                                                        | 17                                                                        |
| 27. Petitioning.....                         | "                                                        | 16                                                                        |
| 28. Cartoons.....                            | "                                                        | 9                                                                         |
| 29. Windshield stickers for automobiles..... | "                                                        | 3                                                                         |
| 30. Children's letters to parents.....       | "                                                        | 3                                                                         |

<sup>1</sup> After Hines and Jones. *Op. cit.*

<sup>2</sup> After Peck and Stevenson. *Op. cit.* p. 317.

<sup>3</sup> Paid advertising.

<sup>4</sup> News and editorials.

FIGURE 2

# The Flathead Messenger

SCHOOL TO  
PATRONS

Published Periodically by the Faculty  
**FLATHEAD COUNTY HIGH SCHOOL**

Sent free to patrons of the school and to others upon request

GREETINGS TO  
GRADUATES

Vol. VI

THE FLATHEAD MESSENGER, KALISPELL, MONTANA, MAY, 1900

NO. 2

## WHAT OF OUR GRADUATES?

But preparation for a vocation or a college does not exhaust our responsibility to the graduate, nor his responsibility to society. We expect him to be able to fill his leisure time (if he ever has any) better than the average person does, with activities that are both pleasurable and useful.

The community has a right to expect that the young graduate will be a more effective home member. As a son, daughter, brother or sister now, or as a parent later on, the high school graduate should be more intelligent and cooperative because of the four years spent in high school.

Finally, our graduate should most certainly be a more effective member of society generally. This is really the important thing in such a world as this one is getting to be, where people must pull together or be pulled to pieces. Our graduate, partly because of his training here, can be expected to participate in the political affairs of his locality, his state, his nation. As a member of a number of organizations, he should be reasonably effective, either as a leader or a follower. In both formal and informal groups, he should show evidence of social-mindedness.

## COUNTY HONOR SCHOOLS

Reports for the fourth month show that seventeen schools were County Honor Schools that month.

In looking over the reports and checking requirements each month, allowance is made for some things that are unavoidable. The purpose of Carteret County Honor Schools is to have a set of good standards that may be met by practically every school in the county.

## CURRICULUM FOR NEXT YEAR INCLUDES A FEW DEVELOPMENTS

NEW COURSES WILL BE PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY AND RETAIL MERCHANDISING-SALESMANSHIP; POSSIBLE CHANGE IN HOME ECONOMICS DEPARTMENT; EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES WILL NOT CHANGE

## VEGETABLE GARDEN INTERESTS CAMP GLENN PUPILS GREATLY

Have Planted Many Sorts of Vegetables And Will Plant Others; "Live-at-Home" Program Was Observed Successfully

The boys are very interested in their vegetable garden. They have

### LOOKING FORWARD

The merchant that does not look into the future in planning his business will almost invariably fail. If the teacher and the school people do not take any thought of the future of their school they will soon be aware of the fact that they are failing to keep up with the progress of the times. The business

## Smyrna School Has Good Water Supply

The installation of the running water system at Smyrna High School which was begun last year has recently been completed. The drinking fountains were installed last week

## Free Activity Work Interests Sea Level

The primary grades are still very much interested in free activity. At present one group is working on a rabbit box. In a few days this will be finished and a little white rabbit will be brought to his new home by one of the third grade boys.

The following are stories made by the children as results of their activity periods.

Today our group worked on a rabbit box. We saved four pieces twenty-seven inches long and four pieces eighteen inches long. We need four more pieces eighteen inches long. Then we will have the frame saved. Kingmore Willis, Grade I.

# CARTERET COUNTY SCHOOL NEWS

A PAPER BY THE SCHOOLS AND FOR THE SCHOOLS

## VARIETY OF WORK DONE BY PUPILS

White Oak First Grade Pupils  
Learn To Make Many  
Things

The boys and girls in the first grades seem to enjoy their work at school, but they look forward especially to the first part of the day's program. This time comes from 9:15 to 10:00 o'clock. At this period the small boys and girls are at liberty to do the things they wish to do.

The daily program is arranged so that each child may choose some form of work which he likes. Some of the little folks like to make pictures with crayons and water colors, while some enjoy making things out of clay. Some of the little girls prefer to sew or make rugs.

A visitor entering these classrooms is no doubt surprised to find such a variety of occupations going on at the same time. In one corner some boys are to be seen working with tools perhaps they are building a table, a house a store, or some furniture to use in their class room. An-

## PARENT TEACHERS HAVE A MEETING

Camp Glenn School is Moving  
Smoothly; Various Plans  
Are Under Way

The Camp Glenn P. T. A. held its regular monthly meeting on Tuesday night, February 4th. There were many visitors and members present.

## Newport Pupils Are Planning To Beautify School Grounds

Much Interest Aroused In The Various Grades; Hope To Make  
School Premises Very Attractive; Newport Will Enter  
Triangular Debate This Year

Not being satisfied with the already fairly good condition of the grounds around the Newport school and Teachers but aspiring to make them really beautiful the various grades of the school have taken it upon themselves to see what a transformation they can make in the appearance of the surroundings around the school. Each room or in some cases two or three rooms together have been assigned a particular plot on which to center their interests and efforts. The pupils were asked to state in writing their plans for beautification and the following are some of the answers received: "The second grade boys and girls are planning to make the driveway to the school building pretty. The boys have dug trenches on each side and are putting rich soil in them. The girls are going to plant nasturtiums. When the seed comes up we will water them and help them to have beautiful flowers."

## COST OF TRANSPORTING PUPILS

1928-'29

| Items             | 31 Trucks<br>8 Months | 31 Trucks<br>1 Month | 1 Truck<br>1 Month | 1 Truck<br>1 Day |
|-------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|--------------------|------------------|
| Mileage           | 60,820                | 9,730                | 231.6              | 14.1             |
| Pupils carried    | 184,000               | 23,000               | 742.               | 27.              |
| Gals. Gasoline    | 18,108                | 2,024                | 65.                | 2 3/4            |
| Cost Gasoline     | \$ 3629.06            | \$ 453.63            | \$14.63            | \$ .73           |
| Oil Quarts        | 2,581                 | 323                  | 10.19-31           | .60              |
| Oil—Cost          | \$ 544.37             | \$ 68.64             | \$ 2.30            | \$ .11           |
| Repairs           | \$ 7771.37            | \$ 971.42            | \$31.34            | \$1.54           |
| Drivers' Salaries | \$ 3138.81            | \$ 392.35            | \$12.65            | \$ .63           |
| Total Cost        | \$15083.63            | \$1885.44            | \$60.82            | \$3.03           |

1. Per capita cost per pupil per day, 8.1 cents.
2. Cost \$1.64 per month per pupil for transportation.
3. Cost \$12.12 per year to transport one pupil to school.

izations endorsed the plan. When election day actually came the proposition called forth little opposition.

2. *The School Newspaper in a County Unit System*<sup>1</sup>—A new county superintendent found dissatisfaction with the expenditures of school funds in previous years. He decided to abandon building plans and further increases in taxes until he had an opportunity to direct the attention of the public to the real work that the schools were accomplishing. This phase of school publicity had been previously neglected.

There were in the county, schools offering six, seven, eight, and nine months terms, a condition which led to inconvenience in planning a county-wide program. A uniform term, therefore, seemed to be the most vital need. By carrying a state-wide tax for a two months extended term several things could be accomplished: a uniform term, a uniform tax rate, increased consolidation, and perfection of the county unit plan.

This program required organized school publicity. Few daily papers were read in the rural sections of the country. Even the local weekly papers had a limited circulation. One school knew nothing of what other schools were doing. To meet this isolated condition, a county school newspaper was started. Its purposes were: (1) to distribute the news of the schools among the patrons; (2) to create a desire for reading school news; (3) to stimulate local interest and pride in the work of the schools; (4) to build sentiment for a longer school term; (5) to recognize and encourage effective work among the various county schools; (6) to publish nothing that would cause resentment or argument.

A meeting of the high-school principals in the county was called and the plans for the paper explained. These plans met with their hearty approval. Each school principal was an associate editor and contributed editorials monthly. News from all the schools in the county was collected through the principals and the teachers in the one-room schools. The paper was edited by the county superintendent and the county rural school supervisor. Enough advertisements were secured to meet the cost of printing.

In this way the *Carteret County School News* made its first appearance. Besides the

news from the various schools, the front page presented school facts concerning the whole county. The editorials dealt with county-wide school problems. The question of a county-wide uniform school term was approached in a general way, gradually getting more and more specific with respect to the actual situation in Carteret County.

This paper appeared six times during the sessions of the six months term. Twelve hundred copies of each issue were printed. Enough copies were sent to each principal so that the children could carry one to each home represented in the school. Paid subscriptions were not depended upon.

During the latter part of the school year a questionnaire was sent out to ascertain what effect the paper had on the parents and children. It was estimated that 100 percent of the children and 80 percent of the parents had read the paper. The paper had begun to fulfill its purpose in creating goodwill, cooperation, county-wide interest in education, and sentiment for a longer school term.<sup>2</sup>

Meanwhile, in the office of the county superintendent, plans were laid for a special tax election. This issue was discussed at the group-center commencements. The county superintendent emphasized the advantages of a longer school term. He called attention to the steadily decreasing seventh grade enrolment and gave causes for this condition. He asked for an equal chance for all children in the county. Having laid a basis of public support, the following procedure with respect to the tax election was inaugurated:

1. The proposal for an election was presented to the county board of education and the county board of commissioners. Approval by these bodies was secured.
2. The county superintendent conferred privately with influential leaders of public opinion in the county.
3. The active cooperation of the local newspapers published in the county was secured.
4. A mass meeting of all school committeemen in the county was called. This meeting endorsed the eight months term without a dissenting voice. The meeting also inaugurated a petition calling upon the county commissioners to set a date for a special tax election.
5. This petition was presented and the election was called immediately.

<sup>1</sup> Adapted from Workman, J. H. *School Publicity and County Unit Plan*. Carteret County Public Schools, Beaufort, North Carolina. Mimeographed. 4 p.

<sup>2</sup> Suggestions for the rural school newspaper are found in Lowth, Frank J. *The Country Teacher at Work*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1930. Chapter 4, "Publishing a School Paper." 541 p.

6. The campaign was now carried direct to the people. Full information concerning the purpose and amount of the new tax was given through all possible channels. Two bankers, one school principal, one newspaper editor, and the county superintendent canvassed the entire county, holding meetings at the schoolhouses and explaining the issue to the people. This campaign continued for three weeks, during which time a special issue of the school paper appeared, giving the advantages of the proposed eight months term and the facts concerning the amount of money necessary to finance it. A copy of this paper was mailed direct to every voter in the county.

7. Every local parent-teacher association was sent a weekly letter urging the members to see that everyone voted on election day.

The election was entirely successful and the tax was authorized. In a number of precincts there was not a single vote against the proposed measure.

3. *A program for parent-teacher cooperation in developing rural schools*—An effective and important agency in interpreting the rural school to its patrons is a properly organized

### FIGURE 3.—SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES FOR RURAL PARENT-TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS

#### I. Health

1. Organize study circles on prenatal care, child health, local health conditions, school water supply, and similar problems.
2. Join the national summer round-up. (A program for getting every child in good physical condition before school opens in the autumn.)
3. Discuss and encourage immunization against smallpox and diphtheria.
4. Work for installation of hot lunch service in local schools.
5. Cooperate actively with all local health officers and agencies.

#### II. Home Membership

1. Organize groups for study of parenthood and home relationships.
2. Conduct home improvement and beautification projects.
3. Locate comfortable and suitable quarters for teachers.

#### III. Vocational Effectiveness

1. Encourage and help young people to earn money for services to the community and its people.
2. Study and report on vocational opportunities for young people, including farming.
3. Discover the facts concerning youths who have left the rural school and publish history of their experiences and success.

#### IV. School Development

1. Study, under competent leadership, the financing and administration of the rural school system.
2. Study and list the characteristics of the modern school systems with relation to building, equipment, teaching materials, teaching methods, and the like.
3. Evaluate local schools with relation to above characteristics and help towards lifting the local school up to desirable standards.

#### V. Use of Leisure

1. Encourage and assist the formation of clubs, bands and orchestras, and athletic teams.
2. Investigate local library facilities and if necessary secure additional help from state and county libraries.

#### VI. Citizenship

1. Sponsor excursions to civic occasions so that children may see government in action.
2. Encourage strict compliance with laws governing school attendance and all other topics.
3. Encourage intelligent use of the ballot.

#### VII. Ethical Character

1. Cooperate with all worthy local religious and character-developing enterprises.
2. Discuss, under intelligent leadership, boy-girl relationships, or other problems of social adjustment.

parent-teacher association. Such an organization should have a definite program for the study and improvement of rural school conditions in its home community.<sup>1</sup> The Bureau of Rural Life of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers has outlined a program of activities for such a group.<sup>2</sup> Certain elements of this program are shown in Figure 3. The items in this list are intended to be suggestive and should be carefully adapted to fit local needs and conditions.

### Selected References

1. ALEXANDER, CARTER. "Publicity Work for Better Support of Rural Schools." *Journal of Educational Research* 7: 1-13; January, 1923.

Some concrete suggestions as to motives influencing people to vote for better school support, successful presentation of appeals, and cautions to be observed.

2. BALDRIDGE, CHLOE E. *Program Discussion Material for Nebraska Rural Parent-Teacher Association*. Lincoln, Nebraska: Department of Public Instruction, 1927. 109 p.

Includes plans for organizing parent-teacher associations based on the plans in the *Handbook of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers*. Presents material for discussion by parent-teacher associations.

3. CARNEY, MABEL. "The Community Relations of Rural Schools." *Rural School Survey of New York State*. Vol. 4. Ithaca, New York: Joint Committee on Rural Schools, 1923. "The Teaching Personnel." p. 211-73.

A consideration of community relations and activities of rural schools, and recommendations

concerning rural school and community relations.

4. HINES, HARLAN CAMERON, and JONES, ROBINSON G. *Public School Publicity*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1923, 72 p.

A study of the use and effectiveness of certain school publicity methods.

5. NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS. *Handbook*. Washington, D. C. 1930. 112 p.

Part I deals with the parent-teacher associations in the community and Part II with the structure of the National Congress. In the appendix are bylaws and other information needed for reference.

6. NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS. *The Publicity Primer*. Washington, D. C. 1927. 124 p.

A handbook of publicity information for parent-teacher associations. Contains many concrete suggestions.

7. NORTH CAROLINA EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. *Public Education in 1900 and Now*. Raleigh, North Carolina: Bynum Printing Company, 1930. 62 p.

An example of what one state education association is doing to interpret the schools to the public.

8. "OTHER FORMS OF PUBLICITY." *Journal of the National Education Association* 19: 82; March, 1930.

A bibliography of school publicity.

9. PECK, R. R., and STEVENSON, P. R. "Rural Publicity." *Educational Research Bulletin* 2: 315-20; November 28, 1923.

A study, by means of a questionnaire, of means of securing publicity for rural schools. Finds that the most effective means of reaching the public were personal interviews, mass meetings, talks before local clubs, and newspapers.

<sup>1</sup> For further discussion see: Butterworth, Julian Edward. *The Parent-Teacher Association and Its Work*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. 149 p. Also, National Congress of Parents and Teachers. *Handbook*. 1930. Washington, D. C.: 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W. 112 p.

<sup>2</sup> Adapted from: National Congress of Parents and Teachers. *Conference on Rural Life*. Washington, D. C. 1927, p. 16-17.

THE TEACHERS must bridge the gap between the school and home, and between the school and the community, with a clear understanding of what type of cooperation the school needs. They must cultivate a willingness to recognize the public as another channel for the education of the child. The teacher-public should utilize every agency that may assist in enriching the school education program. *The only school education that is effective is that which is tied into the life of the community.*—Mrs. Hugh D. Bradford, President, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Sacramento, California, *Proceedings, National Education Association, 1930*. p. 135.

## 7. Trained Teachers for Rural Schools<sup>1</sup>

### The Present Professional Status of Teachers in Rural Schools

A summary of national trends in rural education would give about the following description of the median teacher in one-room schools:<sup>2</sup>

The typical one-room rural teacher of the United States is a young woman about twenty-three years of age, of native American stock, and of farm or small-town background. Her preparation includes four years of high-school education with approximately one year of professional training, secured frequently in summer sessions or in the graduate year of high-school training classes. She teaches from twenty to twenty-five children through the eight grades of the elementary curriculum for a school term of eight months, and remains only one or two years in the same school. Her median annual salary is \$883 and her total service in rural schools averages about three years, after which she marries or transfers to grade teaching or continues her education, usually in a state teachers' college.<sup>3</sup>

While the above description is admittedly based on estimates and on incomplete and incomparable sets of data, it is doubtless a fairly typical picture. In some states the rural schools are better served than these averages would indicate; in other states, especially if the negro teachers in southern states be included, the situation is far worse.

The important factors entering into the professional status of teachers are: training, maturity, experience, tenure of position, and salary. On every one of these items the teacher of rural children suffers by comparison with the teacher of urban children. Table 5 presents a body of facts to substantiate this point. While these facts have been gathered from a wide variety of sources and are not strictly comparable, they nevertheless show conclusively that the rural child is being taught by relatively young, immature, untrained, underpaid, and inexperienced teachers. Only a few exceptions to this general statement can be found; and when found, they merely serve to intensify the contrast. On the whole, rural teachers appear to be from one to five years younger than city teachers, to possess about two years less training, to

have from one to eight years less experience, and to receive about two-thirds as much salary.

### Securing Trained Teachers for Rural Schools

Some of the reasons for the present inadequate training of rural teachers have already been suggested by the preceding discussion of their professional status. Chief among these causes are: low standards of certification, inadequate salaries, and incomplete training facilities. As a first step in the improvement of rural teaching service, these three barriers to progress must be removed.

1. *Higher standards of certification*—The principle of equivalent educational opportunity is involved in the certification of teachers. Five states still issue certificates valid only in rural schools, which require a degree of preparation inferior to that demanded for a certificate of general, state-wide validity. Such a policy implies that the rural child does not need or deserve a trained teacher as much as a city child. Such an assumption is utterly unwarranted. Certification standards which are based upon this unsound assumption should be revised. This does not mean that prospective rural school teachers need a professional education identical with that of the urban teacher. While the differing needs of the two groups can and should be recognized, the training of neither should be inferior and incomplete in its kind.

Although the special low-grade certificate valid only in rural districts is found in few states, the low standards required for certain grades of certificates in nearly all states affect the rural school adversely. In spite of the fact that certificates requiring little or no training and issued by local examining authorities may theoretically be valid in any school in the state, their use in actual practice is confined largely to the rural schools. The teachers in these schools represent, on the whole, the lowest mini-

<sup>1</sup> A separate section on the training of rural teachers does not imply that such training should be narrowly limited to the rural school field. The opposite is the case. Rural teachers need a broad and general professional preparation with special preparation in the handling of the problems peculiar to rural life and education.

<sup>2</sup> Based on advance data from the *Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-30*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, and on Carney, Mabel. "The Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools", in *The Status of Rural Education, Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1931. p. 160.

<sup>3</sup> The description relates wholly to white teachers.

TABLE 5.—PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF RURAL AND URBAN TEACHERS COMPARED

| Area covered                                      | Year investigation was reported | Typical rural teachers                                  | Typical urban teachers                                      |
|---------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1                                                 | 2                               | 3                                                       | 4                                                           |
| I. Age Comparisons                                |                                 |                                                         |                                                             |
| New York <sup>1</sup> .....                       | 1923                            | 23.7 years <sup>2</sup>                                 | 28.5 years <sup>3</sup>                                     |
| New York <sup>4</sup> .....                       | 1925                            | 23.0 years <sup>2</sup>                                 | 27.0 years <sup>3</sup>                                     |
| Texas <sup>5</sup> .....                          | 1925                            | 22.3 years <sup>6</sup>                                 | 26.3 years <sup>7</sup>                                     |
| Arizona <sup>8</sup> .....                        | 1925                            | 25.9 years                                              | 26.2 years                                                  |
| Delaware <sup>9</sup> .....                       | 1925                            | 22.2 years                                              | 26.0 years <sup>8</sup>                                     |
| Iowa <sup>9</sup> .....                           | 1930                            | 22.4 years <sup>11</sup>                                | 26.9 years                                                  |
| II. Training Comparisons                          |                                 |                                                         |                                                             |
| United States <sup>17</sup> .....                 | ....                            | 5 years beyond grade 8 <sup>2</sup>                     | 6 years beyond grade 8 <sup>3</sup>                         |
| New York <sup>4</sup> .....                       | 1925                            | Graduate of 1-year teacher-training course <sup>2</sup> | Graduate of 2-year normal school course <sup>3</sup>        |
| West Virginia <sup>10</sup> .....                 | 1929                            | One year beyond high school <sup>11</sup>               | Two years beyond high school <sup>12</sup>                  |
| Iowa <sup>9</sup> .....                           | 1930                            | Graduate of normal training high school <sup>11</sup>   | Completed 1.5 to 2 years in teachers' college <sup>12</sup> |
| Florida <sup>14</sup> .....                       | 1929                            | 12 years of education <sup>15</sup>                     | 14 years of education <sup>16</sup>                         |
| Delaware <sup>9</sup> .....                       | 1925                            | 14.4% with only elementary school training              | 1.6% with only elementary school training <sup>8</sup>      |
| Virginia <sup>5</sup> .....                       | 1925                            | 9.6% with only elementary training                      | 6% with only elementary training                            |
| III. Experience Comparisons                       |                                 |                                                         |                                                             |
| United States <sup>17</sup> .....                 | ....                            | 3 years <sup>2</sup>                                    | 5 years <sup>3</sup>                                        |
| Iowa <sup>9</sup> .....                           | 1930                            | 2 years                                                 | 6 years <sup>12</sup>                                       |
| New York <sup>1</sup> .....                       | 1923                            | 3 years <sup>2</sup>                                    | 11 years <sup>12</sup>                                      |
| West Virginia <sup>10</sup> .....                 | 1929                            | 4.4 years                                               | 5.4 years                                                   |
| New York <sup>4</sup> .....                       | 1925                            | 4 years <sup>2</sup>                                    | 7 years <sup>3</sup>                                        |
| Indiana <sup>4</sup> .....                        | 1925                            | 3.2 years <sup>2</sup>                                  | 8.9 years                                                   |
| Texas <sup>5</sup> .....                          | 1925                            | 3 years <sup>6</sup>                                    | 5.3 years <sup>7</sup>                                      |
| Delaware <sup>9</sup> .....                       | 1925                            | 2.3 years                                               | 5.5 years <sup>8</sup>                                      |
| South Dakota <sup>5</sup> .....                   | 1925                            | 3.8 years                                               | 5.0 years <sup>8</sup>                                      |
| IV. Salary Comparisons                            |                                 |                                                         |                                                             |
| United States <sup>17</sup> .....                 | ....                            | \$883 <sup>2</sup>                                      | \$1771 <sup>10</sup>                                        |
| Colorado <sup>18</sup> (selected counties).....   | 1931                            | 950 <sup>2</sup>                                        | 2203                                                        |
| California <sup>18</sup> (selected counties)..... | 1931                            | 1408 <sup>2</sup>                                       | 2131                                                        |
| Wisconsin <sup>18</sup> (selected counties).....  | 1931                            | 891 <sup>2</sup>                                        | 2402                                                        |
| Kentucky <sup>18</sup> (selected counties).....   | 1931                            | 526 <sup>2</sup>                                        | 1489                                                        |
| Iowa <sup>18</sup> (selected counties).....       | 1931                            | 713 <sup>2</sup>                                        | 1835                                                        |
| Iowa <sup>9</sup> .....                           | 1930                            | 730                                                     | 1058 <sup>12</sup>                                          |
| New York <sup>4</sup> .....                       | 1925                            | \$24 weekly                                             | \$29 weekly <sup>3</sup>                                    |
| Indiana <sup>19</sup> .....                       | 1926                            | \$913                                                   | 1395 <sup>12</sup>                                          |
| Wisconsin <sup>21</sup> .....                     | 1931                            | \$851                                                   | \$1443                                                      |

<sup>1</sup> Bagley, William C. "The Teaching Personnel of the Rural Schools." *Rural School Survey of New York State*, Vol. 4, Ithaca, New York: Joint Committee on Rural Schools, 1923. p. 12-107.

<sup>2</sup> One-room schools.

<sup>3</sup> Village schools.

<sup>4</sup> Wiley, George M. *The Teaching Personnel in Village and Rural Schools, 1923-24*. Bulletin 823. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York, 1925. 24 p.

<sup>5</sup> Work, George A., director. *Texas Educational Survey Report*, Vol. 8. Austin: Texas Educational Survey Commission, 1925.

<sup>6</sup> Women in one-room schools.

<sup>7</sup> Larger schools in independent districts.

<sup>8</sup> Incorporated districts.

<sup>9</sup> Board of Educational Examiners. *Teachers of the Public Elementary and Secondary Schools of Iowa*. Des Moines, 1930.

<sup>10</sup> Cavins, L. V., director. *Survey of Education in West Virginia*. Vol. 1. Charleston: State Board of Education, 1929.

<sup>11</sup> One and two-teacher schools.

<sup>12</sup> Elementary schools only.

<sup>13</sup> Third-class cities.

<sup>14</sup> Strayer, George D., director. *Report of the Educational Survey Commission and Survey Staff*. Tallahassee, Fla., 1929. 743 p.

<sup>15</sup> Communities under 500 population.

<sup>16</sup> Communities over 2500 population.

<sup>17</sup> Advance data from U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education.

<sup>18</sup> Cook, Katherine M., and Gaumnitz, W. H. "Availability of Schools in Rural Communities." in "The Status of Rural Education." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education, Bloomington, Ill. Public School Publishing Company, 1931. p. 78.

<sup>19</sup> Indiana Rural Educational Survey Committee. *Report*. Indianapolis, 1926.

<sup>20</sup> Median for all elementary teachers employed in cities reporting on the biennial salary survey, Research Division, National Education Association.

<sup>21</sup> "School Costs in Wisconsin." *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, 63: 449; May, 1931.

mum training accepted by the state. Low standards and inefficient methods of certification, therefore, do most damage in the rural schools, and any improvement of these standards and certificating methods is reflected first in an improved level of preparation among rural school teachers. Whether the work of rural teachers is sufficiently different from that of city teachers to justify a special rural certificate, is a debatable question of detail with which this bulletin is not concerned. All will agree, however, whether or not a limited rural certificate is issued, that nothing should be permitted to encourage the placing of teachers with inferior training in rural areas.

2. *Adequate salaries*—The median annual salary of rural<sup>1</sup> school teachers is \$945 and of

teachers in one-room schools, \$883.<sup>2</sup> Other facts concerning salaries of teachers and other groups are shown graphically in Chart VII. These facts doubtless go far to explain why it is almost impossible to keep the services of well-prepared teachers in rural schools.

Discussing the rural teacher situation, the United States Commissioner of Education remarks:

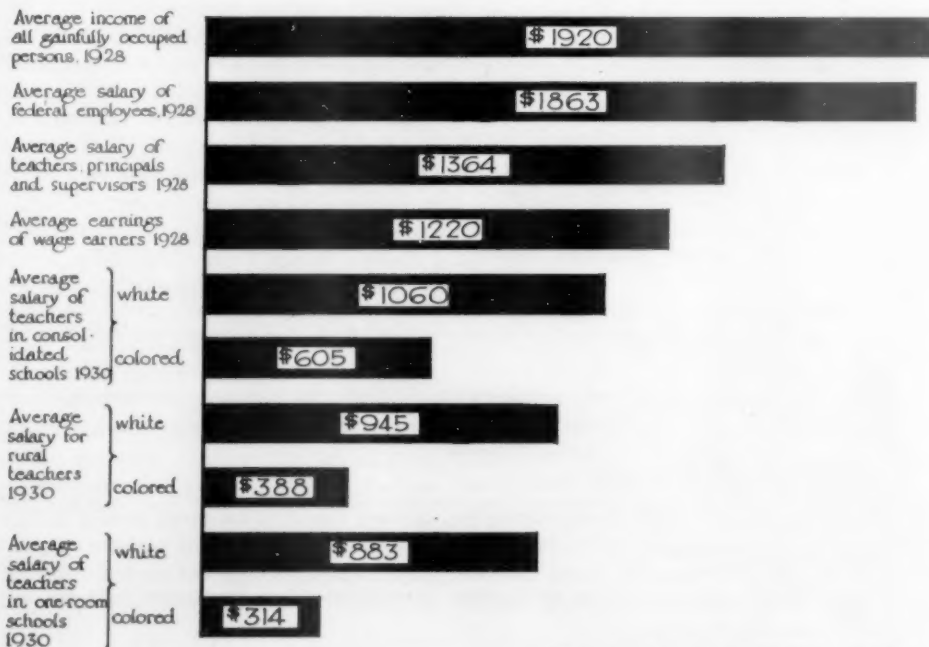
The training, the tenure, and the professional status of teachers and other professional workers in the rural schools of America are to a large degree circumscribed by the rewards offered, both financial and social. It has long been recognized in a general way that such rewards in rural schools are meager in comparison with those in urban schools and in comparison with those in other gainful occupations. But the detailed facts have not been sufficiently

<sup>1</sup> Teachers employed in open country schools and in places of less than 2500 in population.

<sup>2</sup> Advance data from the *Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-30*, U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education.

CHART VII

## SALARIES OF TEACHERS AND CERTAIN OTHER GROUPS



Research Division, National Education Ass'n

Average income of gainfully occupied and average earnings of wage-earners from Willford King's *The National Income and Its Purchasing Power*, p. 87. Average salary of federal employees from *Report of Wage and Personnel Survey, Personnel Classification Board, United States Government*, p. 388. Teachers' Salaries from U. S. Department of Interior, Office of Education.

known, and the relationships of these meager salaries to the educational opportunities of the rural child are not fully realized.<sup>1</sup>

While the extended demands on city school teachers and greater public recognition of their services have justified increases in the salaries of these public servants, the education of rural children requires an equally high type of service. Yet the salaries of rural teachers have remained practically constant. Salaries of urban teachers increased \$247 from 1921 to 1930; those of rural teachers increased only \$65 in the same period. It appears, therefore, that the salary differential between urban and rural teaching service is not only great but also is growing greater.

The relatively low salaries paid rural teachers are one of the prime causes which attract the best-trained rural teachers to the better-paid positions in the cities. The findings of four investigations on this problem are combined in Table 6. This table indicates that low salaries are one of the prime causes for the unwillingness of trained teachers to remain in rural service.

3. *More complete training facilities for rural school teachers.*—An increasingly large number of teachers colleges and normal schools are providing training specifically directed towards the needs of prospective teachers in rural

TABLE 7.—INSTITUTIONS OFFERING SPECIAL COURSES FOR THE TRAINING OF RURAL TEACHERS

| Year of investigation | Number of institutions covered by study | Number offering rural school teachers' curriculums |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| 1                     | 2                                       | 3                                                  |
| 1905 <sup>1</sup>     |                                         | 3                                                  |
| 1912 <sup>1</sup>     | 50                                      | 27                                                 |
| 1925 <sup>2</sup>     | 139                                     | 74                                                 |
| 1927 <sup>3</sup>     | 149                                     | 126                                                |
| 1931 <sup>4</sup>     | 174                                     | 124 <sup>5</sup>                                   |

<sup>1</sup> U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. *Professional Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools*. Bulletin 1928, No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1928. p. 66-8.

<sup>2</sup> See, Mary Alice, "Some Aspects of the Training of Teachers for the One-Room Schools," *Journal of Rural Education* 5: 50-6; September-October, 1925.

<sup>3</sup> Bunting, R. L. and McGuffey, Verne, "Preparation of Rural Teachers," *Teachers College Record* 29: 716-27; May, 1928.

<sup>4</sup> Carney, Mabel, *Classification of State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges on a Basis of Rural Service*. Unpublished. 5 p. mimeographed.

<sup>5</sup> Includes all institutions offering any type of specialized rural education work.

schools. Table 7 shows the trend in this respect as reported by a number of different investigations. Although these investigations are not strictly comparable, the table shows the general trend. It shows a rapid increase from 1905 when only three institutions training rural teachers were reported until 1927, when 123 were reported. The 1931 study does not show significant changes since 1927.

<sup>1</sup> Gaumnitz, W. H. *Salaries and Salary Trends of Teachers in Rural Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Bulletin 1929, No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1929. p. 1. (Letter of transmittal.)

TABLE 6.—SOME REASONS WHY TRAINED TEACHERS TEND TO AVOID RURAL SCHOOLS

| Reasons                                        | Importance as ranked by                    |                                          |                                             |                                              | Average Rank |
|------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|--------------|
|                                                | 493 New York village teachers <sup>1</sup> | 217 Nebraska rural teachers <sup>2</sup> | 242 teacher-training officials <sup>3</sup> | 38 graduates of rural curricula <sup>4</sup> |              |
| 1                                              | 2                                          | 3                                        | 4                                           | 5                                            | 6            |
| 1. Too many grades to teach                    | 1                                          | Not included                             | Not included                                | 1                                            | 1            |
| 2. Low salaries                                | 2                                          | 2                                        | 1                                           | 3                                            | 2            |
| 3. Too far from home; isolation                | 6                                          | 1                                        | 2                                           | Not included                                 | 3            |
| 4. Poor living conditions                      | 3                                          | Not included                             | 3                                           | Not included                                 | 3            |
| 5. Lack of professional prestige and enjoyment | Not included                               | Not included                             | 4                                           | 2                                            | 3            |
| 6. Poor schools                                | 5                                          | 3                                        | Not included                                | 4                                            | 4            |
| 7. Limited educational or cultural advantages  | 4                                          | Not included                             | Not included                                | 6                                            | 5            |
| 8. Dislike for rural life                      | Not included                               | Not included                             | Not included                                | 5                                            | 5            |
| 9. Poor working conditions                     | Not included                               | Not included                             | 5                                           | Not included                                 | 5            |
| 10. Complexity of task                         | Not included                               | Not included                             | 6                                           | Not included                                 | 6            |
| 11. Few social contacts                        | 7                                          | Not included                             | Not included                                | Not included                                 | 7            |
| 12. Lack of supervision                        | Not included                               | Not included                             | 7                                           | Not included                                 | 7            |
| 13. Lack of public appreciation                | Not included                               | Not included                             | Not included                                | 7                                            | 7            |
| 14. Uncertain tenure                           | Not included                               | Not included                             | 8                                           | Not included                                 | 8            |
| 15. Lack of special preparation                | Not included                               | Not included                             | 9                                           | Not included                                 | 9            |

<sup>1</sup> Bagley, W. C., *op. cit.*, p. 38.

<sup>2</sup> Powell, Gail F. "The Status of the Rural Teacher." *Education* 50: 414-19; March, 1930.

<sup>3</sup> Carney, Mabel, "The Preparation of Teachers," *op. cit.*, p. 173.

<sup>4</sup> Robinson, W. M. "The Rural School Curriculum as Judged by Graduates," in Cook, Katherine M. *Professional Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Bulletin 1928, No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1928. p. 21.

What types of work in rural education are offered by various types of institutions? Table 8, based on facts reported in 1925, indicates the answer to this question. The table shows that the teachers colleges and normal schools placed more general emphasis on practice teaching than the universities. None of the three groups of institutions studied placed general emphasis on rural secondary education, the rural school curriculum, or on the special problems of administration and teaching in consolidated schools. These topics are conspicuous among the titles of the most commonly offered courses.

The titles of courses offered, however, are not as important as the content of the courses themselves. A recent investigation suggests the usefulness of the job-analysis as one factor in determining an appropriate training program for rural teachers.<sup>1</sup> A checklist of 112 items covering the duties, activities, and responsibilities of teachers was formulated and submitted to groups of rural and urban teachers. Returns came from 200 grade teachers in towns and cities and from 550 teachers in one-room schools. Among the latter group were 94 teachers rated as "best" by their county superintendent, and 84 teachers rated as "poorest." In the opinion of the county superintendents the most important factor making for success of a teacher in a one-room school was special training for that type of position. The data showed that the activities, duties, and responsibilities of the successful rural teacher clearly differed from those

of the successful city teacher. Activities and items of skill and information were found which were unique to the teacher in the one-room school. The entire study and others like it are indicative of the type of careful and objective work which needs to be done to provide a workable and useful course of preparation for rural teachers.

The problem of securing a trained teacher for each schoolroom will not be solved until every state makes a careful study of its teacher-training program in terms of the number of new teachers needed annually in the several fields and the number of teachers being prepared to fill these positions. At present there are few facts and fewer general policies available concerning teacher supply and demand. It is, however, safe to say that for the United States as a whole there is no surplus of fully-trained teachers who are prepared to teach in rural schools.<sup>2</sup> Although accurate data are lacking it is generally admitted that: (1) the graduates of teachers colleges and normal schools are entering rural service in increasing numbers, and (2) a large proportion of those specifically trained for rural service work in rural schools for only a brief period, or not at all. Table 9 presents data from a fairly recent study of this question. Columns 3 and 5 of this table show a marked contrast between graduates of one-year and of two-year rural education courses. Of the former group, 86.4 percent planned to teach in one- and two-teacher schools, while only 26.8

<sup>1</sup> McGuffey, Verne. *Differences in the Activities of Teachers in Rural One-Teacher Schools and of Grade Teachers in Cities*. Contributions to Education No. 346. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929, 65 p. See also: Anderson, C. J. and Kibbe, Delia E. *Field Problems of Wisconsin Rural Teachers*. Madison, Wis.: State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1929, 74 p.

<sup>2</sup> National Society for the Study of Education. *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I, "The Status of Rural Education." Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1931, Chapter 6. "The Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools," p. 160. See also: Research Division, National Education Association. "Teacher Supply and Demand." *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 9, No. 5. (To be published for November, 1931.)

TABLE 8.—COURSES IN RURAL EDUCATION <sup>1</sup>

| Type of institution             | Number of institutions studied | Total number of rural education courses offered | Titles of most commonly offered rural education courses                                                                                                               |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1                               | 2                              | 3                                               | 4                                                                                                                                                                     |
| Colleges and universities. .... | 77                             | 124                                             | Rural education<br>Rural school administration<br>Rural school management and organization<br>Observation and practice teaching<br>Rural school administration        |
| Teachers colleges. ....         | 52                             | 140                                             | Rural education<br>Rural school management and organization<br>Observation and practice teaching<br>Rural school management and organization<br>Rural school problems |
| Normal schools. ....            | 70                             | 116                                             |                                                                                                                                                                       |

<sup>1</sup>Cook, Katherine M. *Courses in Rural Education Offered in Universities, Colleges, and Normal Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Rural School Leaflet, 1925, No. 37. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1925. 18 p.

percent of the latter group intended to enter this field. Only a little more than one-half of the service of two-year graduates was rendered in the one- and two-teacher schools. These facts again emphasize the necessity for making rural school teaching more attractive if teachers of superior training are to be drawn into this field of service.

Other factors of some importance doubtless affect the percentage of trained teachers in rural schools, but it is clear from the preceding collection of facts that higher standards of certification accompanied by more adequate salaries and more complete training opportunities would go far towards placing a trained teacher in every schoolroom, rural as well as urban.

### Selected References

1. BUNTING, R. L., and MCGUFFEY, VERNE. "Preparation of Rural Teachers." *Teachers College Record* 29: 716-27; May, 1928.

Presents findings of a questionnaire study of nine specific phases of what publicly supported normal schools and teachers colleges of the United States are doing in the preparation of rural teachers.

2. BUTTERWORTH, JULIAN E. "Differentiating the Training Needs of Rural and Urban Teachers." *Nation's Schools* 4: 58-62; December, 1929.

Advocates giving specialized instruction to the prospective rural teacher in education, sociology, economics, and practice teaching in preparation for the needs he is likely to face in the rural school.

3. CARNEY, MABEL. "The Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools" *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1931. p. 155-77.

Gives information concerning the present status of rural teachers with respect to scholarship, training, salaries, and tenure. Discusses current demands, and new trends. Emphasizes need of specialized training for rural teachers.

4. CHARTERS, W. W., and WAPLES, DOUGLAS. *The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929. 666 p.

Report of a three-year study of teacher-training curricula. Presents data on the evaluated activities of teachers intended to guide the selection of material for professional courses. Finds that the duties and responsibilities of rural teachers differ markedly from those in more highly organized schools. Gives rank-list of traits of rural teachers in comparison with those of teachers in other types of schools.

5. COOK, KATHERINE M. *Courses in Rural Education Offered in Universities, Colleges, and Normal Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Rural School Leaflet, 1925, No. 37. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1925. 18 p.

Lists and describes courses pertaining to rural education and planned especially for rural teachers, administrators, and supervisors.

6. GAUMNITZ, W. H. *Salaries and Salary Trends of Teachers in Rural Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1929, No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1929. 54 p.

Includes data concerning the relationship of training to rural teachers' salaries.

7. MCGUFFEY, VERNE. *Differences in the Activities of Teachers in Rural One-Teacher Schools and of Grade Teachers in Cities*. Contributions to Education, No. 346. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1929. 65 p.

Discusses knowledge and skills necessary for the teacher in rural schools which differ from those needed in city schools. Recommends that they be included in the training of rural teachers.

TABLE 9.—PLACEMENT AND TENURE OF TEACHERS SPECIFICALLY PREPARED FOR RURAL SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

| Placement                                    | Plans of One-year graduates |         | Plans of Two-year graduates |         | Distribution of time of two-year graduates since graduation |
|----------------------------------------------|-----------------------------|---------|-----------------------------|---------|-------------------------------------------------------------|
|                                              | Number                      | Percent | Number                      | Percent |                                                             |
| I                                            | 2                           | 3       | 4                           | 5       | 6                                                           |
| One and two-teacher schools.....             | 1380                        | 86.4    | 189                         | 26.8    | 56.5                                                        |
| Larger open-country and village schools..... | 80                          | 5.0     | 470                         | 66.6    | 20.5                                                        |
| City school systems.....                     | 7                           | 0.4     | 11                          | 1.5     | 12.0                                                        |
| Continuing their education.....              | 90                          | 5.6     | 36                          | 5.1     | .....                                                       |
| Others.....                                  | 20                          | 2.6     | .....                       | .....   | .....                                                       |
| Total.....                                   | 1596                        | 100.0   | 706                         | 100.0   | 100.0                                                       |

<sup>1</sup> From a study by W. M. Robinson, summarized by Mabel Carney. "The Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1931. p. 171.

8. ROBINSON, WILLIAM M. "The Problem of Differentiating Rural Teacher Preparation—Abstract." *Proceedings, 1928*. Vol. 66. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1928. p. 434-6.

Recommends that different curricula should provide for observation and practice teaching, carefully supervised and graded to meet the varying needs of the students.

9. SLEE, MARY ALICE. "Some Aspects of the Training of Teachers for the One-Room Schools." *Journal of Rural Education* 5: 50-6; September-October, 1925.

Report of a study made to determine what state normal schools and state teachers colleges are doing to train teachers for the one-room rural schools.

10. U. S. DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, OFFICE OF EDUCATION. *Professional Preparation of Teachers for Rural Schools*. Bulletin, 1928, No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1928. 71 p.

Consists of abstracts of addresses on professional preparation of rural teachers delivered at a conference called by the United States Commissioner of Education, February 25, 1928.

OUR SOCIAL PROGRESS will not endure with anything less than a well-trained teacher in each classroom. The problem is one of pointing the way out and of suggesting that the time is at hand when a decided step should be taken to place the status of teacher-training on a much higher level and, in so doing, eliminate the instruments of control that have tended to maintain low standards as the chief stumbling block, namely, low requirements for graduation from our training institutions and for professional certification.—Charles C. Sherrod, President, East Tennessee State Teachers College. *Proceedings, 1930, National Education Association*. p. 845.

## 8. Secondary School Opportunities for Rural Children

### The Present Status of Rural Secondary Education

Investigation of the secondary school opportunities extended to rural children has centered around three problems: the extent to which high-school facilities are available for these children, the extent to which such facilities are used, and the nature and scope of certain administrative problems peculiar to rural secondary education. From the studies already made in this field these general conclusions may be drawn:

1. Although the high schools serving rural boys and girls<sup>1</sup> comprise more than half of all high schools in the Nation, there remain extended areas in which secondary school opportunities are meager or entirely lacking.

2. Rural boys and girls do not enroll in high school in as large proportional numbers as urban children, nor do they remain in high school as long. Farm boys leave more quickly than the girls, either because they must work on the farm or because the curriculum of their high school fails to attract them.

3. The small rural high school, serving its own immediate neighborhood, has a greater holding power over rural boys and girls than urban high schools to which these boys and girls go as tuition pupils.

4. Promising fields for further research in rural secondary education include: the effectiveness of various units of administration for secondary education in rural areas, the rural junior college and junior high school, methods of financial support adapted to rural high schools, ways to increase the holding power of rural high schools, the tuition of pupils in rural high schools, and administrative solutions to such problems as the small class, the large subject-load per teacher, and the meager extra-curricular activities which characterize the typical rural secondary education program.<sup>2</sup>

*To what extent are high-school opportunities available for rural children?*—The secondary school program in rural areas is administered by a wide variety of local units. A recent survey of the legal provisions for rural high schools revealed these seven types of units for secondary school administration:<sup>3</sup>

1. In most states the *common school district* is legally empowered to offer instruction to the higher grades but its low property value operates against its doing so.

2. The *independent school district* is usually able to maintain grades above the elementary but this is a unit which generally includes a town or city. High schools in independent districts by no means reach out to all children in rural sections.

3. In about two-thirds of the states, *consolidated school districts* may add high-school grades. This unit is growing in favor and is influencing the consolidation of elementary schools.

4. In thirteen states the township is the unit, or one of the possible units, for establishing and maintaining high schools.

5. The main purpose of the *high-school district* is to provide secondary education; whereas the units previously mentioned were created primarily for elementary school purposes. It may come within one of two general classes:

- a. Those formed without regard to common school district boundary lines.
- b. Those embracing one or more whole common school districts and having as their boundary lines the external limits of the component smaller parts.

6. Union high-school district is a term generally applied to a union of two or more entire common school districts which unite for high-school purposes. It served secondary education as the consolidated school serves elementary.

7. States providing for *county participation* in the field of secondary education are divided into three groups:

- a. Those in which a single county high school is provided for in each county or in each of a certain specified class of counties. The high school of this type is found in about one-fourth of the states.
- b. Those in which the county is the administrative unit for secondary education, with power to establish and maintain a reasonable number of high schools. This comprises the so-called county-unit states.
- c. Those in which counties provide subventions to high-school education under certain conditions.

The value of these varying legal devices in creating high-school opportunities for rural children differs from state to state. However, it is certain that there are yet large areas and many children within the United States not served by any high school. No nation-wide statistics on this point are available, but it is known that ten percent of all rural high schools<sup>4</sup> now

<sup>1</sup> Defined here as high schools enrolling one hundred or fewer pupils.

<sup>2</sup> Data on these and many other secondary school problems will be available with the completion of the national survey of secondary education now in progress under the United States Office of Education.

<sup>3</sup> Hood, William R. *Legal Provisions for Rural High Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1924, No. 40. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1925. p. 24-54.

<sup>4</sup> Rural here means schools located in the open country and in centers of less than 2,500 population.

offer less than four years of work.<sup>1</sup>

Data for a few states on the availability of secondary school opportunities follow:

**New York:** The rural school survey in 1922 reported that one-third of all high schools in rural areas and villages under 4,500 offered less than four full years of work.<sup>2</sup>

**Indiana:** Of 937 elementary school graduates who were not in high school in September, 1930, 410 had no high school in their district and an additional 175 children had no transportation available. In short, two-thirds of these children were out of school because no secondary school facilities were provided for them.<sup>3</sup>

**Pennsylvania:** In 1925 more than half the high schools in fourth class (chiefly rural) districts offered less than a four-year course. Ten percent of the high school students in the state were enrolled in two- and three-year high schools.<sup>4</sup>

**Kentucky:** In the study of a single rural county, it was found that the average child in high school traveled 13.2 miles daily. One-fourth of these children lived 17.7 or more miles away from their school.<sup>5</sup>

*To what extent do rural children avail themselves of their secondary school opportunities?*—As previously stated, rural boys and girls do not enroll in high schools in as large proportional numbers as urban children, nor do they remain in high school as long. Recent estimates indicate that of the rural<sup>6</sup> children aged 15-18 years inclusive, 26 percent are enrolled in public high schools, while of the comparable age-group of urban children, 72 percent are enrolled in public high schools. The same investigation finds that only 4.6 percent of all rural children enter college as against 12.8 percent of urban children.<sup>7</sup>

Conditions in individual states are suggested by the following brief reports:

**New York:** A study of the holding power of the small high school leads to this conclusion: "On the

average the enrolment losses in small high schools are not more serious than in all New York high schools. Even that, however, is not entirely satisfactory. Too many children leave high school during their first two years. To select the small high schools which suffer the most severe losses would reveal a most apparent failure to hold pupils in school."<sup>8</sup>

**Texas:** The Survey Commission Report of 1924 presented data to show that boys and girls in large communities were remaining in high school to a much greater degree than pupils in smaller communities. Girls were remaining longer than boys, and white pupils longer than colored pupils. The senior class was 36 percent as large as the freshman class in districts with 150 or more scholastics, while in the smaller school districts the high-school senior classes were only 2.8 percent as large as the freshman classes.<sup>9</sup>

**West Virginia:** After a study of attendance and elimination from school, the recent survey concludes that "the lack of high schools in the rural sections is still the gravest defect in the school system. If the same ratio of high-school enrolment to elementary school enrolment that we have in the independent districts obtained in the non-independent (largely rural) districts, the total high-school enrolment would be doubled. The people of West Virginia should be urged to see the importance of providing high-school facilities for all pupils in the state. Under the present regime of education, the high school is the gateway to professional training. Any state that bars the way of its youth to higher education is thereby culling its potential leadership."<sup>10</sup>

*What type of secondary education is provided in rural communities?*—The most obvious characteristic of rural high schools is their smallness. A survey of rural high schools<sup>11</sup> throughout the United States indicates that three-fourths of them have an enrolment of 100 pupils or less. Only 1.4 percent have more than 300 pupils. These facts show a sharp contrast

<sup>1</sup> Gaumnitz, W. H. *The Smallness of America's Rural High Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education Bulletin, 1930, No. 13. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, p. 9.

<sup>2</sup> Ferriss, Emory N. "The Rural High School." *Rural School Survey of New York State*. Vol. 7. Ithaca, N. Y.: Joint Committee on Rural Schools, 1922, p. 15.

<sup>3</sup> Wisheart, Roy P., State Superintendent of Public Instruction. *Annual Report*. Indianapolis: Indiana Department of Public Instruction, September 30, 1930, p. 54.

<sup>4</sup> Pennsylvania Committee on Appropriations and Subsidies, High Schools, Normal Schools, Rural Schools, Teachers Institutes. *Educational Surveys, 1925*. Harrisburg, Pa.: Department of Public Instruction, p. 165-7.

<sup>5</sup> Vaughn, W. H. *Rural School Graduates in High School*. Unpublished master's thesis. George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn., 1927.

<sup>6</sup> Children residing in the open country and in centers under 2,500 population.

<sup>7</sup> Gaumnitz, W. H. *Some Comparative Statistics of Public School Education in Urban and Rural Communities*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Rural School Circular No. 27. Washington, D. C. 1928. 5 p.

<sup>8</sup> Coxe, Warren W., and Cowen, Philip A. *Educational Needs of Pupils in Small High Schools*. University of the State of New York, Bulletin No. 969, April 1, 1931. Albany, N. Y.: University of the State of New York Press, 1931. p. 56.

<sup>9</sup> Judd, Charles Hubbard. "Secondary Education." *Texas Educational Survey Report*. Vol. 3. Austin: Texas Educational Survey Commission, 1924. p. 92-7. Tennant, J. L. "Improving High-School Opportunities for Farm Boys and Girls." *Journal of Rural Education* 5: 242-52; January-February, 1926.

<sup>10</sup> Cavins, L. C., director. *Survey of Education in West Virginia*. Vol. 1. Charlestown, W. Va.: State Board of Education, 1928. p. 25-6.

<sup>11</sup> High schools located in the open country or in villages of less than 2,500 population.

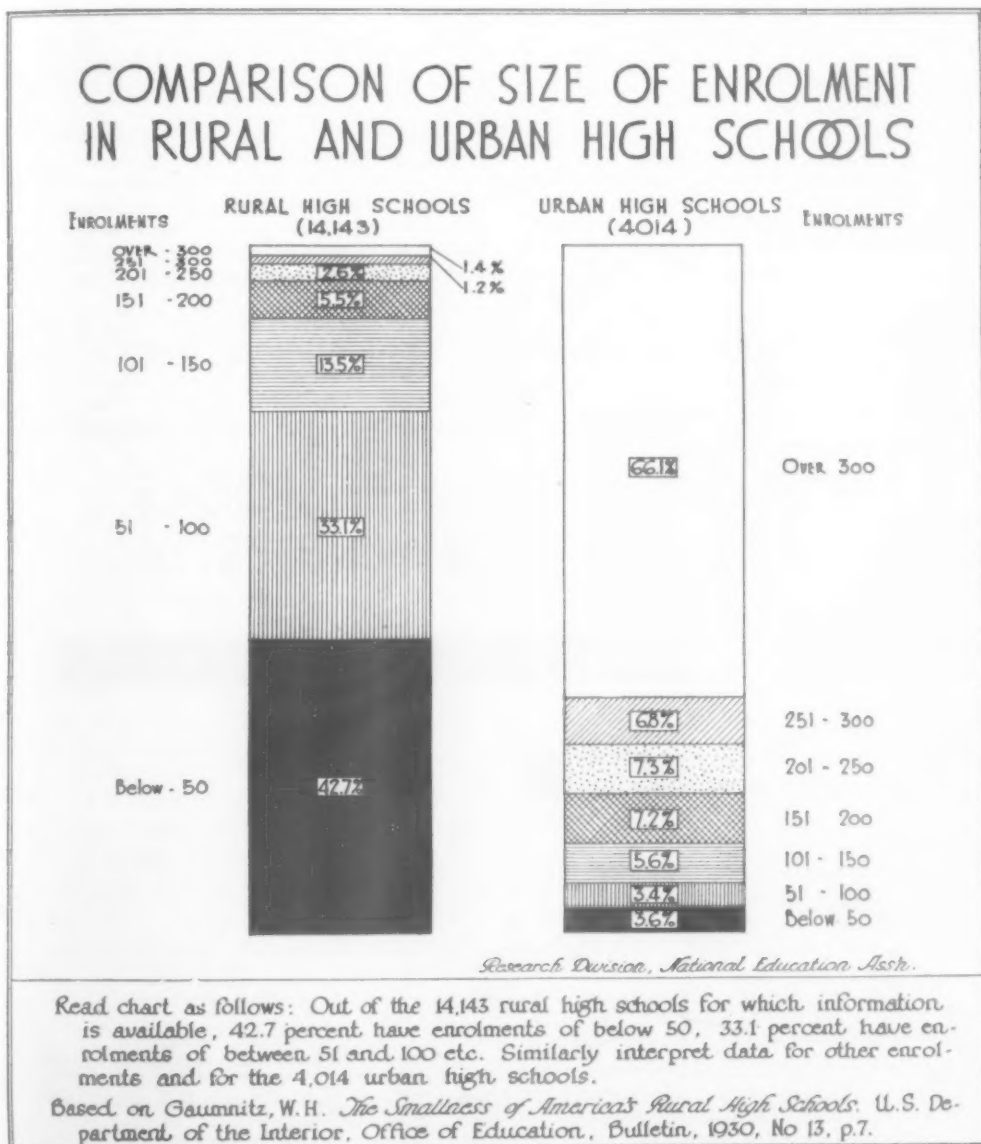
to the relatively large urban high schools. Complete data on the size of urban and rural high schools are presented in Chart VIII.

The same investigation shows that the typical rural high school enrolls 76 pupils and has a staff of four teachers. Most of these schools are organized as regular four-year high schools, although there are a few rural high schools organized to include the junior high school or other reorganized groupings of grades. The

types of rural high schools are shown in Chart IX. This Chart shows that, in spite of the very widespread adoption of the junior high school in the cities, it has as yet made little headway in rural areas.

Although only about half of those who enter small rural high schools complete the full four years of work, and although only about 40 percent of those who graduate go on to higher institutions, the curriculum of the rural high

CHART VIII



schools, emphasizes college preparatory work even, in many cases, to the exclusion of all other courses.<sup>1</sup>

The list of curriculums offered in 200 small high schools in 1927 is shown in Table 10. This table indicates that preparation for college is the dominant factor in rural high school offerings. Less than one-third of these high schools offered an agricultural curriculum, less than one-fourth offered a vocational curriculum, and only one in twenty offered a curriculum in home economics and domestic arts.

This rapid summary of the present status of rural secondary education may be summarized by two quotations from recent national studies of the subject. A committee of the National Society for the Study of Education reports, in part, as follows:

... the core of the rural high-school curriculum is still largely composed of college-preparatory subjects. It is academic in its most common features. It lacks balance, whether viewed from the angle of the common developmental needs of the adolescent,

TABLE 10.—TITLES OF CURRICULUMS OFFERED IN 200 SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

| Titles of curriculums                             |  | Frequency of mention |
|---------------------------------------------------|--|----------------------|
| 1                                                 |  | 2                    |
| College Preparatory .....                         |  | 186                  |
| Normal School Preparatory .....                   |  | 92                   |
| Commercial .....                                  |  | 65                   |
| Agricultural .....                                |  | 53                   |
| Vocational, Industrial, and Manual Training ..... |  | 44                   |
| Home Economics, Domestic Arts .....               |  | 11                   |
| General .....                                     |  | 8                    |
| Scientific .....                                  |  | 3                    |
| English .....                                     |  | 2                    |
| Academic .....                                    |  | 1                    |
| Classical .....                                   |  | 1                    |
| Engineering .....                                 |  | 1                    |
| Latin Scientific .....                            |  | 1                    |
| Life of the Average Individual .....              |  | 1                    |

<sup>1</sup> Taken from: National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, "The Development of the High School Curriculum," *Sixth Yearbook*, Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1928, p. 94.

or from the angle of individual differences in interests and aptitudes . . . or from the angle of the social adjustments needed by the great mass of people in modern life. . . . Comparison of recent statistics with those of approximately a decade ago indicates little change in the general features of the

<sup>1</sup> National Education Association, Department of Superintendence, "The Development of the High-School Curriculum," *Sixth Yearbook*, Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1928, p. 98-100. Gaumnitz, W. H. *The Smallness of America's Rural High Schools*, p. 7-8. A comparison between the educational needs of the pupils in small high schools and the offerings of the schools is given in Coxe, Warren W. and Cowen, Philip A. *Educational Needs of Pupils in Small High Schools*, Albany, New York, 1931.

## CHART IX

### TYPES OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

Regular four-year  
high schools

9926

Regular three-year, two-year,  
and one-year high schools

2595

Junior-senior high schools  
(including 3-3 organization,  
6 and 5-year undivided  
organization)

1418

Junior high schools (two-  
year, three-year and four-  
year organization)

204

Research Division, National Education Assn.

Based on Gaumnitz, W. H. *The Smallness of America's Rural High Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 13, p. 9

rural high school curriculum. In a minor way, however, encouraging changes seem to be taking place.<sup>1</sup>

A study of the rural high school by the United States Office of Education reaches this conclusion:

The secondary education of the child attending the rural or small high school is in most cases circumscribed by an untrained and overburdened teaching staff; it is limited to a narrow and maladjusted program of educational activities; and it is handicapped by the meagerness or the entire absence of educational equipment.<sup>2</sup>

Such conclusions could be further substantiated by the results of many other studies.<sup>3</sup> Although high-school training is everywhere recognized as highly desirable for effective citizenship and successful living, thousands of rural children have inadequate secondary schools or none at all. This condition is an educational problem of the greatest importance.

### How Can Secondary Schools Reach the Needs of Rural Boys and Girls?

The problem of providing adequate rural secondary schools is closely related to the general problems of rural education. Larger units of school administration and a more generous financial support which a wider taxing unit and indirect tax methods would make possible improved secondary, as well as elementary school facilities. These and other needs have been discussed generally in the preceding sections of this bulletin. At this point these proposals and certain others are presented with special reference to the high-school level.

1. *Larger high schools*—The preceding discussion has shown that smallness is the outstanding characteristic of the rural high school. The small high school finds it difficult or impossible to provide a complete program of educational service at a reasonable cost. A few teachers must handle a wide range of subjects, the principal has little time for supervision, and

funds for special services are lacking. Sparsity of population is, in many cases, the underlying cause of the smallness of rural high schools, and in such cases improvement must be achieved without significant changes in the size of the school. But in many cases it would be possible to reorganize high-school districts so as to provide larger secondary schools. Many state departments of education are carrying on active campaigns for the consolidated high-school district or for other larger units of administration which will lead to the formation of larger high schools.

The problem is in large part a matter of state legislation concerning school administration and taxing units. In many states an aggressive state and local administrative policy in favor of larger high schools has been successful without reducing the attendance at these schools. Thus, in 1918, Proctor, after a comparison of the median sizes of high schools in Oregon, Washington, and California, concluded that the presence of relatively larger high schools in California "is not due to population, area, resources, or general interest in secondary education. The difference is primarily due to the policy of high-school administration that has obtained in California. . . . In Oregon and Washington the district plan of high-school administration prevails. . . . The great number of one- and two-teacher high schools is the result of the lack of proper legislation, accompanied by financial inducements, looking to the consolidation of many contiguous elementary school districts for high-school purposes."<sup>4</sup>

Some of the other factors affecting the size of the rural high school in any given area which have been suggested are listed below:<sup>5</sup>

1. Proportion children of high-school age are of the total population.
2. Proportion high-school enrolment is of children of high-school age.
3. Extent of provision of separate high schools for boys and girls.

<sup>1</sup> Ferriss, Emery N. "The Curriculum of the Rural Four Year High School." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1931. p. 141.

<sup>2</sup> Gaumnitz, *op. cit.*, p. 68.

<sup>3</sup> Recent studies include: Combs, M. L. *Efficiency in Relation to the Size of High Schools*. Richmond: Virginia State Board of Education, 1928. 124 p. Clifton, John L. *The Small Secondary School in Ohio*. Columbus: State Department of Education, 1929. 131 p. Spaulding, F. T. *The Small Junior High School*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1927. 218 p. Rufi, John. *The Small High School*. Contributions to Education, No. 236. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. 145 p. Ferriss, Emery N. *Secondary Education in Country and Village*. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1927. 401 p.

<sup>4</sup> Proctor, William M. "Union versus Single-District High Schools." *Educational Administration and Supervision* 4: 141-54; March, 1918.

<sup>5</sup> For evaluation of these factors consult: Proctor, William M., *op. cit.* Koos, Leonard V. *The American Secondary School*. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1927. p. 208-19. Palm, Reuben R. "The Determinants of Size and Popularization of High Schools." *School Review* 39: 186-95; March, 1931.

4. Extent of provision of separate high schools for white and colored races.

5. Degree of concentration of the population within the area concerned, including such factors as the size of farms and amount of unoccupied land.

6. The amount and quality of the improved road mileage.

7. Wealth and income of the area concerned, the distribution of wealth and income within the area, and the effect of the system of public revenue on this distribution.

Detailed analysis and evaluation of these factors require extended research, with special attention to factors operating in each state. While some of these factors are inherent in the rural situation, there are others which are definitely subject to control. Such factors should be handled so as to increase the efficiency and economy of the rural high school by increasing its size.

2. *Provision of transportation and tuition at public expense*—Closely connected with the problem of securing larger districts is the problem of bringing high-school pupils to the centralized school. The extended use of the automobile and improved highways are greatly aiding in the solution of this problem. Consolidation of schools without provision for free transportation and tuition may prove a hindrance to high-school attendance. In order to be truly accessible, consolidated high schools must provide a means for the student to reach the school and to use its advantages without cost to himself or to his parents.

Tuition payment plans in public secondary schools are of two general types: (1) those under which pupils pay all or part of the cost of their schooling, and (2) those in which the pupils pay none of the cost.<sup>1</sup> The latter type is becoming widely accepted. Most of the states make definite legal provision for meeting the cost of high school for non-resident pupils out of funds provided by the school district in which the pupil resides.<sup>2</sup> There are still a few states where some pupils living in a school district which has no high school must pay tuition for high-school education in another district.

Transportation at public expense is legal for high-school pupils in 41 states, but in all except three states the decision as to whether transportation is needed or not is left solely with the high-school districts.<sup>3</sup> There are, however, no

national statistics showing separately the number of high-school and elementary school pupils transported.

3. *Special provisions for isolated pupils*—The provision of transportation for high-school pupils is not feasible in many isolated areas in the United States. If the children living in these areas are to have secondary educational opportunities, special provisions must be made in the form of (a) board and dormitory provisions at high schools too far removed from the pupil's residence to permit daily trips, (b) correspondence lessons, (c) itinerant teachers, or (d) a combination of these plans.

## Selected References

1. COMBS, M. L. *Efficiency in Relation to the Size of High Schools*. Richmond, Virginia: State Board of Education, 1928. 124 p.

The following factors are used as criteria of efficiency: teaching staff, salaries, per capita cost of instruction, program of studies, material equipment, holding power of the school, results of tests, records of graduates in freshman year at college, and percentage of high schools meeting requirements of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States for Accrediting.

2. GAUMNITZ, WALTER H. *The Smallness of America's Rural High Schools*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1930, No. 13. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930, 78 p.

Facts concerning the extent and type of secondary education provided in rural communities. Discusses educational problems and limitations of the small high school.

3. FERRISS, EMERY N. *Secondary Education in Country and Village*. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1927. 401 p.

The author states in his preface: "The purpose of the book is to present . . . the guiding principles of secondary education in a democracy, to indicate their bearing upon the work of the small secondary school and to consider with reference to these principles some of the major problems of the secondary school in small communities."

4. JUDD, CHARLES HUBBARD. "Secondary Education." *Texas Educational Survey Reports* Vol. 3. Austin, Texas: Educational Survey Commission, 1924. 103 p.

A study of the secondary school system of Texas including junior high school, the senior high school, and the junior college.

<sup>1</sup> Butterworth, Julian Edward. *Problems in State High-School Finance*. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1918. 214 p.

<sup>2</sup> Troxel, Oliver L. *State Control of Secondary Education*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1928. p. 16.

<sup>3</sup> Troxel, *ibid.*, p. 22.

5. RUFF, JOHN. *The Small High School*. Contributions to Education, No. 236. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. 145 p.

A study of the problems of the small high school which arise from the environment, finances, housing and equipment, faculty, administration and supervision, pupils, and curricula.

6. SPAULDING, FRANCIS T. *The Small Junior High School*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1927. 226 p.

A study of the possibilities and limitations of the small junior high school. Discusses difficulties peculiar to this type of high school such as classification of pupils, the offering of electives, provisions for extra-curricular activities, etc., with suggestions for meeting them.

7. TROXEL, OLIVER L. *State Control of Secondary Education*. Baltimore, Maryland: Warwick and York, Inc., 1928. 232 p.

A study of laws and regulations pertaining to state control of secondary education in a number of states. Presents data on transportation and tuition of high-school pupils.

8. WINDES, E. E. *High-School Education of the Farm Population in Selected States*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1925, No. 6. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1925. 24 p.

Shows the comparative extent to which farm and non-farm groups are receiving public secondary education and the relation of significant factors concerning high schools and the farm population to participation in secondary education by farm children.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL serving rural communities, if it is to be a genuine democratic institution, should give the opportunity for a liberal education, but liberal in the sense of a broad, sympathetic understanding and appreciation of the important and significant life activities of today. It should assist the pupil to become an efficient member of society by helping him to know himself and by equipping him in the most direct way possible to realize upon his inheritance, and to render his service, whatever it may be, to society. For many this will mean opportunities for vocational training. Its work in a particular community should be determined with reference to the significant activities of that community but should not be limited to them. Often it will need to supplement, enlarge, or redirect, some of the practices of a community through education in the light of the desired trends in social economic progress. Above all, through all its work, it should strive to develop, within the possibilities of each individual, resourcefulness, intellectual honesty, correct habits of thinking, and an open mind.—Emery N. Ferriss, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., *Proceedings, 1927, National Education Association*, p. 519.

## 9. Rural School Buildings and Equipment

### What Are the Facts Concerning Rural School Buildings?

Approximately 150,000 one-room schools are in use in the United States. These schools, practically all of which are located in the open country, constitute approximately 60 percent of all the public school buildings in use. These one-room buildings represent the schoolhousing facilities offered to the overwhelming majority of the farm children of the Nation. While larger school buildings are, in general, much more effective than the smaller buildings, and while it is often possible to abandon these smaller buildings in favor of consolidated rural schools, one-room schools must continue to serve large numbers of rural children. Having made all of the consolidations that are feasible, the question yet arises as to what can be done to improve the large number of one-room schools which must remain in use. At present, the buildings, equipment, and grounds of these schools do not constitute an environment which meets modern educational standards and needs. In recent years score cards<sup>1</sup> for rating one-room school buildings have been devised, and these score cards have been applied in surveys of rural education in a number of states. Such investigations indicate that only a small percent of existing one-room schools can meet the standards proposed by the score cards.

The relatively small amount invested in rural school property accounts in part for the inadequacy of existing buildings and equipment. The value of urban school property per child in average daily attendance is about three times as great as the value of rural school property. The average value of rural school property is \$99 per pupil and that of urban property is \$299 per pupil. Present expenditures for capital outlay in rural and urban areas are \$12.29 and \$29.51 respectively.<sup>2</sup>

The foregoing estimates include in the term "rural" all school buildings located in the open

country and in communities of under 2500 population. If it were possible to secure data contrasting urban schools with the one-room open country schools alone, the contrast in value would be even more striking than that suggested above. With this financial differential operating against the one-room school, it is not surprising that in safety, comfort, health, sanitation, attractiveness, educational fitness and equipment, the rural schoolhouse lags behind national standards.

The following examples selected from representative recent state school surveys portray the rural school plant in individual states.

**West Virginia (1929):** The 397 white one-teacher school buildings, measured by means of the Butterworth Score Card,<sup>3</sup> yielded a median score of 553 out of a possible 1000 with the middle 50 percent falling between 452 and 693.

On the whole, the one-room school buildings in the state were found to be satisfactory as to size and shape, but as a rule they were not properly constructed and equipped to render the most efficient service. Lighting arrangements were inadequate in many of the schools. Three-fourths of the rooms were heated in such a way as to preclude proper ventilation. Nearly all of the desks were of the non-adjustable type.

In a few schools, home-made benches were used. One-third of the schools depended upon some outside source for their water supply. Almost three-fourths of the schools had grounds of less than the minimum standard size (one acre), and the same proportion had no playground equipment. More than four-fifths of the buildings needed repair. The oldest building in use dated back to 1856. Of 370 buildings, concerning which data were available, 169, or nearly 50 percent, were more than 25 years old. About 1 rural building in 10 had served for more than 50 years. The estimated value of the median one-teacher school in this state was \$858.<sup>4</sup>

**Texas (1925):** Seventy-eight one-room schools were rated according to the Butterworth scale. The median score was 594 out of a possible 1000. The scores of the middle 50 percent of the buildings ranged between 505 and 649. Only 25 percent of the buildings scored over 649 points.

<sup>1</sup> Butterworth, Julian E. "A Score Card for One- and Two-Teacher School Buildings." *Journal of Rural Education* 2: 9-20, September, 1922. Strayer, George D. and Englehardt, N. L. *Score Card for Village and Rural School Buildings of Four Teachers or Less*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, Bulletin No. 9, January, 1920. Ashbaugh, E. J. and Stevenson, P. R. "A Score Card for Rural School Buildings." *Educational Research Bulletin* 3: 34-5, 47; January, 1924.

<sup>2</sup> Gaumnitz, W. H. *Some Comparative Statistics of Public Education in Urban and Rural Communities*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Rural School Circular No. 27, October, 1928. Washington, D. C.: 1928, 5 p.

<sup>3</sup> Butterworth, Julian E. "A Score Card for One- and Two-Teacher School Buildings." *Journal of Rural Education* 2: 9-20; September, 1922.

<sup>4</sup> Holy, Thomas C. "School Buildings." *Survey of Education in West Virginia*. Vol. 3. Cavins, Lorimer V., director. Charleston West Virginia: State Department of Education, 1929. 228 p.

Fifty percent of the buildings were of the box type. Two-thirds of the rooms had less than the standard amount of window space and a still larger proportion did not have windows correctly placed for proper lighting. Only one-third of the rooms were heated by jacketed stoves. While more than half of the schools were supplied with water from a well or cistern on the grounds, or from a community water system, more than one-third still used the open pail and more than one-tenth had no drinking facilities whatever.

One-third of the schools had no place to hang hats or wraps. These were left lying on desks or floors when not being worn. Not quite one-fifth were provided with cloak rooms. Half of the 78 schools had no fuel rooms. One-third had no place to keep library books and in one-fifth of the rooms the "blackboards" were merely painted wood, plaster, or cloth.

While a large proportion of the schools had an acre or more in the school grounds, more than half were fenced with barbed wire, and the grounds are described as "unsightly" in three-fourths of the cases. Half of the schools had no playground equipment.<sup>1</sup>

**Wisconsin (1925):** Three hundred fifty schools located in 4 counties were included in this survey. The buildings were scored by means of a specially devised rating card which allowed 1000 possible points per building. The median score of the one-room schools was found to be 485, with the range of the middle 50 percent between 436 and 548. The buildings were scored on 6 items: site, construction, classroom, service systems (heating, ventilation, and water-supply), accessory rooms, and equipment.

The rating of classrooms, including size and shape, walls, doors, windows, blackboards, etc., was given 57 percent of the possible score. As a rule, the lighting was inadequate. The walls were often in bad repair and the decorations poor, but floors were usually in good condition and blackboards were, on the whole, considered very good. Cloak-room space was provided in all rural schools, but the standards set for space and equipment in these rooms were seldom complied with.

Although few of the buildings were fireproof, only 7 of the 350 schools had fire extinguishers. All the schools had some arrangement for water supply, but in many cases this merely consisted in carrying water from the nearest house. In general, the construction and condition of the toilets were considered unsatisfactory.<sup>2</sup>

**California (1930):** The chief of the state division of schoolhouse planning in his report for 1930 asserts that more than half of the rural schools of the state have no garden and that only 15 percent show any real attempt to develop an artistic garden setting. "The vast majority of our rural schools," he goes on, "are of cheap and sometimes flimsy construction." Four buildings out of every five are Class E frame

structures. Play areas are "in a state of primitive development" and inadequate attention is given to sanitation and health. Such conditions can not be completely remedied until there is "a change in tax methods or an adequate means of local relief through an equalization apportionment by the state."<sup>3</sup>

## How Can Rural School Buildings and Equipment Be Improved?

Increasing demands on the rural school have resulted in efforts to improve present educational facilities through consolidation, state aid, standardization, improved administrative policies, and by securing community interest and cooperation. Several of these methods of improvement are separately discussed elsewhere in this bulletin. These are mentioned here merely with respect to the special problem of the school building.

1. *Consolidation*—The number of one-teacher schools in the United States is believed to have reached its peak sometime prior to 1918. Since that time they have decreased in number from 195,397 to 153,306 in 1928, an average annual decrease of more than 4,000 and a total decrease for the decade of 22 percent. States showing the greatest progress in closing the small rural school are: Georgia, with only 26.3 percent as many one-teacher schools in 1928 as in 1918, Arkansas, Connecticut, Delaware, Indiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and Washington.

During the decade from 1918 to 1928 the number of consolidated schools in the United States, established generally to take the places of abandoned one-room schools, increased from 5,349 to 17,004. The movement toward larger educational units has been greatly facilitated by improved means of transportation. From 1904 to 1928 the per capita expenditure for roads increased from \$.90 to \$11 in the United States, and the mileage of surfaced highways increased from 153,530 to 626,000. Improvement of motor-drawn vehicles has also been an influential factor toward consolidation. Thirty-two states report that of 48,459 vehicles used in transporting pupils, 42,768 are motor-drawn.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Works, George A., director. "Organization and Administration." *Texas Educational Survey Report*. Vol. 1. Austin, Texas: Educational Survey Commission, 1925. Chapters 18 to 21 inclusive, p. 313-92.

<sup>2</sup> Giles, J. T., chairman. *Wisconsin Rural School Survey*. Report of the Building Survey Committee, Bulletin of the Wisconsin Teachers Association. Madison, Wis.: the Association, November, 1925. 37 p.

<sup>3</sup> Hill, Andrew P. "Report of the Division of Schoolhouse Planning." *Biennial Report of the California State Department of Education*, Part I, 1930, p. 164-84. Sacramento, California State Printing Office, 1931.

<sup>4</sup> Covert, Timon. *Rural School Consolidation*. U. S. Dept. of the Interior, Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 6, 1930. Washington, D. C. Government Printing Office. p. 12.

Table 11 and Chart X show some trends in rural education which are highly significant in terms of the type of buildings available. Along with the decrease in the number of one-teacher schools is given the concomitant increase in the number of consolidated schools, the number of pupils transported, and the amount spent for transportation over a period of ten years.<sup>1</sup>

2. *State aid for rural school buildings*—Recognition by the state department of education of the greater educational, social, and administrative advantages to be derived from centralization of schools has resulted in their active support of the movement. By 1918, eighty years after the enactment of the first consolidation law, all states had passed laws permitting the centralization of small rural schools under specified conditions. Twenty-seven states have legal provisions for granting state aid to consolidated schools for buildings, transportation, or current expenses. Such funds are usually granted only to schools which have met certain standards with respect to buildings, equipment, transportation, or instruction; the objective being either to improve the existing school plant or to promote consolidation. Alabama granted \$232,999 in 1925-26 as

compared to \$170,083 in 1918-19 for buildings and equipment of rural schoolhouses. Georgia increased the fund to aid in the establishment and maintenance of consolidated and high schools from \$100,000 in 1919 to \$300,000 in 1926. In Minnesota, state aid for transportation was increased from \$216,207 in 1917 to \$807,621 in 1926, and, in addition, larger grants were made each year for buildings in consolidated districts.<sup>2</sup>

3. *Improving Rural Schools by Ratings and Standardization*—The interest of state departments of education in the improvement of rural schools has resulted in the preparation and use of a number of state score cards for rural schools.<sup>3</sup> These cards lay great emphasis on the building and physical equipment of the school since these factors are relatively easy to observe and to measure. The typical score card is based on 1000 points for an ideal rural school and allows a fixed proportion of these points for various factors connected with the school, such as, buildings, grounds, equipment, attendance, and a wide variety of other factors. The ratings are usually made by state or county school officials, and the schools which receive more than a fixed percent of the total possible score are recognized as "standard" and

<sup>1</sup> Covert, Timon. *Ibid.* p. 3, 13.

<sup>2</sup> Covert, Timon. *Op. cit.* p. 12.

<sup>3</sup> Following is a list of typical score cards: Arkansas Department of Education. "Minimum Requirements for Approved Elementary Schools—Guide Card." *Arkansas Course of Study for the Elementary Grades*. Fort Smith, 1927, p. 37-9. Idaho Standard School Requirements—Score Sheet. Caxton Printers, Caldwell. Iowa Department of Education. *Standard School Rating Card for Schools*. Kansas Department of Education. "Score Card for Schools." *Better Schools for Kansas*. Topeka, 1928, p. 5-13. Michigan Department of Public Instruction. *Rural Schoolhouses*. Bulletin No. 54. Lansing, 1923, 90 p. Mississippi Department of Education. *Score Card—Elementary Schools*. Jackson, 1926. Nebraska Department of Public Instruction. "Official Score Card for Nebraska Standard Rural Schools." *Rural School Standards*. Lincoln, 1927, p. 6-8. Ohio Department of Education. *Rural and Village Elementary School Standards*, 4 p. Tennessee Department of Education. *Rating Card for Rural Schools*, 8 p. Texas Department of Education. *Official Score Card for Rural Schools*, 4 p. Vermont Board of Education. "Official Rating Sheet for Rural Schools." *The Rural Schools of Vermont: A Guide for Their Improvement and Standardization*, Chapter IV. (Bulletin No. 1, 1929). West Virginia State Department of Education. *West Virginia Standard School—Score Card*.

TABLE 11—TRENDS TOWARD RURAL SCHOOL CONSOLIDATION.

| Year         | Approximate Number in the United States |                      |                           | Amount Spent for Transportation |
|--------------|-----------------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|
|              | One-Teacher Schools                     | Consolidated Schools | Number Pupils Transported |                                 |
| 1            | 2                                       | 3                    | 4                         | 5                               |
| 1919-20..... | 187,948                                 | 12,500 <sup>1</sup>  | 350,100                   | \$14,537,754                    |
| 1921-22..... | 174,945                                 | 13,000 <sup>1</sup>  | 593,730 <sup>2</sup>      | 21,814,744                      |
| 1923-24..... | 165,417                                 | 14,000 <sup>1</sup>  | 837,361                   | 29,627,402                      |
| 1925-26..... | 161,531                                 | 16,000 <sup>1</sup>  | 1,111,553                 | 35,052,680                      |
| 1927-28..... | 153,306                                 | 17,500 <sup>1</sup>  | 1,250,574                 | 39,952,502                      |
| 1929-30..... | 145,000 <sup>2</sup>                    | 18,500 <sup>2</sup>  | 1,350,000 <sup>2</sup>    | 44,000,000 <sup>2</sup>         |

Source of data: Covert, Timon. *Rural School Consolidation*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 6, 1930, Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. p. 3-4.

<sup>1</sup> Estimates based on partially complete data.

<sup>2</sup> Estimates based on trend in past years.

<sup>3</sup> Estimates derived by interpolation.

are conspicuously marked as such by a brass plaque or other emblem.

In order to determine the type of requirements fixed by these score cards for rural school buildings and equipment, an analysis was made of 11 such rating cards in use in the following states:

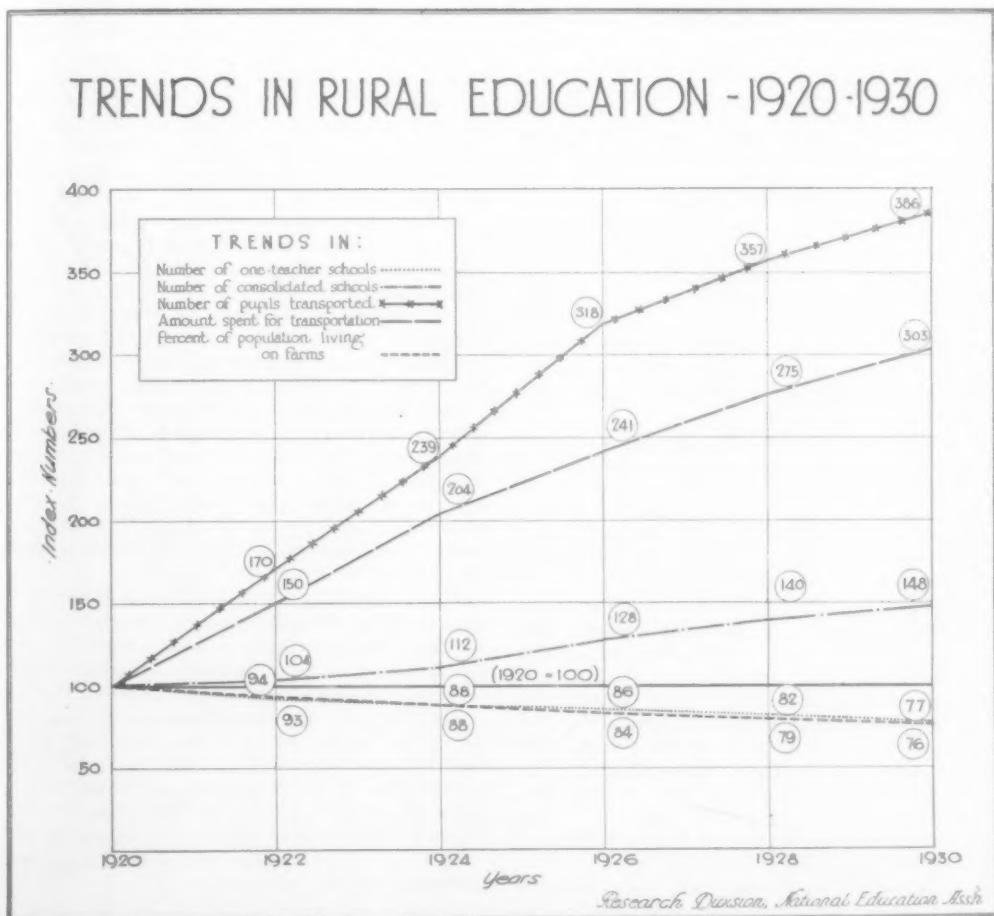
|             |               |
|-------------|---------------|
| Arkansas    | Nebraska      |
| Idaho       | Ohio          |
| Iowa        | Tennessee     |
| Kansas      | Texas         |
| Mississippi | Vermont       |
|             | West Virginia |

This is a good geographical distribution, including one New England state, four north-central states, one western state, four south-central states, and one south Atlantic state.

The combined judgment of the eleven state departments of education thus represented should give a reasonably accurate picture of what constitutes an acceptable rural school building in the United States today. All of the score cards suggest that the rural school building should be constructed with rural school and community needs in mind. The following composite is suggestive only and does not aim to provide a complete account of desirable standards. To secure such an account one should consult the score cards on which the statement is based and the references at the close of this section.

**The Schoolhouse:** According to these score cards, the leading features of a good one-room school building are: correct construction, proper lighting

CHART X



(including good window shades), good housekeeping arrangements, ventilation, painting and repair, proper heating arrangements, and adequate floor space. Other minor features include decoration and arrangement of rooms, locks on the windows and doors, cloakroom and locker facilities, storage space, and screened windows. A few of the more significant and important of these features will be discussed in more detail.

Lighting is the most heavily weighted feature of a good rural schoolhouse. The Vermont card emphasizes that "thousands of children have defective vision which can be directly traced to improper lighting conditions in the schoolrooms. Nor is this all. Modern science tells us that eyestrain causes many of the nervous diseases which handicap our people." Table 12 shows the minimum standards suggested by certain score cards for various aspects of schoolhouse lighting. This tabulation shows that a composite judgment of what constitutes good lighting would require windows on the left or on the left and rear of the seated children, placed on the east of the building at least 3 feet from the floor and extending as high as possible. Divisions between windows should be narrow. To avoid glare, no window should be placed nearer the front of the room than 6 feet. To insure adequate light for the entire room, very wide, low rooms should be avoided. The actual glass area (not the glass and sash area) should be at least one-fifth of the area of the floor.

General construction of the schoolhouse is given a prominent place by the score cards. Iowa, Tennessee, Texas, and Kansas emphasize the need for a solid foundation, and for a roof and sidings which are water-tight. The need for a tight foundation which will help keep the floor warm in the winter is pointed out in the Vermont standards. Ventilation under the building to prevent decay is also important.

Heating and ventilation are specifically mentioned in all of the score cards. The factors involved in satisfactory heating and ventilation are summarized in Table 13.

The economic and educative importance of maintaining the school building in presentable condition is specifically recognized by the state score cards. A composite of the requirements mentioned includes a well-painted exterior (repainted at least every 5 years), windows without broken panes, sash in working order, floors kept smooth and in good condition, heating plant kept in good working order and without fire hazards, no leaks in roof, walls, or foundation, and porches, steps, and vestibules in safe condition.

Three states require the rooms or lockers to be furnished with hooks, 2 require shelves for lunches and books, and 1 requires a cot. The Kansas score card emphasizes the need for keeping the cloakrooms free from being used as storage spaces and the need for teacher supervision of these rooms, while the Texas card suggests the need of having cloakrooms lighted and ventilated.

Other features of a good rural school building include the arrangement and decoration of the

rooms, locks on the doors and windows, workrooms in the basement or elsewhere, floors oiled or waxed at least twice each session, screened windows when needed, at least two doors opening outward, the name or number of the school displayed, storage closets, a roofed porch, and a library room or alcove.

**Other Buildings:** Besides the schoolhouse itself, the other structures mentioned by the score cards include toilets, fuel shed, barn, and garage. Of these, the most commonly mentioned are the toilets and detailed standards are set up by the various score cards covering their construction.

**Grounds:** The desire to make rural schoolhouses attractive is reflected in the standards suggested for the grounds in which they are located. Among the factors which help rural school grounds to meet the standards set up by the score cards, walks, shrubs, trees, and lawn take first place. It is suggested that shrubs be placed either close around the schoolhouse or around the edge of the lot, so as to leave the yard itself open for games.

Play apparatus follows trees and shrubs in order of importance according to the values assigned by the score cards. Such apparatus, the Vermont score card points out, "need not be expensive nor elaborate" but will yield rich returns in encouraging social cooperativeness and other desirable traits.

The size of the lot on which the schoolhouse is located is mentioned by several score cards. Standards vary considerably on this point. Arkansas requires 1 acre for each 50 pupils or major fraction thereof, and Mississippi 1 acre for each teacher. Iowa also requires a fenced playground of at least 1 acre. Nebraska will accept a 1-acre lot as minimum but encourages the use of a lot double that size. Ohio gives maximum credit to grounds over  $2\frac{1}{2}$  acres in extent but will give fractional credit to grounds as small as one-half acre. Tennessee and West Virginia accept one-half acre per teacher.

Location and care are also important factors in evaluating rural school grounds. The lot should be oblong in shape, well-drained, accessible, safe, and free from stones, sticks, weeds, rubbish, and ashes.

**Sanitation:** Several aspects of rural school sanitation have already been mentioned in connection with the location, construction, and care of outbuildings, drainage of school grounds, and ventilation and care of the schoolroom. Other sanitary features which merit brief separate discussion are: drinking water supply, washing facilities, cleaning equipment, and items related to these.

Water supply standards are usually expressed in general terms, and school boards are urged to call for assistance from state or county health officials if any doubt exists concerning the purity of the school water supply. If the water is carried to the schoolhouse, the Kansas regulations require that the carrier be designated by the board and that a covered vessel be used. If a well is used, Nebraska requires that it be deep enough to avoid surface drainage, and that the cover be tight fitting. The use of water coolers is satisfactory in Tennessee and Mississippi but these must be covered, dustproof, and equipped with a faucet.

Drinking and washing facilities are described in

TABLE 12—CERTAIN MINIMUM OR STANDARD LIGHTING REQUIREMENTS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS.

| Feature                                     | State Score Cards |                       |           |                       |                                    |                       |                       |                       |                           |                                                           | Butterworth Score Card                           | Wisconsin Survey Score Card        | Stevenson Ashbaugh Score Card |
|---------------------------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------------------|------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
|                                             | Idaho             | Iowa                  | Kansas    | Mississippi           | Nebraska                           | Ohio                  | Tennessee             | Texas                 | Vermont                   |                                                           |                                                  |                                    |                               |
| 1                                           | 2                 | 3                     | 4         | 5                     | 6                                  | 7                     | 8                     | 9                     | 10                        | 11                                                        | 12                                               | 13                                 |                               |
| Ratio of glass to floor space, <sup>1</sup> | 1/6               | 1/4 to 1/6            | 1/5       | 1/5                   | 1/5                                | 1/5                   | 1/5                   | 1/6                   | 1/5                       | 1/5 (1/4 if light comes from north.)                      | 1/6                                              | 1/4                                |                               |
| Direction of light.                         |                   | Left or left and rear | E or W    | Left or left and rear | N or E Left or left and rear       | Left or left and rear | Left or left and rear | Left or left and rear | Left or left and rear     | Left                                                      | E preferred Left                                 | SE or E Left                       |                               |
| Side of light.                              |                   |                       | 3 1/2 ft. |                       | 3 or 3 1/2 ft. or 6 ft. if in rear |                       |                       |                       | 3 ft. or 6 ft. if in rear | 3 to 4 ft.                                                | 3 ft.                                            | 3 ft.                              |                               |
| Height of windows from floor.               |                   |                       |           |                       |                                    |                       |                       |                       | 6 ft.                     | Not beyond front row of seats                             | 7 ft.                                            | 5-7 ft.                            |                               |
| Distance of windows from front wall.        |                   |                       |           |                       |                                    |                       |                       |                       | Least possible            | 10 inches maximum                                         |                                                  | 10 inches maximum                  |                               |
| Distance between windows.                   |                   |                       |           |                       |                                    |                       |                       |                       | High                      | Distance from floor to top of window = 2/3 width of room. | 8 inches below ceiling in g. of standard height. | Not less than 6 in. below ceiling. |                               |
| Top of windows.                             |                   |                       | High      |                       | Almost to ceiling                  |                       |                       |                       |                           |                                                           |                                                  |                                    |                               |

TABLE 13—CERTAIN MINIMUM OR STANDARD HEATING AND VENTILATING REQUIREMENTS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

| Feature                                            | State Score Cards |      |        |             |          |      |           |         |     | Butterworth Score Card | Wisconsin Survey Score Card | Stevenson Ashbaugh Score Card |
|----------------------------------------------------|-------------------|------|--------|-------------|----------|------|-----------|---------|-----|------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
|                                                    | Idaho             | Iowa | Kansas | Mississippi | Nebraska | Ohio | Tennessee | Vermont |     |                        |                             |                               |
| 1                                                  | 2                 | 3    | 4      | 5           | 6        | 7    | 8         | 9       | 10  | 11                     | 12                          |                               |
| Jacketed stove or outside heating plant specified. | Yes               |      | Yes    | Yes         | Yes      | Yes  | Yes       | Yes     | Yes | Yes                    | Yes                         | Yes                           |
| Method for humidifying air.                        | 225               | 220  |        |             | 200      |      | 200       |         | 200 |                        |                             | 200                           |
| Air space per pupil (cubic feet).                  | 15                | 20   |        | 15          | 15       |      | 20        |         | 15  |                        |                             | 16                            |
| Floor space per pupil (square feet).               |                   |      |        |             | 68       |      |           |         | 68  |                        |                             | 68                            |
| Desirable temperature (degrees Fahrenheit).        |                   |      |        |             |          |      |           |         |     |                        |                             |                               |

<sup>1</sup>The latitude in which the building is located may make important differences in this standard.

considerable detail by most of the score cards. The common cup is, of course, taboo. Bubblers or individual cups are required. The latter must be kept clean by frequent scaldings and placed where dust will not collect on them. A cup which can be carried home and washed every night is desirable. Folded paper cups, which can be made by the pupils and discarded after using, are suggested by the Nebraska and Vermont cards. Washing facilities include, in addition to the water supply, wash basins, soap, mirrors, and towels. Individual or paper towels are always specified; common and roller towels are forbidden, often by law.

**Furniture:** The furniture of a good rural school includes desks and seats, special kindergarten-primary furniture, bookcases, supply cupboards, teacher's desk, teacher's chair, extra chairs, doormats and footscrapers, lunch cupboards, bookracks, filing cabinets, and tables.

Desks and seats are included in all of the score cards. Four generally accepted requirements for seating equipment are: proper arrangement, suitable material and finish, a separate seat provided for every pupil, and adjustable seats and desks whenever new furniture is purchased. Desks and seats should be placed so that the children using them will not face a window. The edge of the desk should overlap the front edge of the lowered seat by about 1 to 2½ inches. No child should be required to sit at a desk where his feet do not reach the floor or be crowded into a seat where his knees are bent at an acute angle. The old-fashioned double desks are roundly condemned, and adjustable and movable seats are frequently urged for all new equipment. The score cards insist on the importance of proper seating furniture because such equipment encourages good posture, good bodily development, a quiet and orderly classroom, and efficient study.

Bookcases are also included in most of the score cards. The bookcase should be capable of being easily opened and closed so as to exclude dust. It should be used for books only, rather than for miscellaneous storage, and should be equipped with a lock and key.

The teacher's desk and chair are listed by nearly all of the score cards. The desk should be of a modern type, in good condition, and large enough to meet the teacher's needs. At least one drawer should be equipped with lock and key in working order. Other desirable items of furniture include extra chairs, cupboards, doormats, tables, and special furniture for primary children.

**Instructional Equipment:** The most important equipment for instructional purposes noted by the score cards includes blackboards, dictionaries, supplementary books, globes, maps, musical instruments, pictures, chalk, blackboard erasers, reference books, newspapers and magazines, charts, phonographs and records, sand tables, flags, stereopticons or similar visual education equipment, writing and drawing supplies, lenses, pointers, and weights and measures.

Supplementary books head the list of instructional equipment. They appear on every score card in-

cluded in this study. Idaho requires at least three sets of supplementary readers and additional books including the pupils' reading circle books and song books. Iowa requires two complete sets of supplementary readers and 100 books chosen from an approved state list. Ohio requires at least 50 books for one-room rural schools. Texas standards require the outlay of at least \$25 per classroom for approved supplementary books.

Blackboards are also mentioned by all of the score cards. The required amount, quality, and position of the blackboard vary somewhat. Nebraska requires 20 linear feet "of good quality," some of which is within the reach of small children. Idaho requires 25 linear feet; Iowa, 20 linear feet of slate installed at "the proper height"; Kansas, 100 square feet with slate preferred. Mississippi requires 30 linear feet for full credit on this item but will accept composition board if kept in good condition; Ohio, 18 linear feet with slate preferred; Tennessee, 30 linear feet with slate allowed 50 percent more credit than composition board; Texas, 30 linear feet at least 3 feet wide; and Vermont, 16 linear feet at least 3 feet wide with some sections 24 or 26 inches from the floor.

A wide variety of other instructional equipment is included in one or more of the score cards. The list is too detailed to be reproduced here. Items most frequently mentioned are: maps, globes, encyclopedias, dictionaries, wall pictures, musical instruments, magazines, bulletin boards, and flags.

**Managerial Equipment:** Managerial supplies include such articles as: clocks, fuel, bookmending materials, pencil sharpeners, thermometers, waste baskets, hot lunch equipment, bells, coal buckets, first-aid kits, fire extinguishers, duplicators, and printing outfits.

The above composite of the judgments represented in a group of rural school score cards should suggest the usefulness of these agencies in encouraging needed improvements in the buildings and equipment of one-room schools.

**4. State funds for rural school buildings—**  
The low assessed valuation and limited bonding power of many rural school districts prevent the erection of an adequate schoolhouse. Most state school apportionments can be expended by the local districts only for maintenance. In the absence of adequate and comprehensive equalization funds, to compensate for lack of financial ability to support education, some provision for state assistance in school building often results in improved schoolhouses in rural areas.

States providing funds for the construction or improvement of the rural school plant include:<sup>1</sup> Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Iowa,

<sup>1</sup> Swift, Fletcher Harper, and Zimmerman, Bruce Lewis. *State School Taxes and School Funds and Their Apportionment*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin 1928, No. 29. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1929. 427 p.

Maine, Minnesota,<sup>1</sup> New York, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia, Wisconsin,<sup>1</sup> and West Virginia. Since the object of this practice is to raise the standard of rural school buildings and equipment, such aid is usually given only to schools which comply with specified requirements.

Various plans have been formulated for providing state aid. Alabama, Delaware, New York, South Carolina, and Tennessee give directly a part of the necessary funds for the construction, equipment or repair of rural school buildings; Iowa, Maine, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, Vermont, Virginia, Wisconsin, and West Virginia grant special aid to standardized schools; Arkansas has a revolving loan fund from which loans are made to needy school districts for erecting, equipping, or repairing schoolhouses or for paying off indebtedness on buildings or equipment; Pennsylvania provides a fund to aid rural school districts to replace school buildings which have been destroyed by fire.

Indirectly, too, the state funds which encourage consolidation and the provision of transportation facilities lead to better rural school buildings. Fifteen states now provide special financial aid for maintaining schools in consolidated districts, eight states have legal provision for state aid in building consolidated schools, and seventeen states provide definite grants for pupil transportation expense.<sup>2</sup>

5. *State school building service*—School architects or directors of schoolhousing are now employed in sixteen state departments of education.<sup>3</sup> The purposes of the Division of School Buildings and Grounds in Arkansas are illustrative.<sup>4</sup>

1. To prepare plans of school ground development.
2. To furnish generalized building plans to rural and village school officials.

3. To furnish preliminary sketches of floor plans for larger buildings which present special problems.
4. To check architects' plans for school buildings on request. (In some states such checking is compulsory).
5. To advise school officials as to plans for remodeling, repairing, and altering school buildings and as to interior arrangement, furniture, and equipment.
6. To advise teachers and superintendents as to interior arrangement, furniture, and equipment.

The rural districts in particular profit by a well-devised and executed program of state advice and leadership in school building matters. Such a program need not result in curtailing local initiative in desirable directions. The larger school districts remain free to develop their own plans in accordance with their own needs and desires. The state merely asserts its undoubted right to fix reasonable minimum standards of safety, sanitation, and educational adequacy and stands ready to help those which need aid to meet and, if possible, to exceed those minimums.

6. *Free textbooks*—Under present conditions, books are perhaps the most important single item of school equipment. The provision of textbooks at public expense does much to facilitate the work of the schools. Particularly in rural areas, where bookstores are hard to reach and where short terms and irregular attendance make a prompt beginning of school work especially desirable, the provision of textbooks at public expense is especially important.<sup>5</sup>

In about half of the states textbooks are provided at public expense in all elementary schools and an additional twenty states have enacted laws permitting local districts to supply free textbooks.<sup>6</sup>

Poor housing and equipment are not necessary accompaniments of rural school conditions. In many places the one-room school is no

<sup>1</sup> Baldwin, Robert Dodge. *Financing Rural Education*. Stevens Point, Wis.: Rural Service Press. 1927. p. 171-3.

<sup>2</sup> Covert, Timon. *State Aid for School Consolidation and Pupil Transportation*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Leaflet No. 3, February, 1931. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 9 p.

<sup>3</sup> National Education Association, Research Division. "Staffs and Salaries in State Departments of Education." *Studies in State Educational Administration*, No. 9. Washington, D. C.: the Association, March, 1931. p. 19.

<sup>4</sup> Hirst, C. M. "Problems and Programs of Schoolhouse Building in Arkansas." *American School Board Journal* 74: 94, 140; January, 1927.

<sup>5</sup> For a summary of arguments in favor of free textbooks consult: National Education Association, Research Division. "A Self-survey Plan for State School Systems, Part I—Checklists, Part II—Handbook." *Research Bulletin* 8: 54-163; March and May, 1930. Washington, D. C.: the Association. p. 143-44.

<sup>6</sup> The questions of state uniformity, state adoption, state printing, and state publication of textbooks are not discussed here. See: National Society for the Study of Education. "The Textbook in American Education." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part II. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1931. 364 p.

longer needed and is being rapidly replaced by consolidated school buildings. The one-room school itself can be made an attractive and effective educational center. The effect of such a building on rural homes and home life will be significant. The plans described above will do much in the next few years to make the rural school plant and equipment a suitable agency for the important responsibilities which center in it.

## Selected References

1. ASHBAUGH, E. J., AND STEVENSON, P. R. "A Score Card for Rural School Buildings." *Educational Research Bulletin* 3: 34-5, 47; January 23, 1924.  
Standards and scores for evaluating small buildings. Score card published by the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois.
2. BALTHIS, FRANK K. "Beautifying Village School Grounds." *American School Board Journal* 66: 13-5, 40-1; 67: 50-1; May, June, July, 1923.  
Suggestions for planting trees, plants, etc., around school buildings. Illustrated with photographs.
3. BUTTERWORTH, JULIAN E. *Improving the School Building Facilities of One and Two-Teacher Districts through Measurement*. Extension Bulletin No. 52, June, 1922. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University, 1922. 18 p.  
Presents standards to be used in scoring small school buildings by means of the Butterworth score card. Sample score card is filled out.
4. DRESSLAR, FLETCHER B., AND PRUETT, HASKELL. *Rural Schoolhouses, School Grounds, and Their Equipment*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 21. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. 427 p.

Formulates principles for planning the rural schoolhouse; gives advice concerning its construction or remodeling.

5. GILES, J. T., Chairman, *Wisconsin Rural School Survey*. Report of the Building Survey Committee, Bulletin of the Wisconsin Teachers Association, Madison, Wisconsin: the Association, November, 1925. 37 p.

Three hundred fifty rural schools, located in four counties in Wisconsin, were included in this survey.

6. HOLY, THOMAS C. "School Building." *Survey of Education in West Virginia*. Vol. 3. Cavin, Lorimer V., director. Charleston, West Virginia: State Department of Education, 1929. 228 p.

A study of school buildings in West Virginia. Six hundred forty-five school buildings were scored, 83.6 percent of which were rural schools. Analysis was made by means of a score card.

7. *State Standards and Score Cards*.

These are a fruitful source of practical suggestions. See the footnote in the text on p. 288, where these score cards are discussed, for comparisons.

8. STRAYER, GEORGE D., AND ENGELHARDT, N. L. *Score Card for Village and Rural School Buildings of Four Teachers or Less*. Teachers College Bulletin No. 9, January, 1920. New York City: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1920.

Sample score cards, fixing standards for rural and village school buildings.

9. WORKS, GEORGE A., Director. *Texas Educational Survey Reports*. Vol. 1, "Organization and Administration." Chapters 18 to 21 inclusive. Austin, Texas: Educational Survey Commission, 1925.

Report of a school building survey which includes the rating of 78 one-room schools.

MOST STATES inspect mines and factories with authority to protect their citizens who work in them. It seems reasonable, therefore, to assume that states, as organized institutions of government to protect its citizens, will exert more authority in seeing that the school building, as a workshop for the children—citizens of the state—is *safe, . . . hygienically correct, . . . clean, . . . and efficient* so that the teacher and pupils may accomplish the maximum amount of results in the least time, with the least possible loss of energy and the keenest interest. The rural school child as a citizen of the United States is entitled to a workshop in a style of architecture that will furnish inspiration for work and develop a love for the beautiful.—Fletcher B. Dresslar and Haskell Pruett in *Rural School Houses, School Grounds, and Their Equipment*. U. S. Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930. No. 21. p. 24.

## 10. Rural Teachers and Helpful Supervision<sup>1</sup>

### The Status of Rural School Supervision

**Number of rural supervisors**—Supervisors are not provided for rural schools to the same extent as for city schools. There are approximately 558 urban pupils for each principal and supervisor as compared with 908 rural<sup>2</sup> pupils. There is one supervisor for every eleven urban teachers and one supervisor for every 33 rural teachers.<sup>3</sup> The number and type of rural school supervisors vary greatly from state to state.

The actual total number of rural school supervisors in service cannot be accurately determined. Table 14 gives a series of approximations based on a number of sources.

**Qualifications of rural supervisors**—A recent survey of the training of 1,487 county superintendents in 23 states showed that 112 hold master's degrees, 438 hold bachelor's degrees, and 937 or nearly two-thirds of the total number have had less academic preparation than indicated by the bachelor's degree.<sup>4</sup> The same investigation reports data on training of 570 rural supervisors and 1,893 supervisory officials in consolidated schools. Among the rural supervisors, 90 have master's degrees, 169 have bachelor's degrees, and 311 have no academic degree. Those without degrees constitute more than half of the total number. Among the superintendents and principals of consolidated schools, 182 had master's degrees, 1,530 had bachelor's degrees, and 181 or only 10 percent were without academic degrees.<sup>5</sup> These facts are presented graphically in Chart XI. To the extent that these figures are representative of the Nation as a whole, the group of rural school supervisors with the longest period of training appears to be the principals and superintendents of consolidated schools.

Among the individual states striking variations in the number and training of rural super-

visory officials appear. The following reports from recent state surveys illustrate the varying conditions in a few states.

**Indiana:** Sixty of the 92 county superintendents did not have degrees. They had an average of slightly over two years of college work. Seventy-nine had done no college work since being elected, and an average of fifteen years had elapsed since last training had been received.<sup>6</sup>

**Kansas:** Of sixty-nine county superintendents, 21 had received only high-school training or less. Less than one in three had received more than two years of college or normal school training.<sup>7</sup>

**Nebraska:** Only 33.8 percent of the county superintendents in Nebraska have college degrees as compared with 80.2 percent of the city superintendents.<sup>8</sup>

TABLE 14—ESTIMATED PERSONNEL AVAILABLE FOR RURAL SUPERVISION.<sup>1</sup>

| Types of Supervisor                                            | Number | Percent of Total |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|--------|------------------|
| 1                                                              | 2      | 3                |
| County and rural superintendents <sup>2</sup>                  | 3,427  | 17.52            |
| County rural supervisors.....                                  | 900    | 4.60             |
| Rural school principals <sup>3</sup> .....                     | 15,000 | 76.68            |
| State rural school officials.....                              | 104    | .53              |
| Regional supervisors employed by teacher-training institutions | 130    | .67              |
| Total of estimates.....                                        | 19,561 | 100.00           |

<sup>1</sup> Sources: "Salaries and Certain Provisions Relating to Rural School Superintendents 1930-31," *Journal of the National Education Association* 20: 186; May, 1931; Gaumnitz, W. H. *op. cit.* Cole, W. E. *The Development of Supervision of Instruction*. Unpublished master's thesis, Cornell University, 1928. Frost, Norman. "The Development of Rural School Supervision" and Pittman, M. S. "The Supervisory Personnel in Rural Schools." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1931. p. 179-84. National Education Association, Research Division. "Staffs and Salaries in State Departments of Education." *Studies in State Educational Administration*, Study No. 9. Washington, D. C.: the Association, March, 1931. 61 p.

<sup>2</sup> Includes also parish (Louisiana), town union (Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island), town supervising (Connecticut), district (New York, Vermont, and Utah), division (Virginia), and deputy state (Nevada) superintendents.

<sup>3</sup> Estimates based upon an advance report for 1930 from the U. S. Office of Education. A 56 percent report totaling 8,275 principals has been raised to represent 100 percent. Many of these principals are in reality only head teachers.

<sup>1</sup> See also the sections of this bulletin dealing with the unit of administration, the curriculum, and the preparation of teachers.

<sup>2</sup> "Rural" here means open country and centers of less than 2,500 population.

<sup>3</sup> Gaumnitz, W. H. *Some Comparative Statistics of Public Education in Urban and Rural Communities*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education. Rural School Circular No. 27, Washington, D. C.: 1928. p. 4.

<sup>4</sup> A more complete investigation of the status of the county superintendency by J. E. Butterworth is to be published soon by the United States Office of Education.

<sup>5</sup> Pittman, M. S. "The Supervisory Personnel in Rural Schools." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1931. p. 182-84.

<sup>6</sup> Devricks, Robert K. "The County Superintendent." *Indiana Teacher* 69: 20, 22; May, 1925. Indianapolis, Ind.: Indiana State Teachers Association.

<sup>7</sup> O'Brien, F. P. "The County Superintendent of Schools as Supervisor of Instruction." *Journal of Educational Research* 13: 345-54; May, 1926.

<sup>8</sup> Anderson, J. T. "The County Superintendent." *Journal of the National Education Association* 20: 9-10; January, 1931.

Utah: District superintendents<sup>1</sup> in Utah had, on the whole, a creditable amount of experience in school work. In general, they had come up to their positions through high-school principalships. Relatively few of the superintendents had experience as superintendents in other districts or cities before they accepted the positions held at the time of the survey.<sup>2</sup>

Virginia: Virginia rural<sup>3</sup> supervisors have had a median of 5.8 years of experience in grades one to

seven; 2.5 years in grades eight to eleven; and 1.8 years elsewhere, usually in normal school or college or as private tutors. All except one of the supervisors reporting have had considerable experience in elementary school. Seventeen of them had taught in both elementary and high-school grades. None have had less than three years of experience as a teacher while six have had fifteen years or more. In addition to their experience as teachers, they had

<sup>1</sup> The schools of each county district in Utah (outside of independent cities) are administered and supervised by a county-district superintendent who is selected by the county-district board of education.

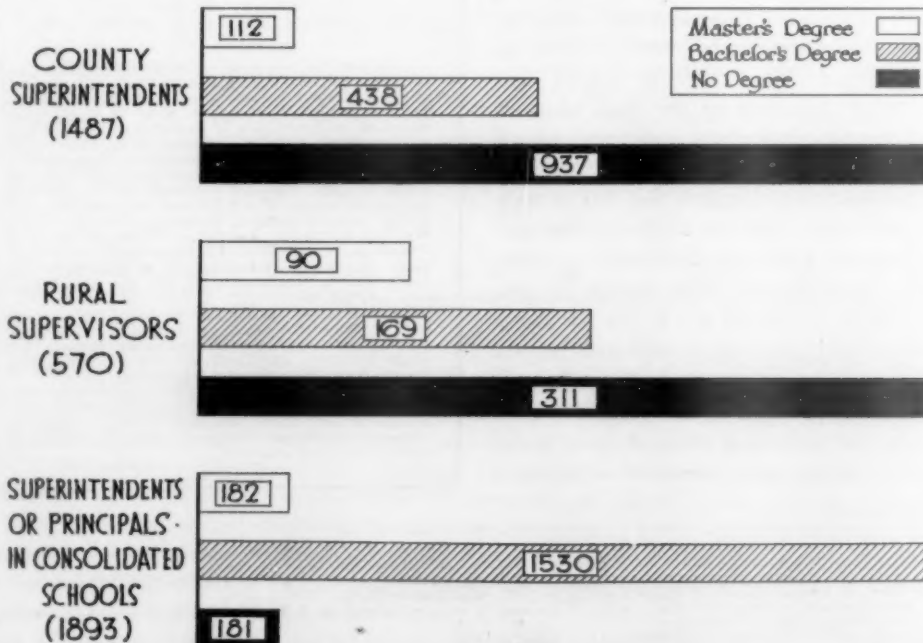
<sup>2</sup> U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. *Survey of Education in Utah*. Bulletin, 1926, No. 18. Washington, D. C. : Government Printing Office, 1926. p. 60-73.

<sup>3</sup> Of the 140 local school units in Virginia, 24 are city districts, 88 are rural districts, and 28 (known as "separate districts") may be called semi-rural. A separate district is a town of 500 to 5,000 population that has voted to become separate from the county school organization. It has its own board of trustees which exercises general control, including the determination of the school budget over and above the county levy; but the division superintendent of the county or group of counties in which the separate district is located is the superintendent.

CHART XI

## TRAINING OF RURAL SCHOOL OFFICIALS IN 23 STATES

(DIFFERENT SCALES)



Research Division, National Education Ass'n

a median experience as supervisors of 4.2 years. Twenty-four had experience in open-country schools; twenty-two in hamlet and village schools, and thirteen in city schools. Seven have had experience in all three types of schools.<sup>1</sup>

*Amount of supervision provided*—Since on the whole the rural school teacher faces a most difficult task with limited training and experience, one might expect that rural teachers would receive an abundance of supervisory help. With the exception of a few states and counties this is not true. The typical rural teacher does her work with only two or three brief visits each year from her supervisory official. In counties which provide one or more supervisors in addition to the county superintendent, more frequent visits are made.<sup>2</sup> The following reports from recent state surveys indicate the varying practice in a group of states.

**Indiana:** The average number of visits was two per teacher per year, with 80 minutes spent on each visit, a total of 160 minutes of supervision per teacher each year.<sup>3</sup>

**Kansas:** Three out of every five rural schools were visited only once during the year. One-fourth of these schools were visited twice and 11 percent were visited three times or more. The prevailing length of visit was about one hour.<sup>4</sup>

**Ohio:** The average interval between visits of county superintendents was 6 weeks; between visits of local superintendents, 2 weeks. The average length of county superintendents' visits was 47 minutes, of local superintendents', 26 minutes.<sup>5</sup>

**Virginia:** In the rural areas, 7 percent of the school rooms were not visited by the superintendent in 1926-27, while all rooms in the cities were visited. However, the city schools had a slightly larger percentage of rooms visited by the superintendent only once, the figures being 29 percent for the cities and 26.5 percent for the rural schools.<sup>6</sup>

**West Virginia:** Most county superintendents did not visit each teacher more than once a year. The one-teacher schools were most often neglected. The percent of county superintendents visiting these schools only once was 80; for two-teacher schools it was 64; for three-teacher schools it was 60; and for four- or more-teacher schools it was 59. District

superintendents visited each of their schools only two or three times a year. The percent visiting their one-teacher schools once a year was 25; for two-teacher schools it was 17; for three-teacher schools it was 11; and for four- or more-teacher schools it was 8. Of 1,326 teachers making direct answers to the question whether or not they had received help from any of their supervisors, only 2.4 percent said they received "considerable help;" 25.3 percent said "very little," and 72.3 percent stated that they received "no help."<sup>7</sup>

*Studies of the values of supervision*—A number of studies of the results of a program of supervision have been reported in recent years. On the whole these studies suggest that rural teachers experience a real need for supervisory assistance and that when such assistance is available the efficiency of the instruction is increased. The studies reported on this subject are of unequal merit and conclusiveness and no detailed evaluation of them is presented here.<sup>8</sup> Results from a few of these investigations are presented below.

**Michigan:** Thirty-five one-teacher schools and 8 rooms of two-teacher schools were included in an experiment conducted in two counties of Michigan. The schools chosen were carefully matched in such qualifications of teachers as age, training, experience, tenure, and salary, and in number of pupils enrolled. Pupils in grades 3 to 8 were tested as to native capacities and as to abilities in school subjects. In practically all respects in which both pupils and teachers in the counties were compared they were very similar; such differences as appeared were insignificant. Supervisors of instruction were provided in one county and not in the other.

A study of gains made by the pupils, expressed in percentages of the normal gain for a school year, found that the pupils in the supervised schools accomplished 171 percent of a normal year of school work; while the pupils in the unsupervised schools accomplished 97 percent of a typical year of school work.<sup>9</sup>

**West Virginia:** The benefits of supervision were not limited to superior achievement in school subjects but included also better organization, better attendance, and better classification of pupils.

<sup>1</sup> O'Shea, M. V., director. *Public Education in Virginia*. Report to the Educational Commission of Virginia of a Survey of the Public Education System of the State. Richmond, Va.: Davis Bottom, Superintendent of Public Printing, 1928. p. 87.

<sup>2</sup> Cole, William E. *The Status of Rural Supervisors of Instruction in the United States*. Ithaca, N. Y.: Department of Rural Education, New York State College of Agriculture, Cornell University, September, 1930. p. 35.

<sup>3</sup> Indiana Rural Education Survey Committee. *Report*. Indianapolis: State Superintendent of Schools, March, 1926. p. 51-6.

<sup>4</sup> O'Brien, F. P. "The County Superintendent of Schools as Supervisor of Instruction." *Journal of Educational Research* 13: 345-54; May, 1926.

<sup>5</sup> Hall, H. E. "A Study of School Supervision in the County Districts of Ohio." *Journal of Rural Education* 5: 231-6; January-February, 1926.

<sup>6</sup> O'Shea, M. V. *Op. cit.* p. 71.

<sup>7</sup> Cavins, Lorimer V., director. *Survey of Education in West Virginia*. Vol. 1. Charleston, West Virginia: State Board of Education, 1928. p. 180-2.

<sup>8</sup> See Heyl, Helen Hay. "An Evaluation of Rural School Supervision." *Thirtieth Yearbook*, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education, 1931. p. 184-91.

<sup>9</sup> Hoppes, W. C. *The Value of Supervision in Rural Schools of Oakland County*. Bulletin No. 7, 1926. Lansing: Michigan Education Association, 1926. 40 p.

|                                         | Supervised | Unsupervised |
|-----------------------------------------|------------|--------------|
| Average score on educational tests..... | 47.6       | 42.6         |
| Average attendance (percent) .....      | 85         | 74           |

In supervised districts more attention was given to promotion problems and pupils were farther advanced for their ages.<sup>1</sup>

**Indiana:** Two supervisors were employed for a period of two years for each of the two counties selected for demonstration work, while two other counties with similar conditions as to training of teachers, type and equipment of buildings, and other governing factors, including taxable wealth, were selected as control counties. School attainment of the two demonstration counties and of the control counties was approximately the same at the beginning of the experiment.

The combined results of tests in reading, language, spelling, and arithmetic showed that during the first year of the experiment the schools of the demonstration counties considered as a whole accomplished 14.3 percent more work than the schools of the control counties. During the second year this superiority was even more marked, the progress in the demonstration counties exceeding that made in the control counties by 25.7 percent. In other words, the pupils who had the advantages of supervision learned in the first year about a seventh more, and in the second year about a quarter more, than the pupils in the schools of the control counties which had no supervision.<sup>2</sup>

**South Dakota:** In this study, the experimental group consisted of pupils and teachers in fifteen schoolrooms, of which eleven were one-teacher schools and four were two-teacher schools. The control group consisted of pupils and teachers in twenty-five schoolrooms of which fifteen were one-teacher schools and ten were two-teacher schools.

Differences in amounts of improvements made by the two groups in the functions under investigation during the seven months of the experiment were credited to the effect of supervision. At the end of the experiment positive correlation was found between supervision and achievement of the pupils, amount of professional reading done by teachers, attendance, holding power of the schools, and social life of the community.<sup>3</sup>

**North Carolina:** A study of two groups of consolidated schools showed 126 percent greater progress in achievement for the supervised group over the unsupervised group.<sup>4</sup>

**Washington:** The rate of progress by which the supervised group exceeded the unsupervised group

was equal to 12 days in a school year of 172 days. The study involved results of tests in the tool subjects for 53 pairs of pupils in classes taught by supervised and unsupervised teachers.<sup>5</sup>

**Kansas, Johnson County:** A supervisory program centering on improving the methods of teaching spelling resulted in important gains. On other subjects, which were not emphasized by the supervisors, children in the supervised and unsupervised schools made almost identical progress.<sup>6</sup>

## How Can Rural Supervisory Service Be Improved?

The improvement of supervision, like so many other problems of rural education, hinges on securing a unit of administration free from political management and large enough to provide financially and otherwise for the employment of professional supervisors. The unit for administering rural education is discussed elsewhere in this bulletin and need not be further elaborated at this point. In the remaining part of this section certain steps for improving rural supervision are suggested. It is recognized that several of these advances must await state legislative changes. This bulletin does not make many specific recommendations concerning the everyday work of rural supervisors; rather it proposes certain conditions under which such improvement in work may be attained.

1. *Better paid and better qualified supervisors*—The status of the rural school supervisor has greatly improved in recent years. The typical rural supervisor (not including county superintendents) has been described as follows:

The representative general elementary supervisor in our rural systems is a mature woman, but she is approximately ten years younger than the typical city supervisor. Although her title varies, she has supervision of all the elementary grades throughout the county system. Under her supervision there are 88 teachers and 30 schools in which the principal teaches full time. Her services are not supplemented by those of any other supervisory official, and she receives an annual compensation of \$2,412. She has had four and a half years of col-

<sup>1</sup> Cavins, Lorimer V., director. *Survey of Education in West Virginia*. Vol. 2. Charleston, W. Va.: State Board of Education, 1928. p. 156-7.

<sup>2</sup> Indiana State Department of Public Instruction. *Value of Rural School Supervision*. Educational Bulletin, No. 84. Indianapolis: State Department of Public Instruction, 1926. p. 8.

<sup>3</sup> Pittman, Marvin Summers. *The Value of School Supervision*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, 1925. 140 p.

<sup>4</sup> Southall, Maycie. *A Study of the Value of Supervision in Consolidated Schools*. Raleigh, N. C.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1925. 31 p.

<sup>5</sup> Mianer, Frank. *A Study of the Comparative Achievements of Pupils in Supervised and Unsupervised Rural Schools*. Unpublished master's thesis. Pullman, Wash.: State College of Washington, 1927. Reviewed in Heyl, Helen Hay, *op. cit.*, p. 186-7.

<sup>6</sup> Morgan, David Ansel. *The Effects of Supervision in Certain Rural Schools of Johnson County, Kansas*. Unpublished master's thesis. Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago, 1926. Reviewed in Heyl, Helen Hay, *op. cit.*, p. 185-6.

lege training; is a graduate of high school, normal school, and a college of education, having received a bachelor's degree in 1925. When she began supervising, she had had eleven years of educational experience, seven years of which were as an elementary teacher. She has been a supervisor for the past five years. She has been in her present position for the past four years, and had been a principal or teacher in the system one and a half years before she began supervising.<sup>1</sup>

The standards suggested by the above quotation are not too high for every rural supervisor. At present, however, about half of the rural supervisors fall below this standard. The problem is primarily one of securing adequate financial support by convincing the public of the value of supervision. Low salaries go hand in hand with lack of professional training and experience.

2. *More supervisors needed*—The disproportionately heavy load of rural supervisors has already been mentioned. When 400 supervisors were asked to list difficulties encountered in their work, the heavy supervisory load was ranked first.<sup>2</sup> A definite statement as to the number of teachers which constitutes a reasonable supervisory load must consider such factors as the extent of territory covered, the types of schools to be supervised, the needs and problems of the teachers, and other factors. One writer states:

There is rather general agreement among county superintendents that the number of rural teachers which a supervisor can effectively supervise should be kept under 50. Many school officers believe the ideal supervisory load to be between 25 and 35.<sup>3</sup>

Standards such as these are far ahead of practice in most states.

3. *The rural school principalship should be magnified*—There are about 15,000 principals in rural schools of all types. Of this number approximately 4,000 are principals of elementary schools, about 8,000 are principals of combined elementary and secondary, and 3,000 are in charge of organized high schools.

What opportunities for supervision are available to this group? When Eklof asked rural high-school principals in California to

estimate the amount of time given to supervision, the reports ranged from 5 to 15 percent of the six-hour day.<sup>4</sup> Under ideal conditions these same principals suggested that 20 to 40 percent of the school day should be given to supervision.

Evidently, many boards of trustees in rural areas are expecting principals to give large portions of school time to teaching and clerical duties. Would it be possible to employ another full-time or part-time teacher to relieve the principals of their teaching duties? Could clerks be employed to relieve teachers and principals of routine tasks so that more time might be allotted to the distinctly professional demands?

4. *Discovering the supervisory needs of rural teachers*—In order to be of maximum service the supervisor needs to know the problems faced by the teachers. An outstanding study to discover the problems faced by rural teachers has recently been completed in Wisconsin. Rural teachers of the state were asked to cooperate by listing important problems which they encountered in their actual teaching activities. They were asked to do this during a period of three weeks early in the fall, three weeks near the middle of the year, and three weeks near the close of school in the spring. They were instructed to list the two or three problems each week which had caused them the most thought and upon which they would have liked to have secured supervisory assistance.

The study lists 19,740 different problems concerning which teachers felt the need of assistance and gives the frequency with which each problem was mentioned. Most of these problems were highly specific in nature. This study suggests one means for developing a program of supervision in accordance with the needs of the teachers.<sup>5</sup>

5. *Providing clerical help for supervisors*—The amount of time supervisors must spend in clerical duties lessens the amount of time they may spend in supervising. This may be illustra-

<sup>1</sup> National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. "The Typical Rural Supervisor." *Eighth Yearbook*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1930. p. 69.

<sup>2</sup> Cole, William E., *op. cit.*, p. 48.

<sup>3</sup> Reynolds, Annie. *Supervision and Rural School Improvement*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 31. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1930. p. 4-5.

<sup>4</sup> Eklof, Carl M. *The Rural High School Principal*. Unpublished master's thesis. Stanford University, June, 1930.

<sup>5</sup> Anderson, C. J., and Kibbe, Delia A. *Field Problems of Wisconsin Rural Teachers*. Madison, Wis.: State Department of Public Instruction, 1929. 74 p.

ted by a study of the situation in Kansas, where county superintendents spent 41.3 percent of their time in general office duties, and 26 percent in visiting rural schools. Those who had full-time assistants to handle the office details were able to give an average of 45 percent of their time to visiting their schools, while those having no office assistants spent only 20 percent in this activity.<sup>1</sup>

The need for office assistants is being recognized in some of the states. Forty-six percent of the county superintendents reporting for a study of Nebraska have office assistants.<sup>2</sup> Twenty-four superintendents in Utah reported clerical assistance. Nine of these had one full-time assistant each, while the remaining 15 had from 1 to 7½ hours of clerical help daily.<sup>3</sup> In 1930 every one of the 23 county school systems of Maryland employed a full-time school clerk, the total expenditures for this purpose being \$55,422.<sup>4</sup> A relatively small amount of money spent for clerical assistance may accomplish much by releasing the energies of the professional supervisor for more difficult and important work.

6. *Professional organizations, conferences, and group research*—How many of the various types of supervisors are active participants in organized professional groups? Of the 3,427 rural and county superintendents, only about 15 percent are members of the Department of Superintendence. Less than 400 members of the National Education Association's Department of Elementary School Principals live in communities of less than 2,500 in population. If all of these persons are in charge of elementary schools, then only about 10 percent of the potential rural school membership has been enlisted.

Although many rural workers have yet to be enlisted in national organizations for professional study, there has been much local and state progress. Morriss has described how rural principals and supervisors in Buncombe County, N. C., carried on a joint program of profes-

sional study.<sup>5</sup> In Maryland the state department arranges exchange visits between the supervisory officers of the various counties. Usually, these conferences consist of three parts: (1) a meeting to explain the program, (2) a day of visits to representative schools, and (3) a discussion of the schools observed. County superintendents in Maryland arrange conferences for rural and village principals.<sup>6</sup>

Regardless of the fact that the teaching and supervisory loads are often heavy, the progressive rural school executive can gain much by becoming a student of his problems. Committees can be formed for county surveys of social conditions, curriculums need to be revised, substitute teachers can be employed so as to permit teachers and principals to visit other schools, and effective conferences can be held on Saturdays. These and other direct or indirect technics (see Figures 4 and 5) are available to the alert supervisor who refuses to "mark time" while present handicaps await appropriate legislative action.

7. *Professional reading and study as a means of improving supervision*—The quality of rural supervision will continue to improve as the supervisor broadens his knowledge, skill, and interests. Renewed cultural and professional training, association with co-workers, the development of educational research projects, experimentation with new and promising teaching methods, and a program of professional reading are all helpful. This section concludes with an annotated list of books and bulletins on school supervision. No periodical references and no references prior to 1925 have been included. The books themselves should be consulted for helpful references on many specific supervisory problems.

## Selected References

1. ALMACK, JOHN C., and BURSCH, JAMES F. *The Administration of Consolidated and Village Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925 446 p.

Chapters 18-20 discuss the supervisory problems of the principal of consolidated

<sup>1</sup> O'Brien, F. P. "The County Superintendent of Schools as Supervisor of Instruction." *Journal of Educational Research* 13: 345-54; May, 1926.

<sup>2</sup> Anderson, J. T. "The County Superintendent." *Journal of the National Education Association* 20: 9-10; January, 1931.

<sup>3</sup> U. S. Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education. *Survey of Education in Utah*. Bulletin, 1926, No. 18. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1926. p. 60-73.

<sup>4</sup> Maryland State Board of Education. *Sixty-fourth Annual Report, 1930*. Baltimore: State Department of Education, 1930. p. 354.

<sup>5</sup> Morriss, Elizabeth, C. "A Joint Program of Supervisory Study among Principals and Supervisors." *Bulletin* 9: 78-93; January, 1930. Washington, D. C.: Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association.

<sup>6</sup> State Department of Education. "Developing Leadership in the Elementary School Principal." *Maryland School Bulletin* 10: 74-7; September, 1928.

schools, including such matters as planning supervision, and observing teachers.

2. ANDERSON, C. J., BARR, A. S., and BUSH, M. G. *Visiting the Teacher at Work*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1925. 382 p.

Useful suggestions on case studies of teachers, pre-teaching interviews, and follow-up conferences.

3. BARR, A. S., and BURTON, W. H. *The Supervision of Instruction*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1926. 626 p.

A review of typical activities in the improvement of teaching and learning.

4. BORAAS, JULIUS, and SELKE, GEORGE A. *Rural School Administration and Supervision*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1926. 260 p.

Describes the history, duties, and qualifications of the county superintendent of schools.

5. BURTON, W. H., and OTHERS. *The Supervision of Elementary Subjects*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1929. 710 p.

Chapters by L. J. Brueckner, F. G. Bonser, Laura Zirbes, and others. Summarizes research and supervisory practices in relation to the various school subjects.

6. BUTTERWORTH, JULIAN E. *Principles of Rural School Administration*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1926. 379 p.

The work of rural school supervision is described in Chapter 14. Discusses need for continuity of educational policies and methods for stimulating professional growth.

7. COLLINGS, ELLSWORTH. *School Supervision in Theory and Practice*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1927. 368 p.

A program of supervision based upon the theory of education which emphasizes "pupil growth through purposeful activity."

8. HUGHES, J. M., and MELBY, E. O. *Supervision of Instruction in High School*. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1930. 191 p.

Summarizes the supervisory practices of high-school principals.

9. KYTE, GEORGE C. *How to Supervise*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1930. 468 p.

Particularly helpful and practical in discussing such technics of supervision as teachers' meetings, class visits, demonstration teaching, and individual conferences.

10. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS. "The Principal and Supervision." *Bulletin (Tenth Yearbook)* April, 1931. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

A statement by principals in the field as to how they supervise their schools.

FIGURE 4.—DIRECT PROCEDURES IN SUPERVISION

| Procedure                        | Comments                                                                                                                                                                                                                        | References <sup>1</sup>                                                                    |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1. Class visits                  | Class visits are usually reported as the most frequently used device in direct supervision. Does a large number of visits indicate effective supervision? Should all visits be followed by conferences?                         | 2, p. 56-77; 3, p. 141-86; 7, p. 281-8; 10, p. 137-68; 11, p. 225-316; and 14, p. 309-19.  |
| 2. Demonstration lessons         | The fundamental steps for a demonstration are: (1) inform observers in advance of the purpose of the lesson, (2) provide observers with an outline, and (3) follow the lesson with a free discussion.                           | 1, p. 366-8; 3, p. 428-32; 10, p. 270-90; 14, p. 332-8; and 15, p. 121-3.                  |
| 3. Conferences                   | Studies show that informal conferences with teachers are much appreciated by teachers. Regular office hours for consultation often lead to many worthwhile conferences.                                                         | 1, p. 361; 2, p. 222-330; 3, p. 141-86; 10, p. 168-210; 12, p. 65-84; and 14, p. 320-5.    |
| 4. Teachers' meetings            | Teachers' meetings are effective insofar as they observe the principles of a good recitation. Fatigue and boredom develop in teachers' meetings from the same causes as in the classroom.                                       | 2, p. 37-55; 3, p. 410-28; 10, p. 211-42; 12, p. 65-84, 297-342; and 14, p. 326-31.        |
| 5. Directed observation          | Before a teacher visits another classroom, the supervisor should be sure (1) that the teacher to be observed has something to offer, and (2) that the observer will discuss the lesson with the demonstrator or the supervisor. | 1, p. 368-9; 3, p. 431-4; 8, p. 11-13; and 14, p. 332-8.                                   |
| 6. Bulletins                     | Effective bulletins are (1) neatly typed or printed, (2) carefully written, (3) short and to the point, (4) adaptable and vital to the teacher's problems, and (5) stimulating, not platitudinous.                              | 10, p. 243-70; 11, p. 225-316; 12, p. 65-84; and 13, p. 178-94.                            |
| 7. Professional study            | Through the professional library, extension courses, summer schools, professional magazines, and discussion groups, the alert teacher keeps abreast of progressive practices in education.                                      | 3, p. 434-8; 10, p. 384-458; and 12, p. 263-96.                                            |
| 8. Pupil adjustment              | Instruction is often improved for an individual pupil by placing him in contact with pupils and instructors who are more stimulating and congenial.                                                                             | 3, p. 318-23; 10, p. 332-80; 11, p. 319-72, 441-504; and 14, 339-48.                       |
| 9. Curriculum revision           | Supervisors have found that curriculum revision programs not only revitalize the subject-matter taught, but they often awaken the latent talents of classroom teachers.                                                         | 5, p. 1-701; 8, p. 50-228; 10, p. 307-31; 11, p. 375-9; 18, p. 135-560; and 19, p. 40-651. |
| 10. Research and experimentation | The final test of technics and materials of instruction takes place in the classroom. A teacher who can discover and solve her own problems has taken a long step toward improving instruction.                                 | 3, p. 294-402; 10, p. 441-504; and 13, p. 10-86, 178-94.                                   |

<sup>1</sup> References in this column refer to the publication on pages 71 to 74. For example: 2, p. 56-77 means Reference 2, *Visiting the Teacher at Work* by Anderson, Barr, and Bush, pages 56 to 77.

11. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE. "The Superintendent Surveys Supervision." *Eighth Yearbook*. Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1930. 471 p.

Presents the superintendent's viewpoint in a way which is both practical and inspiring to principals.

12. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS AND DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION. "Current Problems of Supervisors." *Third Yearbook*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1930. 252 p.

Teachers and supervisors contributed statements as to the common supervisory problems and how these difficulties could be met.

13. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. "The Principal as a Supervisor." *Research Bulletin* 7:279-348; November, 1929. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

A brief and simple statement of the principal's common supervisory problems.

14. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, RESEARCH DIVISION. "The Principal at Work on His Problems." *Research Bulletin* 9:93-159; March, 1931. Washington, D. C.: the Association.

Discusses primarily the work of the principal. The section on supervision deals with such topics as: class visits, conferences, testing, demonstration teaching, pupil adjustments, teachers' meetings, curriculum revision, and methods of improving supervision.

15. REYNOLDS, ANNIE. *Supervision and Rural School Improvement*. U. S. Department of the Interior, Office of Education, Bulletin, 1930, No. 31. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office. 41 p.

A bulletin designed to give information concerning rural school supervision—its values, methods and procedures—to parents and school officials.

16. STONE, CLARENCE R. *Supervision of the Elementary School*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1929. 573 p.

Suggests many practical devices in helping teachers to improve the instruction of reading, and the other common school subjects.

17. UHL, WILLIS L., AND OTHERS. *The Supervision of Secondary Subjects*. New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1929. 673 p.

A statement of the principles, practices, and measuring devices in the secondary school subjects. Chapters by various specialists include many references to research studies.

FIGURE 5.—SOME INDIRECT MEANS OF IMPROVING INSTRUCTION

| Procedure                                                            | Comments <sup>1</sup>                                                                                                                                                                   | References to other sections of this bulletin |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| 1. Larger school unit of administration.                             | A larger unit means greater financial resources, economy in overhead expenses, more attractive positions to well-trained teachers, and better grading of pupils.                        | Sections 1, 3, and 8.                         |
| 2. Better attendance of pupils.                                      | Longer school terms, transportation, school nurses, visiting teachers, and health instruction all tend to improve attendance. Better attendance means more educational opportunities.   | Section 3.                                    |
| 3. Improved school organization.                                     | Consolidated schools make it possible to adjust and grade pupils more satisfactorily.                                                                                                   | Sections 1, 3, and 8.                         |
| 4. Planned daily programs.                                           | In both one-room and consolidated schools the time schedule is a difficult problem. Surveys show a need for less drill on the tool subjects and more time given to the content studies. | Sections 4 and 5.                             |
| 5. Utilization of state courses of study, etc.                       | A number of the state departments of education provide courses of study, booklists, and other instructional materials which should be in use in every school district.                  | Sections 4 and 5.                             |
| 6. Employment of well-trained teachers.                              | The crux of education is the classroom teacher. With the present sources and supply of teachers, school authorities should demand persons of first-class preparation and ability.       | Sections 4, 5, and 7.                         |
| 7. Placing teachers according to training, interests, and abilities. | Surveys show a widespread practice of placing teachers to teach subjects or grades for which they have not been trained. Often both the teacher and the pupils are discouraged.         | Sections 1 and 7.                             |
| 8. Increasing the tenure and community contacts of teachers.         | Teachers often leave rural areas because they are excluded from the community's social life. A happy teacher is usually an effective classroom instructor.                              | Sections 5, 6, and 7.                         |
| 9. Developing the community's interest in the school.                | Communities where the patrons are intelligently interested in the school reap dividends from a loyal school faculty.                                                                    | Section 6.                                    |
| 10. Proper selection of textbooks and instructional materials.       | Often the costlier books or supplies are the cheapest in terms of the progress of children. The judgment of teachers should be called for by school boards.                             | Sections 4 and 9.                             |

<sup>1</sup> Many of the points in this column are developed more fully in the text of this bulletin.

## Publications of the National Education Association of Special Interest to Rural School Teachers and Officials

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### RESEARCH BULLETINS

- Vol. VI, No. 1, January, 1928, *Creating a Curriculum for Adolescent Youth*. 80 p. 25 cents.  
Vol. VII, No. 4, September, 1929, *Vitalizing the High-School Curriculum*. 104 p. 25 cents.  
Vol. VIII, No. 4, September, 1930, *Investing in Public Education*. 56 p. 25 cents.  
Vol. IX, No. 2, March, 1931, *The Principal at Work on His Problems*. 64 p. 25 cents.

### DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

- Fifth Yearbook, 1927, *The Junior High School Curriculum*. 562 p. \$2.00.  
Sixth Yearbook, 1928, *The Development of the High School Curriculum*. 584 p. \$2.00.  
Eighth Yearbook, 1930, *The Superintendent Surveys Supervision*. 472 p. \$2.00.

### DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

- Seventh Yearbook, 1928, *The Elementary School Principalship*. 512 p. \$2.00.  
Eighth Yearbook, 1929, *Activities of the Principal*. 400 p. \$2.00.  
Ninth Yearbook, 1930, *The Principal and Administration*. 603 p. \$2.00.  
Tenth Yearbook, 1931, *The Principal and Supervision*. 527 p. \$2.00.

### DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

- Third Yearbook, 1928, *Problems and Opportunities in Teaching*. 112 p. 50 cents.  
Fifth Yearbook, 1930, *Teaching as a Creative Art*. 307 p. \$1.50.  
Sixth Yearbook, 1931, *The Economic Welfare of Teachers*. 244 p. \$1.50.

### DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION

- Bulletin of the Department of Rural Education, February, 1930, *Rural Education in the South*. 31 p. 25 cents.  
Bulletin of the Department of Rural Education, February, 1931, *Special Problems in the Education of Rural Children*. 64 p. 25 cents.

### DIVISION OF PUBLICATIONS

- National Education Association, *Annual Volume of Addresses and Proceedings*. Approximately 1200 p. \$3.00. Included in Life and \$5 memberships.  
National Education Association, *Journal*. 64 p. 25 cents. Included in Life, \$2, and \$5 memberships. (Published monthly, except July, August and September.)

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This conference recommends that there be held in the nation's capital, a national conference on rural education and culture, following the general plan of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection; that this national conference be followed by similar state conferences to be arranged by the governors in cooperation with the educational agencies and organizations of the various states.—*Recommendation of the First National Conference on Rural Education, Called Jointly by the National Education Association, the United States Office of Education, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Meeting in Los Angeles, Calif., July 2, 1931.*

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