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This study of Nebraska's existing school structure (i.e., costs, curriculum offerings, and organization) is part of an interstate project on school district reorganization. Historical development of education in Nebraska and national trends in school district reorganization are discussed. Seven guidelines for planning and implementing a statewide program of school district reorganization are presented. Suggestions are made for legislation and for further study in areas of organization for technical training, organizational structure for 13th and 14th years of education, coordination of higher education, and organization of metropolitan, urban, and suburban areas. A bibliography and list of project position papers are appended. (JH)

and Plans

**DISTRICT
ORGANIZATION PROJECT**



GREAT PLAINS SCHOOL DISTRICT
ORGANIZATION PROJECT

Project Report For Nebraska

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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by

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with the cooperation and assistance of
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June, 1968
The Great Plains School District Organization Project
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FOREWORD

The staff of the Great Plains School District Organization Project, in its effort to bring together data to support the need for and to define an adequate educational structure for the provision of comprehensive educational opportunities for all children and youth, presents this report to the people of the State of Nebraska.

School district reorganization is certainly one of the most exciting current developments in American education. The purpose of reorganization is to improve learning opportunities for children through a more equitable and economical distribution of our financial, physical, and human resources. Unless this purpose remains sharply in focus, the quality of education in reorganized school districts may be no better than in the existing organization. We may merely be putting "old wine in new bottles." Logically, the success of the school is measured by the extent to which it enables each child to realize his greatest potential, not only for his own satisfaction and happiness but also for the betterment of his society. The rough outlines of a learning environment which can support this objective are becoming increasingly clear. A child must feel that he is understood as a person and that he is wanted. He must be provided with numerous opportunities in which he can experience success in the school environment. He must be an active rather than a passive participant in his own education, for only then can he learn to recognize his own capacities and limitations.

Presented in the final chapter of this report are guidelines, recommendations, and suggestions concerning school district organization which are based upon an analysis of the data given in this document and in other Great Plains publications. It is the belief of the Great Plains School District Organization staff that this report can provide the basis for an adequate educational structure for Nebraska.

The value of this report, therefore, rests in the study and consideration given it by the citizenry, by those in advisory capacities, and by those in decision-making positions relative to the formation of an adequate and appropriate educational structure for Nebraska.

**William R. Schroeder
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The members of the Steering Committee, Dr. Floyd Miller of Nebraska, Mr. David Gilliland of Iowa, Mr. Kenneth Kirchner of Missouri, and Mr. James Schooler of South Dakota, merit special thanks for their interest in and support of the project.

Appreciation is extended to Mr. Earl Boxa, Dr. Ellis Hanson, and Mr. Arthur Summers, the State Directors from South Dakota, Iowa, and Missouri, without whose cooperation this study could not have been completed.

The cooperation of those educational leaders who assisted the project by writing position papers, relative to educational programs and services and the help of those educators from all parts of the state who sat on committees to review the position papers is respectfully acknowledged.

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Mr. George Rotter of the Nebraska State Department of Education, who worked closely with the writer in editing this report, merits special recognition.

For her painstaking effort in composing the copy of this report and achieving a most attractive format throughout, Ginger Jensen is to be highly commended.

The encouragement and support provided by Dr. Floyd Miller, the Commissioner of Education, and his entire staff merit special appreciation.

INTRODUCTION

The State Departments of Education of Iowa, Missouri, Nebraska, and South Dakota have cooperatively undertaken an interstate project on school district organization. The overall purpose of the project is to strengthen state leadership for school district organization.

Titled the Great Plains School District Organization Project, the project was funded by the U. S. Office of Education as a special project grant under Title V, Section 505, Public Law 89-101 (Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965).

Efforts of the project are directed toward providing opportunities for the states to take a long hard look at a problem which has plagued the region for many years.

It is the purpose of the research, discussion, and planning activities of the project to: (1) help participating states see the problems more clearly, and (2) provide a basis for developing acceptable and reasonable units for the administration of education.

Each participating state has unique school organization problems, but all four have many more common than unique problems. The following common problems were identified by the four states and listed in the project application:

1. To improve the State Departments of Education.
2. To assist in resolving some of the major problems of State Departments of Education, including, but not limited to the following:
 - a. Bringing about an increased awareness on the part of professional and lay groups of the need for adequate school district organization.
 - b. Analyzing and clarifying the role of professional and lay organizations in school district organization.
 - c. Developing guidelines to be used to implement programs.
 - (1) for school district organization
 - (2) as a part of developed state plans
 - d. Providing comprehensive programs of quality education to meet the needs of all youth in all parts of the state.
 - e. Clarifying the role, function and need for intermediate districts.
 - f. Planning for adequate and appropriate follow-up services to those districts which have been reorganized.
 - g. Developing an awareness within each state of the relationships between tax structure, and rates and school district organization.

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- h. Providing data, information, understandings and insights essential for the introduction and passage of adequate legislation for school district organization.
- i. Pooling the resources of the several states in making a joint attack on a common problem.

The Purpose of This Report

It shall be the purpose of this report to (1) present supporting data for the need for changes in school district organization in Nebraska, (2) recommend guidelines for school district organization in Nebraska, (3) make recommendations for adequate legislation to accomplish the task, (4) make recommendations for the implementation of the legislation, and (5) to make recommendations for adequate follow-up services to newly organized districts.

The problem involves:

1. The identification of the educational needs of Nebraska's children and youth.
2. The determination of the type of school organization which can adequately meet these needs.
3. The determination of the type of legislation which can best accomplish the task.
4. The determination of a procedure for the implementation of the legislation.

The Procedure

To secure the information needed for the study, the following steps were taken:

1. A review of the professional literature in the area of school district reorganization was made.
2. A status study of Nebraska's existing school structure was made with regard to (a) costs, (b) curriculum offerings, and (c) structure.
3. An examination was conducted of the demographic factors in Nebraska which appear to have an influence on educational planning.
4. The involvement of professional persons and organizations representing a cross section of the subject matter and service areas resulting in the development of position papers in more than fifty areas to identify optimum educational needs in each of these areas.
5. The further involvement of lay and professional persons and organizations to review the position papers.
6. A jury of nationally recognized educational leaders was selected to assist the staff with the analysis of the data collected.
7. Guidelines and recommendations were formulated.

Delimitations

It was essential to place limitations on the extent and scope of the study and on this report. First, the project was not directed at 13th and 14th year education and higher education. Reference will, of necessity, be made to these two levels of education, particularly 13th and 14th year; but these are areas that will be suggestive for further study. This report will recognize the problems of urban and suburban education. However, the data collected for the study will not provide organizational solutions for the problems; rather it will point to an urgency for further study and consideration. Finally, this report will suggest an urgent need for vocational-technical job skill training opportunities, but the data collected does not provide a satisfactory organization for the provision of these programs in Nebraska.

Definition of Terms

Administrative School District or Unit – The area that is under the supervision of a given school board.¹

Unified School District – A school district providing a public school program from kindergarten or grade 1 to grade 12.²

Attendance Center, Attendance District, or Attendance Unit – A school attendance center is a subdivision of a school district. It comprises the geographical area and the population served by a school building.

In a district in which there are too many pupils for one building, or in which the pupils live too far away to be transported to a central school, several school buildings may be used, each being an attendance center within the district.

The area from which pupils attend a single elementary school is known as an elementary attendance center.³

The area from which pupils attend a single high school is known as a high school attendance center.

Intermediate Unit or District or Area Educational District – A unit of school administration or service that has been organized to provide services for both.⁴

Educational Service Unit – An intermediate unit in the educational administrative structure which provides supplementary services.⁵

Time/Distance – A term used to represent a measure of distance in time rather than in miles.

Class I School District – It shall include any school district that maintains only elementary grades under the direction of a single school board.⁶

Class II School District – It shall include any school district embracing territory having a population of one thousand inhabitants or less that maintains both elementary and high school grades under the direction of a single school board.⁷

Class III School District – It shall include any school district embracing territory having a population of more than one thousand and less than fifty thousand

inhabitants that maintains both elementary and high school grades under the direction of a single board of education.⁸

Class IV School District – It shall include any school district embracing territory having a population of more than fifty thousand and less than two hundred thousand inhabitants that maintains both elementary and high school grades under the direction of a single board of education.⁹

Class V School District – It shall include any school district embracing territory having a population of two hundred thousand or more that maintains both elementary grades and high school grades under the direction of a single board of education.¹⁰

Class VI School District – It shall include any school district that maintains only a high school.¹¹

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CHAPTER I

NEBRASKA'S EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION - *Its Historical Establishment*

America has no national system of education. Instead, there are fifty state school systems operating through a network of local school districts, intermediate units, and state departments of education. Legally, in Nebraska, the final control of education rests in the state constitution and the state legislature. Section 6, Article 7 of the Nebraska Constitution states, "*The Legislature shall provide for the free instruction in the common schools of this state of all persons between the ages of five and twenty-one years.*" Every state, with the exception of Hawaii, has adopted the policy of creating local school districts throughout the state and delegating the responsibilities to local boards of education.¹

The first school law in Nebraska was "*an act to establish the common school system,*" enacted in March, 1855, by the territorial government. From that time to the present the state has made legal provisions for public education. The original state constitution of 1866 recognized the public schools and accepted the obligation of providing financial support for them. The state has never ceased to recognize the necessity of public schools, but the constitutional convention of 1875 did do away with the state taxation clause for the support of public education. However, some items continued to be designated for support of the schools - items such as fines, licenses, and income from the school lands. Until the passage of LB 448 in 1967, all taxation for school purposes was levied at the local district level.²

The constitutional provision for education, as well as the earlier territorial provisions, indicate that Nebraska has always accepted the theory that education is a function of the state.³

The late Dr. Merle A. Stoneman wrote the following with regard to the historical establishment of Nebraska's educational structure:

The development of local school districts in Nebraska followed much the same pattern as that which developed in all of our nearby states, especially Kansas, Missouri, Iowa, South Dakota, North Dakota, and Minnesota. In each of these states, the tradition of school district organization which was followed came originally from New England and the middle Atlantic states where, long before statehood, local responsibility for schools was assumed by small population centers and the rural areas surrounding them. Reliance on the state or county governmental levels for the provision of education at the elementary and secondary levels was not a part of this tradition.

In contrast to this tradition, states south of the Mason-Dixon Line, developed reliance for education upon state and especially county governmental authorities to the point that it, too, became traditional. The small local district that eventually developed in the midwest was different from both of the previous traditions. Much of the early school legislation in Nebraska was based either directly on that previously accomplished in Ohio or brought to Nebraska through Iowa and adapted to a considerable degree to the changed conditions in emerging agricultural states. It is true that changes took place in New England and other eastern states which eliminated the original very small districts and that towns and townships became the most usual units for the support of local educational programs. That this developing trend did not follow the original trend to the west is probably the result of the growing density of population in the east and the relative continued sparseness of population in the states of the midwest. This situation was aggravated, at least in Nebraska, by factors which did not have any direct or intended contact with education as such at all. They were, in a sense, historical accidents in which education happened to find itself at a disadvantage. One of these was the development of the homestead type of farm throughout most of the midwest area, especially in Nebraska which was more typically a homestead area than anyplace else in the Union. The result of the enactment of the Homestead Act was that for much of the area for a long time, farm homes were located almost uniformly throughout all rural areas. There would be enough children to justify one-room schools and only in a few cases would the sparsity of population be so great that the area involved would be a major portion of a county. Areas such as Wyoming, Nevada, and Idaho, where the Homestead Act was not capable of bringing in, because of the shortage of desirable agricultural land, a population which could be spread relatively evenly over large areas of the state, did not experience the development of a large number of school districts, small in both area and population, such as occurred in Nebraska, and to a lesser extent, in the other states listed previously from the midwest area.

A second factor which might be called a geographical accident was the overwhelming significance of the development of railroads in the economy of the state. As was the case with the development of homesteads, so was the case with the development of railroads. Nebraska was virtually the center of the largest amount of activity in this direction. The original transcontinental Union Pacific line ran through the middle of Nebraska and a greater network of main and branch lines in proportion to population grew up earlier in Nebraska than has been the case in any other state, including Kansas and Iowa.

The homestead type of agriculture depended for its very life upon transportation to the outside and also the transportation system became the greatest source of taxable wealth within the state, especially since homesteading was exceedingly difficult in the years when drouth, grasshoppers and recurring periods of low prices plagued the pioneer farmers of Nebraska. It was in a very real sense, a natural outcome for the transportation and the agricultural interests for a long period of time to be very much at odds insofar as development of legislation and the operation of the state government was concerned.

Nebraska history seems to indicate that the sheer numbers of the relatively unorganized agricultural interests waged a continuing battle with the well organized and well financed transportation interests from the original achievement of statehood almost to the period of World War I. Only at this later date did the growth of cities and the development of other types of properties along with the declining fortunes of the railroads tend to clarify the pattern which was to make Nebraska not so much a long stretch in the cross-country transportation system with essentially large numbers of subsistence farmers throughout the area but a consistently developing agricultural economy, along with commercial and industrial interests which brought a large number of sizable population centers into the picture and increased taxable properties which in effect replaced the dependence upon

railroads and their associated properties of the first sixty years of statehood.

These sixty years, however, had very well established the tradition of reliance upon a property tax for the operation of state and local governmental activities, among which education was included. Historical records seem to bear out the belief that most of the early settlers of Nebraska, especially those who came by way of Iowa and other states to the east rather than being direct immigrants from Europe, had an interest in and concern for education equal to that of the earlier settled states to the east such as Iowa, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio. There are many records of the early establishment of schools in recently settled areas and of the major contribution of new population in terms of supporting both public and private educational facilities in the state. Not only public elementary schools and a little later, public high schools, but academies, boarding schools and colleges were founded in considerable number and were operated in some cases over considerable periods of time. In some cases schools originally started in this fashion have persisted to the present day. There was no apparent lag of interest in education in the early days of statehood.

The sixty or so years during which Nebraska functioned very largely on a basically agricultural economy provided time for the tradition of a small local district supported largely or even entirely by local property taxes to develop in full force and it also permitted those who were taking advantage of the changing agricultural situation in the state to adapt these two elements of tradition to their advantage. The total number of school districts in the state increased almost without exception every year from 1867, the beginning of statehood, into the early 1930's. This was true despite a flurry of reorganization plans, some of which were carried through to completion, in the early 1920's. These agricultural trends, not peculiar to Nebraska but somewhat more intense in their effect on education than in other surrounding states, included the increasing size of farms through which the original pattern of homestead size was gradually broken up, the mechanization of farms which tended to increase the taxable property of farm lands and at the same time reduce the resident population and therefore the number of school children in rural areas, the shift from the original near subsistence type of farming of the homestead to specialization in various parts of the state, especially in terms of cash grain crops and the raising and feeding of livestock, and the growth of large scale agricultural operations in areas eventually discovered not to be suitable for small scale farming, particularly in the sandhill and wheat growing sections of the state. In these latter sections it is especially to be noted that there were relatively few pupils scattered at wide intervals throughout the entire area and that the per pupil valuation in these areas was relatively high, making it possible to operate local schools with low mill levies compared to those of more thickly populated areas and less valuation back of each individual pupil. In an economy which originally brought very little cash into a subsistence farming operation it was easy to develop a dependence upon, as far as was feasible, the taxing of properties which were considered to have sources of income beyond those of local farms. Railroads in particular fell into this category. There are good reasons to believe that the economic factors mentioned above have been more significant over the years in developing the type of district organization and method of support of public education characteristic of Nebraska than any of the more sentimental and emotion-laden slogans used to combat reorganization.⁴

Along with the developments of the local school district in Nebraska came the creation of the second echelon of the state's educational organization, the county superintendent's office or the first intermediate unit. The office was established by the territorial government and then officially adopted by the state legislature in 1881. The 1881 Act creating county intermediate units provided for an elected superintendent as the chief

school officer in each of the counties. The duties performed by the county superintendent have been primarily functions which made the county office an arm of the State Department of Education. The statutes which created the county intermediate units, assigned to the county superintendent some specific duties; namely: (1) to examine all persons offering themselves as teachers for the public schools; (2) to endorse teaching certificates in force in any other county in Nebraska or in any other state without examination; (3) to visit each school within the county at least once a year; (4) to receive all blanks and forms from the state superintendent and to dispose of the same in the same manner prescribed by the state superintendent; (5) to collect and examine the reports of the local school districts and to transmit them to the state superintendent; and (6) to report the blind and deaf and dumb students within the county to the respective asylums.⁵

The county intermediate unit has remained as a part of the state's total school organization since its inception, and its original duties have remained about the same. The current statutes concerning the functions of the county superintendent show that with the exception of the duties of examining and certifying teachers, the responsibilities assigned by the original statutes are still in force. However, many duties have been added over the past 80 years. They include: (1) counseling with teachers and district boards concerning the course of study, methods to improve the course of study, methods to improve instruction, and discipline; (2) counseling with district boards and making recommendations concerning the maintenance of school houses; (3) promoting, through lectures and institutes, the improvement of schools and instruction; (4) enforcing the compulsory attendance laws; (5) furnishing copies of the course of study to each school as provided by the State Department of Education; (6) furnishing the necessary forms to schools for reports; and (7) performing specific duties in connection with the reorganization of school districts.⁶

In 1965 the legislature added a second intermediate unit structure to the total educational organizational pattern of the state. This occurred with the passage of LB 301 which created 19 multi-county educational service units.⁷ This legislative act followed a national trend of extending the intermediate unit to a multi-county or a regional base, with the designated function providing supplementary educational programs and services to local school districts.

The passage of LB 301, creating the educational service units, did, however, place Nebraska in a rather unique situation; now it had a dual system of intermediate units.

Like most midwestern states, Nebraska adopted a three echelon system of educational organization: the state office, the county intermediate unit, and the local district. The evolution of the local and the intermediate units actually began under the territorial government, as did the state office. The territorial government provided for a chief territorial school office first under the title of a territorial librarian and later as a territorial commissioner of common schools.⁸

The first state constitution, even though it did recognize education, did not provide for

a chief state school officer; but the legislature in 1869 created the office of state superintendent of public instruction as an elective position. This arrangement continued until 1955 when the state echelon of education was changed by a constitutional amendment which provided for an elected state board of education. This board was made responsible for the appointment of a commissioner of education as the chief state school officer.⁹

SCHOOL DISTRICT CONSOLIDATION AND REORGANIZATION IN NEBRASKA -- *Historical Development*

Traditionally, the structure for providing education in Nebraska has been adapted to those needs considered to be important to the people of the state. Because Nebraska has been and still remains economically a rural state, and because it has had until recent years a predominantly rural population, the educational structure has been one adapted to needs as they were defined by a rural people. Because of this rural orientation, a great number of rural Class I districts were organized.

It has been pointed out with such frequency that it has become a commonplace item of knowledge that Nebraska currently contains more school districts than any other state in the Union. This is, in truth, the situation and it is not one that can be rationalized away so that Nebraska education appears to advantage in this respect. It can be maintained that there have been some unusual and complicated factors involved in bringing about effective reorganization in Nebraska and that a great deal of progress has been made and is continuing despite the handicaps with which those who have been and are encouraging reorganization have found it necessary to contend.¹⁰

The organizational change that has taken place by consolidation and reorganization can be attributed at least in part to: (1) a depleting rural population as the result of the rural to urban movement; (2) the advances in communication and transportation; (3) the increased demands to be met by public education resulting from the forces of change; and (4) the rising costs of providing education.

As has been previously stated, the state policy for the organization of local school districts was to organize a district as soon as there was a sufficient number of people residing in a given area to justify a school. Under this policy the number of school districts grew as the settlement of the state continued. In the school year 1869-1870, Nebraska had a total of 797 school districts, of which only 20 were organized to provide education through the 12th grade. The number continues to grow until the school year 1919-1920 at which time there were 7,264 school districts, 749 of which were organized to provide education through the 12th grade. (See Table I.) The 7,264 school districts in the year 1919-1920 was the greatest number of districts ever organized in the state.¹¹ The number of districts, however, organized to provide high school education continued to grow until 1929-1930, when the peak number of 940 was reached.

William K. Fowler, who was elected state superintendent in 1900, spent considerable time in reviewing the accomplishments of the 19th century and attempted to predict

TABLE I

PUBLIC SCHOOL STATISTICS, 1869-1870 to 1948-1949 *

<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of Counties</i>	<i>No. of Districts</i>	<i>No. of Districts Kindergarten to Twelfth Grade</i>
1869-1870	32	797	20
1879-1880	64	3,132	70
1889-1890	89	6,243	250
1899-1900	90	6,708	448
1909-1910	92	7,071	534
1919-1920	93	7,264	749
1929-1930	93	7,244	940
1934-1935	93	7,216	861
1939-1940	93	7,192	836
1940-1941	93	7,186	808
1941-1942	93	7,009	720
1942-1943	93	6,998	729
1943-1944	93	6,986	736
1944-1945	93	6,975	665
1945-1946	93	6,956	651
1946-1947	93	6,923	661
1947-1948	93	6,864	654
1948-1949	93	6,807	642

*1966 Nebraska Blue Book, "Public School Statistics," pp. 552-553.

what might reasonably be expected during the 20th century. His predictions indicated the need that would mount for reorganization of Nebraska's growing number of small districts. With respect to this situation, Fowler summed up his recommendations for the 20th century in three phrases: (1) consolidation of school districts; (2) centralization of schools; and (3) public transportation of pupils.¹² To implement these proposals and others, he listed 32 recommendations for urgently needed amendments to the school laws. The legislature following enacted considerable legislation pertaining to education, but they were not successful in enacting any important legislation pertaining to the consolidation of school districts.¹³

The leadership for the enactment of legislation for consolidation of local districts continued under State Superintendent McBryan, who made a strong appeal. McBryan cited 29 advantages for consolidation, but in spite of his labors, no consolidation legislation was adopted.¹⁴

The need for school district consolidation continued to be pointed out by succeeding state superintendents, but it was not until 1919 that an act related to consolidating was approved by the legislature. The act assigned to the state superintendent the duty to referee any disputes arising from the operation of the act. The act further provided for elections before new boundary changes could be effected. The statute was later declared defective by the court, after more than 40 cases under it were appealed to the Nebraska Supreme Court. However, the legislature in 1921 amended the 1919 consolidation act to correct these deficiencies. Though far from adequate, this legislation sought to remedy a defect in the educational system that had existed from earliest times. The actual accomplishments of the law were not very significant, except for a few consolidations in the western part of the state. Nebraska did, however, reduce the number of school districts from its high of 7,264 in 1919-1920 to 6,807 in 1948-1949 when the next school district reorganization act was passed.¹⁵

The 1949 session of the Nebraska legislature passed the first significant reorganization act in the history of the state. The proponents of reorganization pointed out to the people of Nebraska and to the legislators in 1949 that the 1919 consolidation act had not been adequate in terms of encouraging reorganization and that: (1) Nebraska had far more school districts than were needed; (2) the excessive number and the smallness of the districts made for unequal educational opportunities; and (3) had an inequitable distribution of taxes for school support because of the school district structure.¹⁶

The reorganization of school districts act (Legislative Bill 27) became law on August 27, 1949. It provided for a semi-permissive method of school district reorganization. In compliance with the act, a six-member state committee for the reorganization of school districts was established, with the state superintendent as a non-voting member. The other five members were appointed by the governor. The act required that two of the state committee members be from the teaching profession and that three be laymen. The committee, by law, functioned in an advisory capacity.

The new statute required that county committees for reorganization of school districts be elected in each of the counties. These committees were charged with the responsibility of making careful studies of the school district organization needs in their respective counties. They were, furthermore, to prepare comprehensive reorganization plans and submit them for examination to the state committee for the reorganization of school districts. If approved by the state committee, the comprehensive plan was to be submitted by the county committee to a vote of the people.¹⁷ The statute, however, imposed no penalty for noncompliance.

In 1953, the legislature passed a supplemental reorganization act which provided for the legal voters of a school district to petition for a change of boundary of a school district or to create a new district with other districts.¹⁸

In 1965, the legislature passed LB 892 which provided for an additional method of reorganization. LB 892 made it possible for 25% of the residents of a Class I or Class II district to petition for a reorganization election within their district to merge with

another Class II, III, IV, or V districts.¹⁹

Even though amendments have been made to each of the reorganization acts since their original passage, they remain basically the same and all are permissive in nature.

Nebraska has been able to reduce the number of districts from 6,734 in 1949 to 2,172 in 1968 under the existing statutes. (See Table II.) However, the significance of this reduction in numbers has been questioned by many with regard to: (1) its improvement of education; (2) the slowness with which the reduction has taken place; and (3) the adequacy of the reorganized districts which have been formed.

TABLE II

PUBLIC SCHOOL STATISTICS, 1949-1950 to 1967-1968

<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of Counties</i>	<i>No. of Districts</i>	<i>No. of Districts Kindergarten to Twelfth Grade</i>
1949-1950	93	6,734	647
1950-1951	93	6,688	648
1951-1952	93	6,552	640
1952-1953	93	6,363	654
1953-1954	93	6,050	660
1954-1955	93	5,924	693
1955-1956	93	5,686	462
1956-1957	93	4,958	453
1957-1958	93	4,694	439
1958-1959	93	4,442	431
1959-1960	93	3,933	394
1960-1961	93	3,537	393
1961-1962	93	3,272	386
1962-1963	93	3,077	380
1963-1964	93	2,927	396
1964-1965	93	2,701	389
1965-1966	93	2,547	384
1966-1967	93	2,355	358
1967-1968	93	2,172	345

Dr. Stoneman in the article that has been previously quoted from had the following to say concerning the history of reorganization in Nebraska:

Any understanding of the difficulties which have been experienced in bringing about effective reorganization in Nebraska can come about only as the origin and depth of tradition, the deep economic ties, and the long exercise of a larger amount of local control than has been the case with any other comparable state. Those who have worked with the problem of the need for more efficient and economical school districts have consistently had to work with only one major argument, that reorganization would result in better education for children. It is apparent upon examination that economy of operation makes no appeal to people who reside in school districts where because of high valuations per pupil even excessive cost per pupil still results in low mill levies. The argument that reorganization could form the basis for a more efficient educational program often falls on deaf ears. The extent to which this deafness is due to the money factor can never be clear. It is probably true that people who have gone through the type of locally controlled education common in the one-room schools of rural Nebraska and who have been in their own minds reasonably well educated and successful, are stating their true beliefs when they believe this system to be the equal or superior of more centralized schools with broader curriculums.

This situation has been aggravated, to some extent at least, by a trend in which many educators have participated to play up the advantages of rural communities, small population centers, and educational units in which there is a close contact between instructors and pupils. That most of these arguments have been emotional rather than scientific has been apparent to anyone who examines the situation but it is still not a factor that is easily or readily dealt with. Educators in Nebraska have long since learned that to make a suggestion whereby education in a one-room school can be improved is to provide, in effect, justification for the continuation of that school indefinitely into the future.

The above analysis is not exactly scientific nor is it complete but it does provide a reasonably accurate picture of the setting within which the original organization of districts and the amount of reorganization thus far accomplished in Nebraska have taken place.

Over the years, school districts in Nebraska have been basically of three kinds. One, the elementary school district; two, the K-12 district; and three, the high school district. Each of these types has had its impact upon organization and reorganization of districts. The great majority of Nebraska school districts began as elementary school districts which, in terms of present legal terminology, are called Class I districts. For all practical purposes, there was never any limit as to the number of pupils or valuation of district which would authorize formation of a new district. Evidently the most significant element involved was the judgment of the county superintendent as to the desirability of approving a request for the formation of a new district. New areas were commonly divided and subdivided several times before a fairly stable school district pattern was developed. As soon as high schools began to come into the picture, school districts which in their own thinking could afford to do so, simply added grades to the existing elementary school. For a long time in Nebraska, the so-called Article III school was one which was originally an elementary school and which by choice was offering usually either two or four high school grades beyond the elementary level. Only since World War II has this type of school district gone out of the picture. There have been few strictly rural four-year high schools in Nebraska at any time, although there were many two-year high schools prior to World War II.

The comparatively few high schools which existed in the open country were for the most

part the result of early reorganization methods and were either K-12 schools or rural high schools. The high school district, by which is meant a district offering high school education only, was a relatively late development in Nebraska. It consisted and still consists of two basic kinds of school. One, the rural high school in which one or more Class I districts support a high school by virtue of voluntary organization to achieve this end and, two, the county high school in which all Class I districts in the county not in another school district supporting a high school are obligated to support the county high school. At no time in Nebraska history has there been a large number of either of these types of high school districts. They have consistently had a high per pupil cost and their lack of coordination with the elementary schools which they serve has been painfully apparent. In some instances it seems reasonable to assume that better educational facilities have been made available through the development of the county or rural high school district than would have been the case otherwise but where this is the case, the area under consideration is sparsely settled and usually with difficulty of transportation at least at the time the high school district was originally organized.

The long history of most Class I districts has added to the difficulty of talking in terms of changing district boundaries, some of which go back almost to the establishment of the state. Again it is impossible to say for sure how much is strictly a matter of economics, how much is a matter of emotional attachment to a somewhat glamourized past and how much is a lack of realization of the inadequacies of existing educational facilities and programs. Because of a lack of adequate communication between school authorities — state, county and local — and the citizens who support and must ultimately decide upon the form and nature of their schools, the situation is not simple, the solution is not easy, and the progress, however real, has been and probably will continue to be slow. Although state, county, and local superintendents at times showed concern and an interest in reorganization, at least as far back as the early 1900's, comparatively little progress was made in this direction. Larger cities, especially Lincoln and Omaha, absorbed several districts as they expanded outside their original boundaries. This type of reorganization took place but to a much lesser extent with some of the other population centers of the state. For the most part, the next larger communities in Nebraska such as Fremont, Grand Island, Hastings, Beatrice, North Platte, and Norfolk, are still located in either exactly or essentially the same boundaries as their original school districts were laid out to contain.

Extensive reorganization has seemed to come easier in school districts in which the population has expanded rapidly in recent years, such as the Westside Community Schools, Bellevue, Ralston and Millard. It is probably true that in the case of these recently expanding districts old ties and traditions have meant much less to the incoming population than has been the case in centers where the growth has been slower and where a much higher percentage of the population has spent most or all of their lives within the existing school district pattern.

The first really effective move toward the reorganization of school districts appears to have occurred shortly after the close of World War I. The improvement in transportation which had taken place by that time, the expansion of the curriculum at both elementary and secondary school levels and the greatly increased attendance in school of pupils, especially at the secondary level combined to bring to the foreground some of the same needs, limitations, and arguments that were to become the subject of much debate and consideration following World War II.

Legislation primarily permissive in character did encourage extensive reorganization for a short time in the early 1920's. Roughly eighty districts accomplished a significant amount of consolidation but the majority of these schools even after the consolidation was completed had valuations and enrollments which would at the present time be considered

to be still too small to operate efficiently. It appears that the reorganization program bogged down rather suddenly when the report got around that the tax levies in rural areas consistently went up following a reorganization or a consolidation program. It is true that in most of the inadequately consolidated districts that were developed this was a result but it is also true that costs went up generally during this era because of the broadened programs and the greater number of pupils in attendance so the argument did not have the validity which it was assumed to have.

For one reason or another, however, reorganization came to a virtual standstill at about the time the Great Depression of the 1930's descended upon Nebraska and the rest of the United States. A few of the districts that had been reorganized up to that time disintegrated, but for the most part those that had moved as far as to consolidate simply continued to operate during the succeeding twenty to thirty year period. In the early 1930's there were over 6,000 districts in Nebraska of which over 600 offered some work beyond the elementary level. This number remained fairly constant until the shortage of teachers concurrent with the World War II period began to close schools and to encourage reduction in the number of districts. It is perhaps significant that the two major efforts to reduce the number of school districts in Nebraska have each followed closely after a World War period. There seems to be some reason for believing that the shortage of teachers in each of these periods had a great deal to do with the willingness to accept reorganization proposals. This teacher shortage has persisted a great deal longer following World War II than was the case after World War I, and may account in large part for the continued emphasis and success with reorganization which has occurred in this later period.

The greatest reduction in the number of school districts which has occurred has obviously come from the elimination of Class I districts. They have been eliminated in various ways. In some cases they have been absorbed into existing K-12 districts. Lincoln, Omaha, and many smaller communities have expanded their K-12 districts in this fashion. In other cases, small clusters of Class I districts have simply banded themselves together into somewhat larger Class I districts.

In other cases they have become a part of an existing K-12 district for the purpose of insuring a continuation of high school services in the area involved. This latter type of reorganization has in a great majority of cases simply tended to perpetuate a small and inadequate high school which had no justification for such continuance. Not only has this process slowed effective reorganization but the very ineptitude which follows this type of changing the educational pattern has tended to prejudice people who have observed the failure to find much improvement to oppose a more adequate and significant kind of district change. This has perhaps been a necessary step in order that people might see the inadequacies of this procedure as a solution but it has been a painful and an expensive procedure for far too many people and school patrons. In a number of counties in Nebraska virtually all of the Class I districts have disappeared but in the future it appears that extensive reorganization will again have to be undertaken in order to reduce the number of existing K-12 districts, many of which are educationally inefficient and economically unsound.

In many cases the reduction of districts has come about from the joining together of two or more Class I districts to continue simply an elementary education program. This has seemed feasible in many cases to the local citizens because of the declining number of pupils in one-room schools and because of the increased ease of transportation. There has been a tendency to bring Class I districts together and to continue the new district as a Class I entity, probably because of the lowered mill levy which frequently is experienced following such reorganization. The arguments of local control, keeping pupils near their homes, and maintaining a low pupil-teacher ratio have been advanced but do not appear

to be as significant as the financial factor. There is good reason to believe that wherever financial benefits will accrue along with educational benefits that citizens and parents generally will favor the type of organization which then can be considered both economically and educationally sound.

Reorganization of school districts has been slower in Nebraska than in most other states in the Union because of the almost entirely permissive nature of the legal framework within which reorganization can be accomplished. In order to bring about a reorganization proposal it has generally been necessary to convince the voters in each of the individual districts that might be involved in the total program. This has been a slow and sometimes tedious process even when success has been achieved and has been difficult of achievement in part because of the shortage of skilled personnel to provide the information and educational service needed in whatever area is under consideration.

In most cases there has been no special assistance at the local level and many educators who would be willing to work at the local level have found that the local administrators and teachers have come from schools such as those presently in existence and are not inclined to support any effort to change them. Sometimes this undoubtedly reflects their own interests, financial and otherwise, in maintaining the status quo. Most teachers of one-room schools have gone through such schools themselves and live in areas which are served by these schools. They generally are not enthusiastic supporters of a rapid reorganization program. County superintendents have on some occasions contributed a great deal to effective reorganization programs but have had limited assistance of a professional nature from outside the boundaries of their own counties. Since county superintendents are subject to election, they are under heavy pressure to provide the kind of advice and service which the voters of their counties feel at the time and place to be in their best interests. This has made it difficult if not actually impossible for many county superintendents to be of a great deal of assistance in implementing effective reorganization programs.

The State Department of Education has provided consultative and advisory service to the extent that available personnel has found it possible. In the thinking of most state educators this has been far too limited a service but the Legislature has consistently not seen its way clear to provide funds earmarked for reorganization promotion and development. The University of Nebraska, and to a lesser extent other collegiate institutions, have provided some consultative services but by any analysis they must be evaluated as being far less than is needed in a state with the large number of teachers and school districts which Nebraska still has. Professional organizations, especially the Nebraska State Education Association, the Nebraska State School Boards Association, the Nebraska Association of School Administrators, and the Nebraska County Superintendents Association have consistently gone on record as favoring legislation which would encourage greater school district reorganization. For the most part, newspapers and other communication media in the state have supported reasonable reorganization but in only a few cases have any such media been used extensively except in a few strictly local situations.

The tradition that a school district is a political entity whose boundary lines have such significance that change is difficult has disappeared in large part from the thinking of people in most areas of the state even where reorganization has amounted to no more than putting two or more Class I districts together. The relative ease with which school district boundaries can be changed has come to be understood. Those who discuss the problems of reorganization with lay people and with professional educators in areas where reorganization would be desirable report consistently that they are receiving much better hearings now than was the case only a few years ago. . . 20

CHAPTER II

STATUS OF EDUCATIONAL STRUCTURE IN NEBRASKA

Local School Districts

Throughout the history of Nebraska, it has been noted by educators that: (1) Nebraska has too many school districts; (2) the excessive number and the small size of the districts contribute to inadequacy of educational opportunities; and (3) the school district structure makes for an inequitable distribution of taxes. These circumstances remain as true today as they have been at any time throughout the history of the state.

Nebraska had, as of October 1, 1967, 2,172 school districts, which is the greatest number held by any state in the nation. This figure accounts for approximately 10% of the country's total of 21,704 for the same date. These same 2,172 school districts have 325,294 of the total public school enrollment of 43,788,324 in the 50 states or only 0.74% of the nation's total. From these statistics it would appear that Nebraska is inconsistent with the other states of the nation with respect to the number of school districts necessary to provide educational programs for the state's enrollment.

Of the 2,172 districts (*See Table III*) in Nebraska, there are 1,827 Class I (K-8) districts, 325 Class II, III, IV and V (K-12) districts, and 20 Class VI (high school only) districts. Of the Class I districts, 423 are contracting for the instruction of children residing in the districts, while five Class I districts and one Class VI district are neither contracting nor holding school.

The existence of a school district in Nebraska seemingly has no relationship to the number of students to be served within the boundaries of the district. In making an enrollment analysis of the six classes of Nebraska school districts, it was found that the 29,577 pupils (*See Table IV*) enrolled in the 1,399 operating Class I (K-8) districts were attending school in districts which ranged in enrollments of from one up to 1,000 (*See Table V*). The greatest number of the Class I districts enrolled from six to ten pupils. The total enrollment in Class I districts represents just slightly over 9% of the state's public school enrollment.

Table V also shows that a wide disparity exists in the enrollments of the Class II districts. It is noted that 11 of the 131 Class II schools enrolled fewer than 100 students, while one enrolled between 500 and 600. The Class II enrollment of 25,450 (*See Table IV*) represents only 7% of the state's public school pupils.

TABLE III

NUMBER OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS
(BY COUNTY) OCTOBER 1, 1967

County	Class I -- K-8				K-12		Total Districts
	Operating	Contracting	Not Operating or Contracting	Total Class I Districts	Class 2, 3, 4, & 5 Districts	H.S. Only Class VI	
Adams	13	1	0	14	4	1	19
Antelope	33	7	0	40	4	0	44
Arthur	9	1	0	10	0	1	11
Banner	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Blaine	3	3	0	6	1	1	8
Boone	34	8	0	42	4	0	46
Box Butte	20	3	0	23	2	0	25
Boyd	2	0	0	2	4	0	6
Brown	20	7	1	28	1	0	29
Buffalo	21	7	0	28	7	0	35
Burt	23	11	0	34	5	0	39
Butler	22	5	0	27	3	0	30
Cass	25	6	0	31	7	0	38
Cedar	16	20	0	36	6	0	42
Chase	6	0	0	6	2	1	9
Cherry	52	16	0	68	3	0	71
Cheyenne	14	3	0	16	6	0	22
Clay	3	2	0	6	6	0	12
Colfax	16	6	0	22	4	0	26
Cuming	29	5	0	34	4	0	38
Custer	31	25	0	56	8	0	64
Dakota	4	4	0	8	2	0	10
Dawes	23	5	0	28	2	0	30
Dawson	34	6	0	40	6	0	46
Deuel	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
Dixon	13	5	0	18	5	0	23
Dodge	31	5	0	36	7	0	43
Douglas	8	1	0	9	8	0	17
Dundy	8	9	0	17	2	0	19
Fillmore	3	0	0	3	6	0	9
Franklin	6	2	0	8	4	0	12
Frontier	8	6	0	14	2	*1	17

County	Class I -- K-8				K-12		Total Districts
	Operating	Contracting	Not Operating or Contracting	Total Class I Districts	Class 2, 3, 4, & 5 Districts	H.S. Only Class VI	
Furnas	4	3	0	7	6	0	13
Gage	24	12	0	36	7	0	43
Garden	16	1	0	17	0	2	19
Garfield	13	3	1	17	1	0	18
Gosper	3	1	0	4	1	0	5
Grant	7	0	0	7	0	1	8
Greeley	7	10	0	17	4	0	21
Hall	30	8	0	38	4	1	43
Hamilton	1	1	0	2	5	0	7
Harlan	4	3	0	7	4	0	11
Hayes	7	6	0	13	0	1	14
Hitchcock	4	4	0	8	4	0	12
Holt	63	4	0	67	5	1	73
Hooker	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Howard	8	2	0	10	3	0	13
Jefferson	21	8	1	30	3	0	33
Johnson	9	2	0	11	4	0	15
Kearney	2	1	0	3	3	0	6
Keith	23	1	0	24	3	0	27
Keya Paha	13	4	0	17	0	1	18
Kimball	5	2	0	7	2	1	10
Knox	8	1	0	9	6	0	15
Lancaster	14	0	0	14	5	0	19
Lincoln	23	5	0	28	6	0	34
Logan	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Loup	8	2	1	11	0	1	12
Madison	31	11	0	42	5	0	47
McPherson	12	1	0	13	0	1	14
Merrick	7	3	0	10	4	0	14
Morrill	15	10	0	25	2	0	27
Nance	21	2	0	23	2	0	25
Nemaha	8	6	0	14	3	0	17

County	Class I -- K-8				K-12		Total Districts
	Operating	Contracting	Not Operating or Contracting	Total Class I Districts	Class 2, 3, 4, & 5 Districts	H.S. Only Class VI	
Nuckolls	11	2	0	13	5	0	18
Otoe	27	11	0	38	5	0	43
Pawnee	11	4	0	15	3	0	18
Perkins	4	0	0	4	2	1	7
Phelps	6	3	0	9	3	0	12
Pierce	16	3	0	19	3	0	22
Platte	29	11	0	40	4	0	44
Polk	5	0	0	5	4	0	9
Red Willow	8	2	0	10	4	0	15
Richardson	26	10	0	36	5	0	40
Rock	15	7	0	22	4	1	23
Saline	10	5	1	16	5	0	21
Sarpy	2	0	0	2	4	0	6
Saunders	49	7	0	56	7	0	63
Scotts Bluff	12	1	0	13	9	0	22
Seward	4	3	0	7	3	0	10
Sheridan	52	6	0	58	3	0	61
Sherman	13	0	0	13	3	0	16
Sioux	25	8	0	33	0	1	34
Stanton	27	9	0	36	2	0	38
Thayer	6	2	0	8	7	0	15
Thomas	2	0	0	2	0	1	3
Thurston	11	8	0	19	4	0	23
Valley	12	8	0	20	2	0	22
Washington	28	7	0	35	4	0	39
Wayne	31	7	0	38	2	0	40
Webster	5	0	0	5	4	0	9
Wheeler	10	3	0	13	4	1	14
York	1	0	0	1	6	0	7
Total	1399	423	5	1827	325	*20	2172

* = One Class VI Not Operating

TABLE IV

GRADE BY GRADE ENROLLMENT IN ALL OF THE NEBRASKA LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS
FOR THE SCHOOL YEAR 1967-1968

<i>Public School Districts</i>	<i>Kdg.</i>	<i>1st</i>	<i>2nd</i>	<i>3rd</i>	<i>4th</i>	<i>5th</i>	<i>6th</i>	<i>Spec.</i>	<i>7th</i>	<i>8th</i>	<i>9th</i>	<i>10th</i>	<i>11th</i>	<i>12th</i>	<i>Spec.</i>	<i>Total</i>
Class I	2,348	3,666	3,640	3,550	3,430	3,492	3,470	10	3,018	2,953						29,577
Class II	1,736	1,920	1,865	1,827	1,780	1,806	1,808	3	1,900	1,911	2,250	2,341	2,185	2,115	3	25,450
Class III	14,884	13,545	13,228	12,998	12,498	12,764	12,544	680	12,829	12,837	15,381	15,196	14,366	13,007	112	176,869
Class IV	2,765	2,485	2,408	2,545	2,213	2,211	2,040	279	2,141	1,951	2,041	2,100	1,981	1,797	250	29,207
Class V	7,045	5,508	5,137	5,003	4,603	4,551	4,332	542	4,233	4,169	4,493	4,444	3,930	3,407		61,397
Class VI								36	36	42	724	689	653	650		2,794
Total I-VI																
Districts	28,778	27,124	26,278	25,923	24,524	24,824	24,194	1,514	24,157	23,863	24,889	24,770	23,115	20,976	365	325,294

TABLE V

**ENROLLMENT RANGES OF THE CLASS I, CLASS II,
CLASS III, AND CLASS VI DISTRICTS**

October 1, 1967

Class I Districts

(those districts providing education from kindergarten through the 8th grade)

<i>Enrollment Range</i>	<i>Not Operating</i>	<i>Contracting</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6-10</i>	<i>11-15</i>	<i>16-20</i>	<i>21-30</i>	<i>Over 30</i>
<i>Number of Districts</i>	5	423	3	13	26	35	60	380	344	175	144	219

Class II Districts

(those districts providing education from kindergarten through the 12th grade and having a total population of fewer than 1,000)

<i>Enrollment Range</i>	<i>0-100</i>	<i>101-150</i>	<i>151-200</i>	<i>201-250</i>	<i>251-300</i>	<i>301-350</i>	<i>351-400</i>	<i>401-500</i>
<i>Number of Districts</i>	11	28	29	32	22	8	0	1

Class III Districts

(those districts providing education from kindergarten through the 12th grade and having a total population of 1,000 to 50,000)

<i>Enrollment Range</i>	<i>151-200</i>	<i>201-250</i>	<i>251-300</i>	<i>301-350</i>	<i>351-400</i>	<i>401-500</i>	<i>501-600</i>	<i>601-700</i>	<i>701-800</i>	<i>801-900</i>	<i>901-1000</i>	<i>1001-1200</i>	<i>1201-1400</i>	<i>1401-1600</i>	<i>1601-1800</i>	<i>1801-2000</i>	<i>2001-2500</i>	<i>2501-3000</i>	<i>3001-4000</i>	<i>4001-5000</i>	<i>5001-6000</i>	<i>6001-8000</i>	<i>8001-10,000</i>
<i>Number of Districts</i>	4	4	17	21	20	32	17	17	9	7	3	7	6	4	4	3	3	4	3	2	2	1	2

Class VI Districts

(those districts providing education for high school grades only)

<i>Enrollment Range</i>	<i>Not Operating</i>	<i>0-100</i>	<i>101-200</i>	<i>201-300</i>	<i>301-400</i>	<i>401-500</i>
<i>Number of Districts</i>	1	9	6	2	1	1

Likewise the Class III districts show a wide disparity in enrollments. Table 3 shows that the range in enrollment in the Class III districts extends from a low range of between 151 and 200 up to a range of 8,001 to 10,000. The 176,869 enrolled in the Class III districts (*See Table IV*) represents just over 54% of the total public school enrollment.

The Class VI districts also have a wide variance in enrollments, with nine of nineteen operating districts enrolling fewer than 100, while one enrolls between 401 and 500. The 2,794 high school youth attending school in the Class VI high schools (*See Table IV*) make up less than 1% of the total public school enrollment of the state. The Class IV district (Lincoln) and the Class V district (Omaha) together enroll 90,604 students (*See Table IV*) which accounts for slightly over 27% of the state's total public school enrollment.

The history of the establishment of the school district structure would indicate that the number of districts established was related to population density and to topography. Some still argue the need for the great number of districts on the same basis; yet the pattern that has developed with reorganization would indicate that attitudes toward reorganization are a more significant factor affecting the number of districts in a certain area than are population or topography.

Table VI shows the 1960 population the current number of school districts and the area in square miles of each of the ninety-three counties of Nebraska. Examination of the table would indicate that reorganization has followed no particular pattern that can be related to topography, road conditions, or population density. For example, it can be noted that Banner County, Hooker County, and Logan County have each reorganized into single school districts; yet they are each located in the sandhills region of the state, with sparse populations, a poorly developed system of roads, and relatively large areas. Other counties in the same region with similar circumstances have accomplished very little in the way of reorganization. The same parallel can be drawn for other regions of the state.

Many factors can and do contribute to inequitable educational opportunities. Two significant ones are: (1) the type of organization, and (2) the limited enrollments of the many small districts.

In Nebraska, the K-8 districts (Class I) and the high school district (Class VI) superimposed over a group of Class I districts are still legal organizational structures. Dr. Rosalie Farley stated in a position paper on elementary education that to provide an optimum program for an elementary school, it must include, "*a balanced, flexible, and articulated educational program from kindergarten through grade twelve under the leadership of one superintendent, a local board of education, and an elementary principal.*"¹

There is no way that any Class I school district in Nebraska, even those with large elementary enrollments, can meet the above criterion.

TABLE VI

POPULATION, NUMBER OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS, AND AREA
BY COUNTY FOR NEBRASKA

<i>County</i>	<i>1960 Population</i>	<i>Total No. of School Districts Oct. 1, '67</i>	<i>Area in Sq. Miles</i>	<i>County</i>	<i>1960 Population</i>	<i>Total No. of School Districts Oct. 1, '67</i>	<i>Area in Sq. Miles</i>
Adams	28,944	19	562	Jefferson	11,620	33	577
Antelope	10,176	44	853	Johnson	6,281	15	377
Arthur	680	11	706	Kearney	6,580	6	512
Banner	1,269	1	738	Keith	7,958	27	1,072
Blaine	1,016	8	711	Keya Paha	1,672	18	769
Boone	9,134	46	683	Kimball	7,975	10	953
Box Butte	11,688	25	1,066	Knox	13,300	15	1,105
Boyd	4,513	6	538	Lancaster	155,272	19	845
Brown	4,436	29	1,318	Lincoln	28,491	34	2,523
Buffalo	26,236	35	952	Logan	1,108	1	570
Burt	10,192	39	484	Loup	1,097	12	574
Butler	10,312	30	582	Madison	25,145	47	572
Cass	17,821	38	554	McPherson	735	14	855
Cedar	13,368	42	743	Merrick	8,363	14	467
Chase	4,317	9	891	Morrill	7,057	27	1,403
Cherry	8,218	71	5,982	Nance	5,635	25	438
Cheyenne	14,828	22	1,186	Nemaha	9,099	17	399
Clay	8,717	12	570	Nuckolls	8,217	18	579
Colfax	9,595	26	405	Otoe	16,503	43	617
Cuming	12,435	38	571	Pawnee	5,356	18	433
Custer	16,517	64	2,562	Perkins	4,189	7	885
Dakota	12,168	10	255	Phelps	9,800	12	545
Dawes	9,536	30	1,389	Pierce	8,722	22	573
Dawson	19,405	46	979	Platte	23,992	44	672
Deuel	3,125	2	435	Polk	7,210	9	433
Dixon	8,106	23	480	Red Willow	12,940	15	716
Dodge	32,471	43	529	Richardson	13,903	40	548
Douglas	343,490	17	333	Rock	2,554	23	1,012
Dundy	3,570	19	921	Saline	12,542	21	575
Fillmore	9,425	9	577	Sarpy	31,281	6	236
Franklin	5,449	12	578	Saunders	17,270	63	756
Frontier	4,311	17	966	Scotts Bluff	33,809	22	726
Furnas	7,711	13	722	Seward	13,581	10	572
Gage	26,818	43	858	Sheridan	9,049	61	2,466
Garden	3,472	19	1,685	Sherman	5,382	16	570
Garfield	2,699	18	570	Sioux	2,575	34	2,063
Gosper	2,489	5	462	Stanton	5,783	38	431
Grant	1,009	8	762	Thayer	9,118	15	577
Greeley	4,595	21	570	Thomas	1,078	3	716
Hall	35,757	43	540	Thurston	7,237	23	388
Hamilton	8,714	7	541	Valley	6,590	22	570
Harlan	5,081	11	554	Washington	12,103	39	387
Hayes	1,919	14	711	Wayne	9,959	40	443
Hitchcock	4,829	12	714	Webster	6,224	9	575
Holt	13,722	73	2,408	Wheeler	1,297	14	576
Hooker	1,130	1	722	York	13,724	7	577
Howard	6,541	13	566				

Dr. Franklin Stone in his position paper on secondary education and school district organization defines secondary education as follows: "Secondary Education -- *In the context of this paper, [Dr. Stone's position paper] the education offered in the final three or four years of a school program from kindergarten through grade 12.*"²

Later in his paper, Dr. Stone states that the individual school is an integral part of the local school district and that for the secondary school to be effective it must be supported by the local school district, the intermediate unit, and the state agency.³

Of the more than sixty position papers prepared for the Great Plains Project by knowledgeable leaders in education, each in his area of specialization, none has advocated anything other than a complete, coordinated and articulated program, extending from at least kindergarten through at least grade twelve.

The limited enrollments of many of Nebraska's school districts make it virtually impossible for adequate educational opportunities to be made available for all Nebraska's children and youth with efficiency and economy. A study was made by the Great Plains staff of the breadth of the secondary programs provided in Nebraska's K-12 school districts in the year 1965-66. The study involved dividing the K-12 schools of the state into fourteen size groupings, plus Lincoln and Omaha, and averaging the number of course offerings provided in each of the schools within each of the size groups.

Table 5 shows the average number of course offerings in grades 9-12 in each of the size groupings. It is readily apparent that the breadth of the curriculum increases as the enrollment increases; thus educational opportunity increases at the secondary level as the enrollment increases. The same procedure was used to determine the breadth of the vocationally oriented course offerings in the same size schools. Table VII shows the breadth of the vocationally oriented course offerings in each of the same size groupings and again it is noted that the number of vocationally oriented courses increase as the total school enrollment increases.

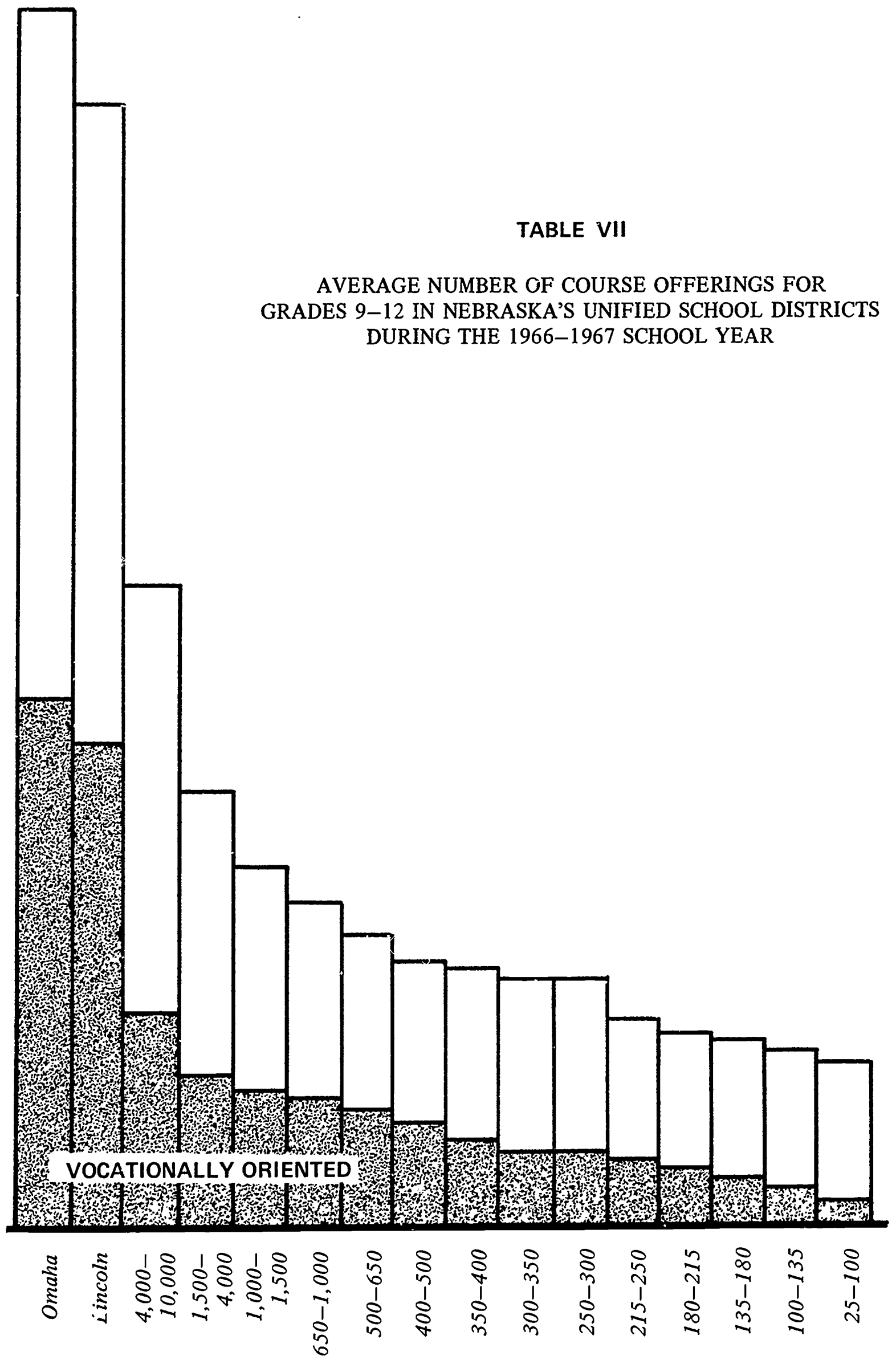
The same pattern seems to be true at the elementary level as at the secondary level. Because elementary program records are not available for study as are the secondary program records, a study could not be made of breadth of offering at the elementary level. However, Nebraska State Department of Education personnel, in their visits throughout the state, have discovered that those elementary programs provided in the larger school districts are more likely to provide a greater breadth of program and services. Such programs as physical education, art, music, school library and media services, remedial programs, special education programs, school health services, guidance services, preschool experiences, programs for the gifted, and supervision and in-service programs for teachers are more likely to be present in the school districts with larger enrollments. Further, the observation of the Department personnel shows that the number of the above programs and services tends to increase as the size of the school district increases.

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TABLE VII

AVERAGE NUMBER OF COURSE OFFERINGS FOR GRADES 9-12 IN NEBRASKA'S UNIFIED SCHOOL DISTRICTS DURING THE 1966-1967 SCHOOL YEAR



For example, in the typical Class I district, instruction is in the basic subject areas. Special areas which are referred to in the previous paragraph are either completely omitted or incidental to the program.

In the Class II and small Class III schools, the elementary program consists of instruction in the basic subjects. On occasion, high school instructors in the area of physical education, music, and library are asked to provide instruction and services in the elementary school. Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 has provided funds which in many schools have been used to begin remedial reading programs. At the present time, those Class I districts without administrators are not eligible to participate in Title I of the ESEA.

In the larger Class III school districts, the Class IV, and the Class V school districts, instruction is provided in the basic subject areas. Also, physical education, art, music, school library and media services, special education programs, remedial programs, and health services, are usually provided by specially trained personnel. In addition, supervision by qualified elementary principals, in-service programs for teachers, programs for the gifted, preschool experiences, and guidance are often a part of the total program. It is quite evident that larger school districts in Nebraska are able to provide for a breadth of elementary and secondary curricula not possible in the smaller schools.

The greater breadth of educational programs in those schools with larger enrollments is related to the factor of economy of operation. A study of educational costs for the year 1966-67 in the K-12 school systems of Nebraska was made by the Great Plains Staff. Complete data was available for 216 of the K-12 systems at the time the study was made. These 216 school systems were divided into the same size groupings as were used for the curriculum study. Table VIII shows the average elementary, secondary, and total cost per pupil in average daily membership in those schools available for the study. Examination of the table shows that elementary and total per-pupil costs decrease as the enrollments increase up to the 4,000 to 10,000 size range. The secondary ADM costs continue to decrease up through the 4,000 to 10,000 range. On the other hand, a reexamination of Table VII shows that the curriculum breadth increases steadily as the enrollment increases; therefore it becomes evident that the school district with the larger enrollment is able to provide a curriculum with greater breadth at a lower per-pupil cost. The apparent reason for the increase in the average per-pupil cost for the schools enrolling over 4,000 is probably due to the increase in the types of special programs and services that are made possible by the larger enrollments, and as a result, are provided in those school districts.

Not only are the total per-pupil costs higher in the small school districts, but a greater percentage of the budget is spent for items other than instruction in the smaller districts. Table IX shows the percentage of the total budget spent for the six major budget categories during the 1966-67 school year for the same 216 school districts and for the same size groupings used in the per-pupil cost study. It can be noted from the table that the percentage of the budget dollar spent for instruction is in excess of 9%

TABLE VIII

AVERAGE COST PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY MEMBERSHIP
IN DIFFERENT SIZES OF SCHOOLS IN NEBRASKA
1966-1967*

<i>Number of Schools Used in Computation for ADM Costs in Each Size Category</i>	<i>K-12 Enrollment</i>	<i>Elementary ADM Cost</i>	<i>Secondary ADM Cost</i>	<i>Total ADM Cost</i>
14	25-100	881.99	1,282.71	1,194.45
12	100-135	527.56	863.95	701.15
21	135-180	524.88	892.25	705.78
7	180-215	486.53	811.75	630.24
12	215-250	439.98	711.38	591.28
18	250-300	469.73	765.17	597.11
13	300-350	477.09	698.47	583.38
19	350-400	436.66	665.80	559.44
17	400-500	431.47	668.08	541.05
10	500-650	385.71	618.22	486.00
22	650-1,000	381.73	622.41	490.60
22	1,000-1,500	386.48	591.60	480.35
21	1,500-4,000	365.52	566.41	450.95
6	4,000-10,000	390.74	564.22	456.54
2	Omaha-Lincoln	447.63	610.20	512.40

*Cost figures which were available on March 3, 1968, the date that the study was conducted, were used for all the K-12 schools in the state.

TABLE IX

PERCENTAGE OF BUDGET SPENT FOR SIX MAJOR CATEGORIES OF THE BUDGET
IN NEBRASKA'S K-12 SCHOOL DISTRICTS
1966-1967

<i>Number of Districts Used in Computations</i>	<i>K-12 Enrollments</i>	<i>Percentage of Total Expenditures</i>					
		<i>Administration</i>	<i>Instruction</i>	<i>Other School Services</i>	<i>Operation of Plant</i>	<i>Maintenance of Plant</i>	<i>Fixed Charges</i>
14	25-100	8.61	64.77	8.43	9.28	3.36	5.53
12	100-135	9.18	66.97	6.70	9.30	2.30	5.51
21	135-180	7.92	66.42	8.58	8.77	3.45	4.83
7	180-215	7.19	65.99	9.91	9.08	2.63	5.17
12	215-250	6.84	68.35	7.09	8.94	3.65	5.11
18	250-300	7.38	64.53	10.67	8.35	3.45	5.58
13	300-350	7.90	63.69	10.54	9.47	3.97	4.40
19	350-400	7.30	66.14	9.36	9.62	2.83	4.73
17	400-500	7.04	66.12	9.78	8.88	3.45	4.70
10	500-650	6.65	69.92	6.63	8.79	3.82	4.17
22	650-1,000	6.11	69.68	6.85	8.68	4.02	4.63
21	1,000-1,500	5.49	71.32	6.45	8.65	3.20	4.86
21	1,500-4,000	4.60	73.76	4.18	9.07	3.72	4.64
6	4,000-10,000	2.85	78.22	1.34	8.64	4.07	4.85
2	Omaha-Lincoln	2.30	73.79	1.82	10.21	6.40	5.45

more in the two largest school districts than in the fourteen smallest districts of the state, and that those districts enrolling from 4,000 to 10,000 students spend the highest percentage, 78.22%, of the budget dollar for instruction. All groupings of school district size below 1,000 in total enrollment spend less than 70% for instruction, while those of over 1,000 spend from 71% to 78% for instruction. Further examination of the table indicates that the percentage of the budget dollar spent for administration tends to decrease as the school size increases. The highest percentage, 9.18%, spent for administration during the year studied was in those schools with an enrollment of 100 to 135, while the two metropolitan districts spent an average of only 2.30% for the same purpose. In other school services the trend seems less consistent with relation to size of school and the percentage spent through those size groupings up to 500, but from that point on up through the two metropolitan districts there is evidence of a definite trend toward a lower percentage of the budget being spent for other school services as the size increases.

The differences in the percentage of the budget dollar spent for operation of plant, maintenance of plant, and fixed charges do not seem to show any definite relationship between the percentage of the budget spent and the size of the school.

The evidence shows that generally the small school is economically unfeasible to operate and that educational opportunity is more limited in the school district which has a small enrollment. The facts show that those school districts enrolling from 1,500 to 10,000 students are operating most economically and that those districts with more than 10,000 provide the most complete educational program with slightly higher costs.

That the present school district structure makes for an inequitable distribution of taxes can best be demonstrated by examining the financial status of the Nebraska school districts. Tables X through XIV show the number of each class of district which have mill levies within a certain range. Upon examination of these tables, it can be readily concluded that there is a wide disparity throughout the state in the amount of taxes levied to support education in each of the classes of districts and among the counties for nonresident tuition purposes.

TABLE X

MILL LEVY RANGE
CLASS I DISTRICTS (K- 8 ONLY)
1967-1968
GENERAL FUND

<i>Mill Levy Range</i>	<i>0</i>	<i>5.00</i>	<i>10.00</i>	<i>15.00</i>	<i>20.00</i>	<i>25.00</i>	<i>30.00</i>	<i>35.00</i>	<i>40.00</i>	<i>Over</i>
	<i>4.99</i>	<i>9.00</i>	<i>14.99</i>	<i>19.19</i>	<i>24.99</i>	<i>29.99</i>	<i>34.99</i>	<i>39.99</i>	<i>49.99</i>	<i>50.00</i>
<i>Number of Districts</i>	205	517	563	309	130	60	24	5	9	5

TABLE XI

**MILL LEVY RANGE
CLASS II DISTRICTS (K-12)
1967-1968
GENERAL FUND**

<i>Mill Levy</i>	0	16.00	20.00	25.00	30.00	35.00	40.00	45.00	50.00	55.00	60.00	65.00	70.00	75.00	105.00
<i>Range</i>	15.99	19.19	24.99	29.99	34.99	39.99	44.99	49.99	54.99	59.99	64.99	69.99	74.99	104.99	109.99
<i>Number of Districts</i>	0	0	5	14	24	27	27	15	5	8	2	2	1	0	1

TABLE XII

**MILL LEVY RANGE
CLASS III DISTRICTS (K-12)
1967-1968
GENERAL FUND**

<i>Mill Levy</i>	0	16.00	20.00	25.00	30.00	35.00	40.00	45.00	50.00	55.00	60.00	65.00	70.00	75.00	80.00	85.00	90.00
<i>Range</i>	15.99	19.19	24.99	29.99	34.99	39.99	44.99	49.99	54.99	59.99	64.99	69.99	74.99	79.99	84.99	89.99	94.99
<i>Number of Districts</i>	2	3	6	23	27	32	30	26	19	13	6	2	1	0	1	0	1

TABLE XIII

**MILL LEVY RANGE
CLASS VI DISTRICTS (SECONDARY ONLY)
1967-1968
GENERAL FUND**

<i>Mill Levy</i>	0	7.00	10.00	15.00	20.00	25.00
<i>Range</i>	6.99	9.99	14.99	19.99	24.99	29.99
<i>Number of Districts</i>	0	7	4	5	1	2

TABLE XIV

**NON-RESIDENT TUITION RANGE
1967-1968**

<i>Mill Levy</i>	0	5.00	10.00	Over
<i>Range</i>	4.99	9.99	14.99	15.00
<i>Number of Counties</i>	26	45	17	1

The mill levies for educational purposes are only significant in that they show disparity in financial support of education; they do not by themselves show the reason for the disparity.

Those factors which determine the mill levy are the cost per pupil for education and the financial base upon which taxes are levied. At the present time, the bulk of the tax monies raised for the support of education, is raised by a local tax on property, both real and personal. Thus, the inequity which is evidenced by the disparity of mill levy is related to the amount of assessed valuation behind each child and to the cost of providing education for each child in the district.

Table XV shows the number of Class II, Class III, Class IV and Class V districts which fall into certain ranges of assessed valuation per pupil. Class I and Class VI assessed valuations were not computed, as neither of these two classes of districts represents the total educational program. It can be noted in Table XV that a great disparity in the amount of assessed valuation per child exists. It can also be noted that those districts enrolling the greatest number of pupils have the lower assessed valuations per pupil. Of the state's 194 Class III, IV, and V districts, 136 have fewer than 15,000 dollars assessed valuation per child. Yet these same 194 districts enrolled in excess of 81% of the state's pupils.

TABLE XV
ASSESSED VALUATION PER PUPIL
IN
NEBRASKA'S OPERATING CLASS II, III, IV, V DISTRICTS
1967-1968

<i>Assessed Valuation Per Pupil</i>	<i>2,500 to 4,900</i>	<i>5,000 to 9,999</i>	<i>10,000 to 14,999</i>	<i>15,000 to 19,999</i>	<i>20,000 to 24,999</i>	<i>25,000 to 29,999</i>	<i>Over 30,000</i>	<i>District Totals</i>
Class II Districts	0	9	38	39	23	10	7	126*
Class III Districts	2	68	64	29	17	7	4	192
Class IV Districts (Lincoln)	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Class V Districts (Omaha)	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1

**Five Class II Districts contract for secondary school instruction and are not included.*

It becomes evident that there exists in Nebraska an inequitable distribution of the responsibility for the financial support of education, due in part to the excessive number and small size of the state school districts. However, it must be noted that the state-aid-to-education legislation which was passed in 1967, contains an equalization clause which will, when fully funded, do much to equalize the burden of the cost of education in adequately organized school districts. The equalization portion of the Act is based upon the given and uniform per-pupil expenditure: (1) \$225 per kindergarten pupil; (2) \$450 per pupil in grades 1-6; (3) \$500 per pupil in grades 7 & 8; and (4) \$550 per pupil in grades 9-12.

The equalization portion of the Act which provides for state aid to education cannot, however, equalize the financial burden for education as long as those school districts exist which are so small and inefficient that a quality program of education cannot be provided in them for a reasonable per-pupil cost.

Intermediate Units

Nebraska presently has a dual system of intermediate units — the office of the county superintendent and the multi-county educational service units.

The office of the county superintendent has, since its organization, been primarily an arm of the State Department of Education. It has traditionally performed those statutory duties assigned to it as well as those duties assigned by the State Department of Education.

Among the numerous duties assigned to the office, the statutory function of providing supervision to the schools of the county has been the one which has received the most attention from the county superintendents; however, this function has, in practice, been limited almost exclusively to the Class I districts. With the number of Class I districts decreasing in many counties, this supervisory responsibility has required less attention in recent years.

The 1949 school district reorganization statute assigned to the county superintendent the responsibility of functioning as a permanent, nonvoting member of the county committee for the reorganization of school districts. This role has, in more recent years, probably been one of the most significant functions performed by the office.

Probably for several reasons, the office of the county superintendent has not performed a significant role as an intermediate service agency; but the most significant reason has been that, in most instances, the county units do not provide a large enough pupil base nor a large enough financial base to provide supplementary educational services with efficiency or economy.

From 1954 to 1964, six doctoral dissertations were completed at the University of Nebraska in the study of the intermediate unit of school organization. These studies concluded, without exception, that an intermediate unit designed to provide supplementary educational services would, in Nebraska, need greater pupil population and

more financial resources than most of Nebraska's counties could provide. Out of these studies came firm recommendations for a multi-county intermediate service unit which would be designed to provide supplementary educational services. At the same time, national research and trends were substantiating the research being done at the University.

Out of the research in the national trends came the passage of Nebraska's Educational Service Unit Act in 1965. The statute established into law the boundaries of each of the nineteen service unit areas (*See Map I*) and provided that all territory in the state would be included in one of the units. The two metropolitan school districts, however, were given an option of making a decision with regard to remaining in the units. The units, as they were established, range from a two-county area to a nine-county area. The number of counties included in each of the units was determined chiefly upon two factors: student population and area.

The statute provides for an elected lay board whose powers are in many respects similar to those vested in the boards of education at the local level. They are empowered to appoint an experienced, qualified administrator, and may, upon the recommendation of the administrator, appoint as many qualified staff members and clerical personnel as are needed to perform the service programs undertaken. To finance this operation, the board is empowered, by statute, to levy a tax not to exceed one mill on the dollar on the assessed valuation of all real and personal property within the boundaries of the educational service unit. In addition, the board may enter into contractual agreement with other educational agencies to finance services, and it may receive any state or federal funds that become available to them.

The purpose of the educational service unit is stated specifically in the statute as "*providing supplementary educational services.*" Also specified are three different methods by which supplementary services can be undertaken: (1) the development of specialized educational services directly administered and operated through the service unit board; (2) the development of shared service programs offered on a cooperative basis between local school districts, with the unit assisting in their planning and coordination; and (3) contracting for educational services with the board of any other service units, any other educational agency, or any appropriate state or federal office or agency.

The educational service units have been confronted with several problems since their creation. One of the problems involved the inability of the units to hire administrative leadership immediately to assist with the planning for becoming operational. This was as a result of the timing of the Act in relation to the timing of setting tax levies, as prescribed in the statutes governing taxes for the state. Because of this timing situation, service unit boards were without funds from February 1966 until about January 1, 1967. Because of the timing and funding difficulties, essentially no programs of educational services were initiated until the fall of 1967, and those programs, at this writing, are less than a year old. Table XVI shows those programs and services that have been initiated and that were ongoing by the educational service units during the fall of the 1967-68 school year.

MAP I

EDUCATIONAL SERVICE UNIT BOUNDARIES AS ESTABLISHED BY LEGISLATIVE BILL 301

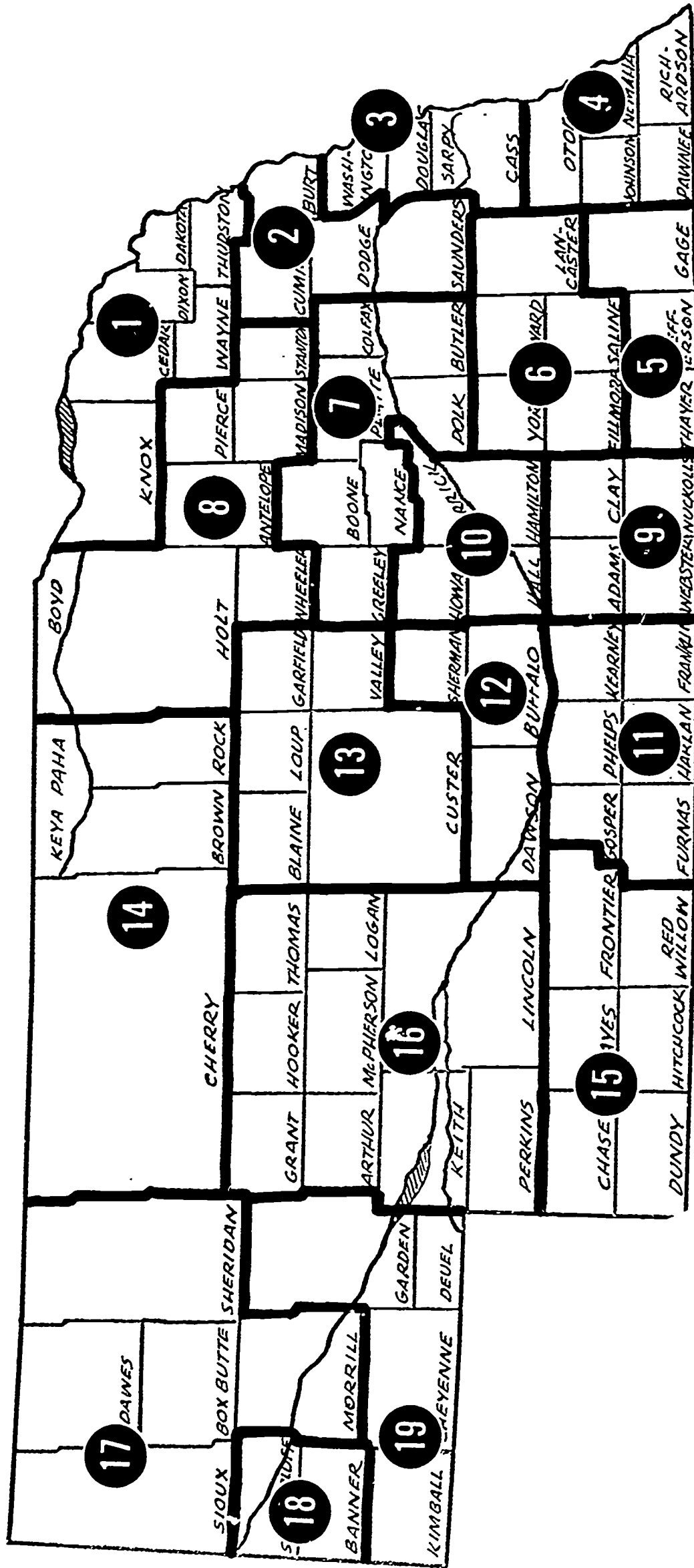


TABLE XVI

SUMMARY OF PROGRAMS AND SERVICES
 PROVIDED BY THE EDUCATIONAL SERVICE UNITS
 IN 1967-1968

<i>Programs and Services</i>	<i>Number of Units Providing Services</i>
1. Speech & Hearing Services	10
2. Health Services	8
3. Psychological Services	10
4. Guidance, Counseling & Testing	6
5. Instructional Media Center	2
6. Substitutes List	5
7. Educational TV (Video-Tape)	2
8. Evaluation of Schools	3
9. Homebound Program	2
10. Diversified Occupations	1
11. Cultural Enrichment	1
12. Drivers' Training Simulator	1
IN-SERVICE	
Reading	4
Art	2
Modular Scheduling	2
Pre-School Programs	3
PROGRAMS	
Math	2
Vocational	1
Curriculum	3
Miscellaneous	6
CONSULTANTS	
Reading	3
Art	2
Speech	2
Vocational	1
Community Coordinators	1
& Curriculum Coordinators	3
Elementary Consultants	4
SUPERVISORS	
ETV Consultant	1
Health	3
Media Specialist	2
Federal Funds Coordinator	1
MENTALLY HANDICAPPED PROGRAMS	
EMR	7
TMR	7
Testing	10

A second major problem confronted by service units has been one of maintaining stability. The Legislative Act provided for any county to withdraw from the educational service unit if at least 5% of the legal voters in each of three-fifths of the local school districts of any county signed a petition requesting that the issue be placed on the next general election ballot and if the issue for exclusion carried by a majority vote of those voting on the issue.

In the first general election following the establishment of the units, there were sufficient petitions to place the issue on the ballot in seventy-nine of the state's ninety-three counties. Of the 79 counties voting on the issue, eighteen voted to be excluded from the units. Map II shows the educational service units following the first exclusion election.

As the 1968 general election approaches, twenty-nine counties have filed valid petitions for an election for exclusion from the units, and one of the eighteen which were excluded in 1966 has filed a valid petition for an election for inclusion. It becomes obvious that the educational service units cannot function adequately as a service agency if the boundaries of the units are constantly threatened. Long-range planning is seriously hampered by the biennial threat of the boundary change.

An additional problem faced by some of the service units is similar to that confronted by many of the local school districts and by the county units: they are too small in terms of pupil enrollment and financial base to make it possible to provide a complete program of educational services. Table XVII gives the pupil enrollments, both public and nonpublic, and the assessed valuation of the educational service units as they were originally outlined by the Legislature. Examination of the table shows that Units 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, and 19 each have total pupil populations of under 10,000, a number which many national researchers consider to be the absolute minimum necessary for desirable educational planning purposes. This table also shows that Units 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, and 19 have total assessed valuations of under 150 million dollars, which would provide only a minimum budget, even under the maximum levy, for the provision of educational services. On the other hand, an examination of the area included in some of those units which have low pupil enrollments and low assessed valuations shows that some have relatively large areas to serve.

In practice, however, the area has not proved to be a deterrent to the efficiency of the units. Even in the very early stages of implementation, for example, Units 17, 18, and 19 have found that there would be some advantage in working together for some purposes. These three units have organized into a regional organization called the Panhandle Educational Research and Development Council and have submitted an ESEA Title III application for the funding of regional activities. Educational Service Units 12 and 13 have found it to their advantage to share an administrator and some staff members. This was initially motivated by the fact that the exclusion election of 1966 left Unit 13 with only two counties; however, experience with this arrangement, as already indicated, has demonstrated that the extension of area has not posed problems of a serious nature.

MAP II

EDUCATIONAL SERVICE UNIT BOUNDARIES

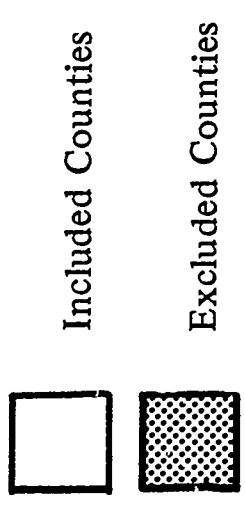
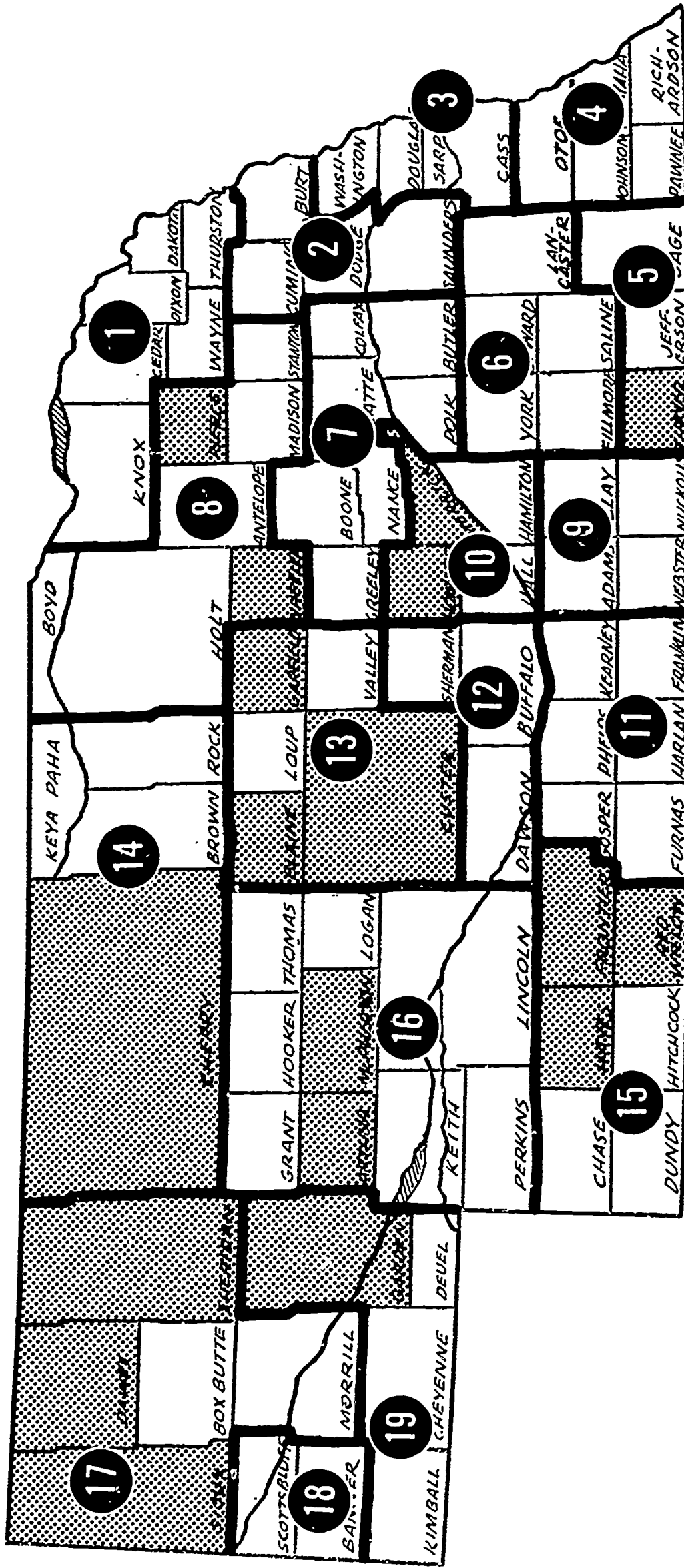


TABLE XVII

FINANCIAL AND ENROLLMENT DATA FOR NEBRASKA'S
19 EDUCATIONAL SERVICE UNITS*

Service Unit Number	1967 Assessed Valuation (Approximate)	School Enrollment		
		Public	Nonpublic	Total
1	175,207,992	14,717	3,194	17,911
2	244,100,103	16,222	3,497	19,719
3	1,034,075,887	96,634	28,083	124,717
4	150,396,831	11,005	960	11,965
5	150,056,570	10,118	1,080	11,198
6 **	232,439,506	14,025	1,590	15,615
7	241,893,779	13,372	6,038	19,410
8	226,843,099	14,425	3,467	17,892
9	158,151,463	11,357	1,602	12,959
10	204,750,012	14,798	2,264	16,862
11	152,476,408	8,740	None	8,740
12	161,413,495	13,206	909	14,115
13	108,018,590	6,273	143	6,416
14	92,248,890	3,942	15	3,957
15	124,204,161	7,463	272	7,735
16	177,061,694	11,716	1,012	12,728
17	135,759,650	8,928	588	9,516
18	107,660,570	10,065	288	10,293
19	125,390,156	6,411	290	6,701

**This data shows the assessed valuations and enrollments of the Educational Service Units as they were created by the Legislature and does not reflect the excluded counties.*

***Does not include the data from Lincoln Public Schools which was excluded by board decision in accordance with the statutory provision for the metropolitan districts of Lincoln and Omaha.*

Though area needs to be given consideration when establishing an intermediate unit, experience would indicate that it is a less important factor than pupil enrollment numbers for establishing efficient and economical programs and services for the intermediate units of school organization. It would, therefore, appear that consideration ought to be given in Nebraska to a realignment of Nebraska's educational service unit boundaries in order that all the units meet at least a minimum pupil population.

For Nebraska to have the strongest and most effective intermediate unit structure, it is, in the judgment of the Great Plains School District Organization Project staff, that three steps need to be considered; namely: (1) the boundaries be stabilized and that all territory in the state be included in an educational service unit; (2) that some units be enlarged and that the overall number of units be reduced; and (3) that a study be conducted for the reallocation of those essential functions of the county superintendent's office, and that the office of the county superintendent be abolished.

The State Agency

The Nebraska State Educational Agency is in the process of change. This change is reflecting what Floyd A. Miller, the Nebraska Commissioner of Education, calls a "New Role." In the *Annual Report of the State Board of Education to the Governor for the fiscal year 1964-1965*, Commissioner Miller wrote the following with regard to the "new role" of the State Department of Education:

State education departments have been given a new opportunity for leadership — an exciting new challenge, unparalleled in our history — by virtue of two major developments:

1. The greatly increased public commitment to education which is now sweeping our country;
2. The infusion of new federal funds and of new imaginative leadership by the federal government in helping states to meet urgent needs in education, including earmarked funds for strengthening state education agencies.

These two developments require that we take a hard look at department activities to determine where we need to add muscle, effort, and perhaps new approaches.

The function of planning has always been a key one in education department activities. It assumes special importance in these swiftly changing times with the constant pressures and the pulling and hauling of many forces.

The national goal, so frequently enunciated in recent months, of a new level of excellence in American education, points directly to state education departments. Since states bear the legal responsibility for the provision of education, the level of excellence which they expect of their local schools and college systems will be a major determining factor in the quality of education which is achieved by these institutions. Departments might well start by cooperatively reassessing objectives and establishing new guidelines to motivate their schools and to upgrade the attitudes and competencies of their professional personnel, most of whom will be expected to assume ever stronger leadership roles.

If any one thing has emerged from all the ferment and discussion in American education in recent years, it is the need for innovation. Innovation has not received major attention from state departments in the past. Yet, the position of the department in relation to innovation is a very critical one. It can bar experimentation and change or it can release and encourage creative forces and the implementation of new ideas. In recent years, with so many new developments in our society influencing education, departments have too often been in a reactionary position of holding the line or even opposing change, rather than in the position of participation and determination in the formulation of plans and proposals for change. Each department needs a staff of specialists with ideas and the ability to translate ideas into action. Emphasis must be given to the collection of new knowledge, new ideas, and new programs. The Department must actually provide leadership rather than just talk about leadership.

The function of promoting improved administrative management in our school systems and of providing consultative services in this area is a most important one. For state departments to be delinquent in this respect is not only to deny the schools the full benefit of the funds already invested, but to lessen the chances of securing the increased investment from local, state and federal sources which is so necessary.

The emergence of exploratory plans for a nationwide program of assessment of educational performance has underscored the importance of evaluation as a responsibility of state education departments. Whether we like it or not, the development and implementation of some kind of a nationwide assessment is inevitable. Instruments and procedures are going to be devised by someone. State departments of education will do well to take a positive position toward this development and participate and cooperate constructively. Such a position will provide an opportunity to give guidance and leadership to the construction of the instruments, in the wise use of the results, and in keeping the administration of the assessment program at the state and local level.

In all areas which are components of excellence in education, departments of education are uniquely qualified to serve as catalytic agents. This is particularly true in teacher education. No educational activity has so many agencies and individuals involved in a "cooperative" effort toward a common goal! New and better ways must be found in preparing teachers. New and better ways must be found to help teachers continue to grow in effectiveness. The hopes and aspirations of parents, the deep concerns of the nation, the ambitions of teacher organizations, the divergent opinions of academicians and professional educators, and the practicalities of politics – all must somehow be combined together in the attempt to produce teachers good enough for tomorrow's needs. This is one of the state agencies' biggest challenges.

In summary, then, state education departments should be doing those things which will reflect the growth of a nationwide concern for the quality of education, which will prepare them to deal with the critical issues of our day, and which will make them strong enough to carry out their central role with vigor and efficiency in the three-way partnership in American education.⁴

The two major developments, an increased public commitment to education and the infusion of federal funds for strengthening state education agencies, as cited by the Commissioner, have, as he predicted, resulted in an expanded role for the Nebraska State Department of Education. Chart I is a copy of the organization chart of the Nebraska State Department of Education as it appeared in the 1963-1964 Annual Report to the Governor of the State of Nebraska. Chart II is the organization chart of the Department as it appears today.

A comparison of the two charts shows that the Department is an expanded one, particularly in the area of instructional services. Those activities which have received the most expansion and attention in the "new role" are those activities of a consultative nature rather than activities in the area of regulation. Some specific services that have been added are: (1) educational research; (2) numerous subject matter consultants; (3) editorial and graphic arts services; (4) consultants in general administration, elementary and secondary education, (5) a vocational needs analyst; and, (6) the administration of the Title programs created by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

Local school district officials, citizens, educational service unit officials, and regional educational agencies are showing an increasing concern at the present time for the improvement of instruction and for undertaking long-range educational planning. As they explore ways to make improvements for the present and for the future, their

CHART I

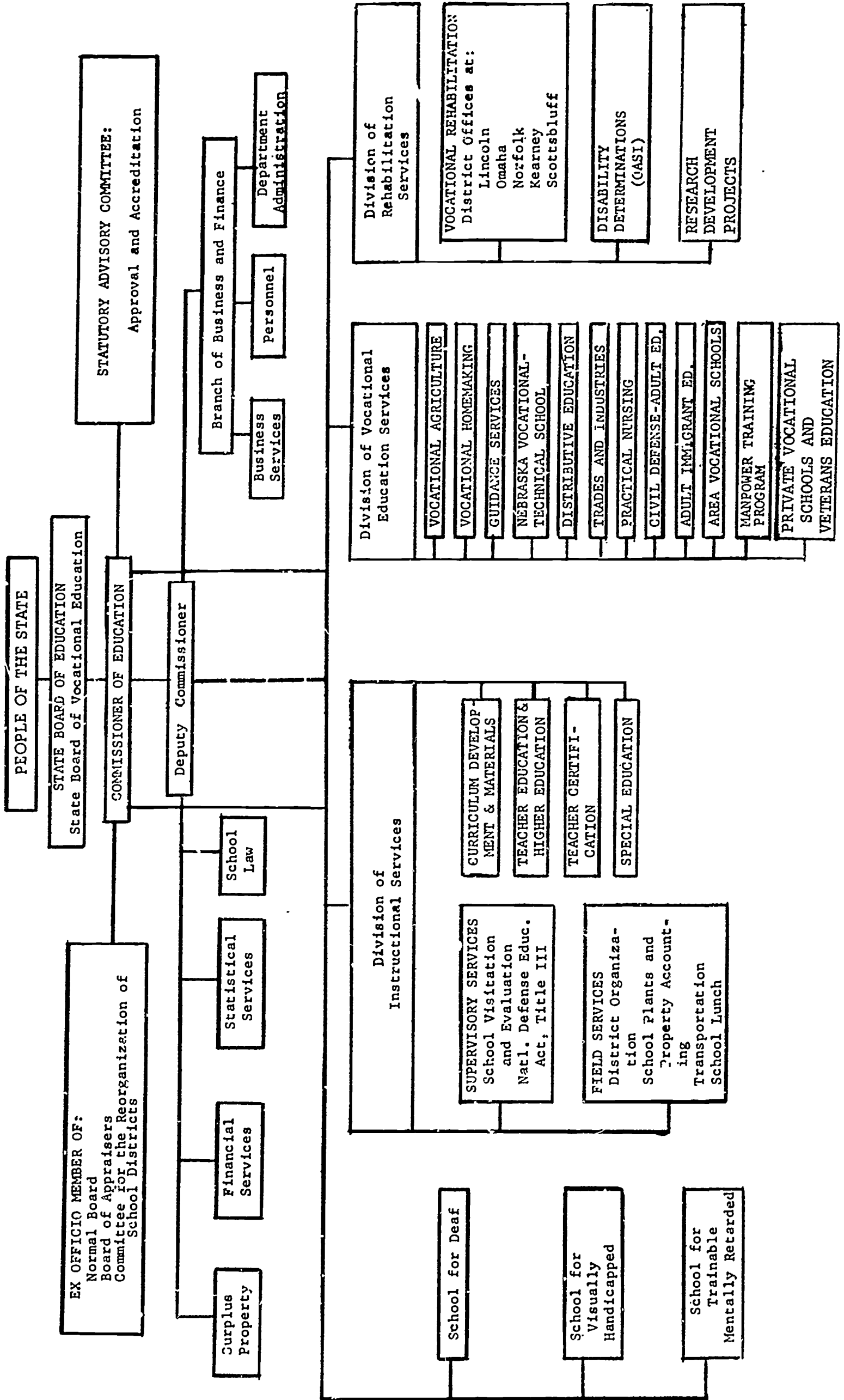
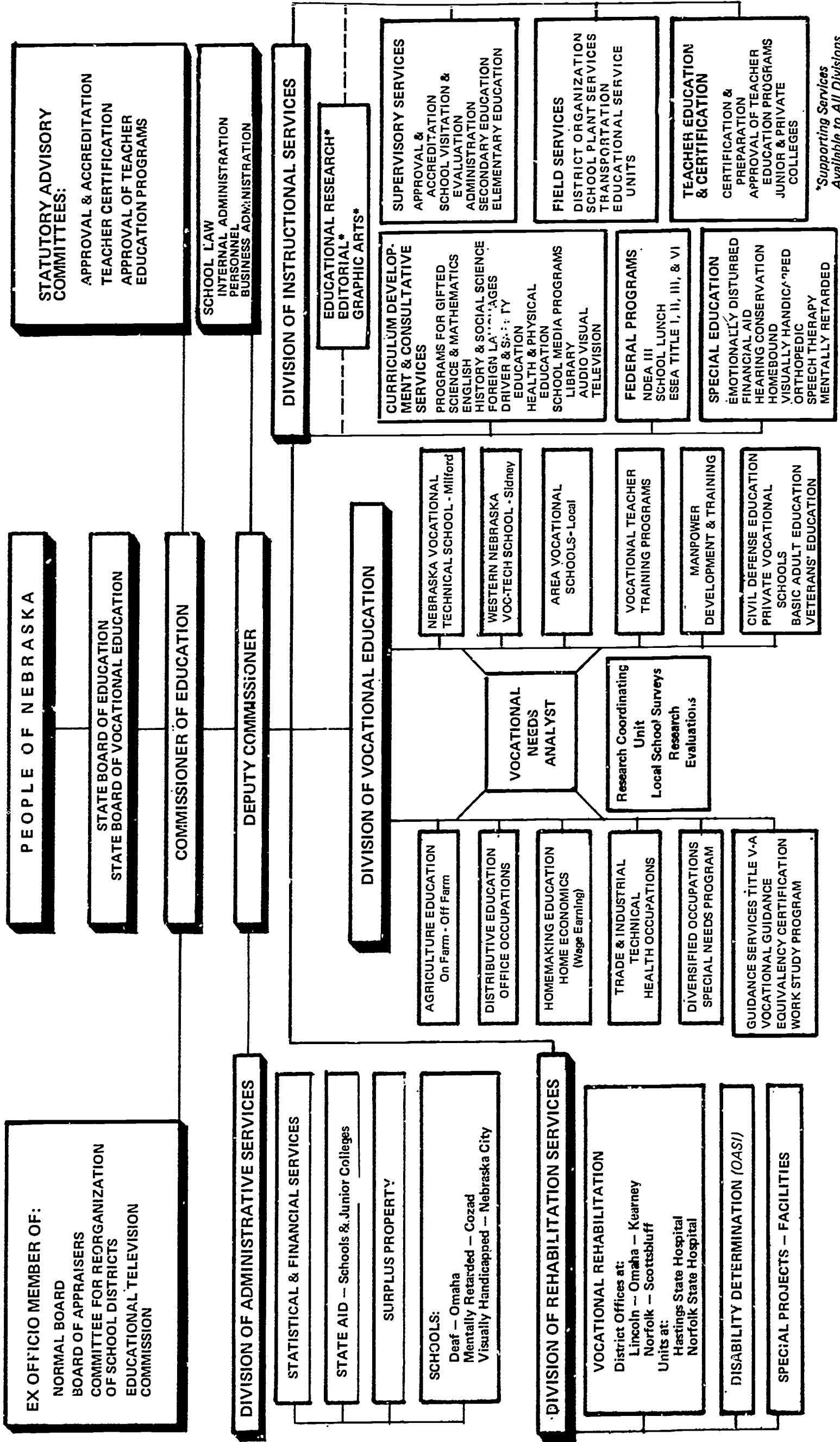


CHART II



*Supporting Services Available to All Divisions

requests for service, from the State Department consultants and from college and university consultants increase. It appears that the future role of the Nebraska State Department of Education and other state education agencies will continue to be one focused more and more upon service.

The State Department of Education will, of course, continue to perform those regulatory functions assigned it by the Legislature; but as the local school district structure and the intermediate unit structure become more adequate, the need for some of the regulatory functions, especially those of an inspection nature which now utilize a great deal of the material and human resources of the Department, will be greatly reduced.

CHAPTER III

NATIONAL TRENDS IN SCHOOL DISTRICT REORGANIZATION

Nationally, the movement toward school district reorganization began in 1945 to make significant changes in the local school district structure. Since that time sweeping organizational changes have been made, reducing the number of districts from approximately 100,000 in 1945 to 23,461 as of October 1966.

Dr. Charles Fitzwater stated in his article, "Patterns and Trends in State School System Development," that one of the more significant trends taking place in local school district organization is the increasing concentration of the nation's public school enrollment in fewer local school districts.¹ Table XVIII shows the distribution of the number and enrollment of school districts by size categories for the fall of 1964 (the latest figures available).

TABLE XVIII

**DISTRIBUTION OF LOCAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND
ENROLLMENTS BY ENROLLMENT SIZE OF SYSTEM,
FOR THE UNITED STATES, FALL 1964¹**

<i>Enrollment Size</i>	<i>Number of Systems</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Enrollment</i>	<i>Percent</i>
25,000 or more	146	.6%	11,044,000	27.5%
12,000-24,999	307	1.2	4,995,400	12.4
6,000-11,999	778	3.0	6,320,700	15.7
3,000-5,999	1,608	6.2	6,631,200	16.5
1,200-2,999	3,562	13.7	6,647,700	16.6
600-1,199	3,187	12.3	2,584,900	6.4
300-599	2,641	10.1	1,057,240	2.6
Operating systems with 300 or more pupils	12,229	47.1%	39,280,940	97.7%
Operating systems with less than 300 pupils	13,762	52.9%	936,275	2.3%
Total operating systems	25,991	100.0%	40,217,215	100.0%

It can be noted that in 1964, 6 percent of the school districts enrolled 27.5 percent of the nation's public school youth. It can also be noted that the three largest size categories (those enrolling more than 6,000) enrolled 55.6 percent of the nation's public school youth.

Table XIX shows the distribution of the districts by enrollment sizes in 1957 and again in 1965. The national trends of urbanization and school district reorganization can be noted from examination of this table.

Since 1945, thirty-eight states have reduced the number of school districts, while six states (Alabama, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Rhode Island, and Virginia) actually increased the number of districts. Six others (Florida, Hawaii, Louisiana, Maryland, Utah, and West Virginia) have neither reduced nor increased the number.²

In spite of the reduction in the number of school districts and the accomplishments achieved in school district reorganization, the fact remains that approximately twenty states are presently engaged in one way or another in school district reorganization.

In his article on patterns and trends, Dr. Fitzwater concluded that in spite of the overall reduction in the number of districts across the nation, there were still far too many. He stated that in at least 50 percent of the states, more than one-half of the districts still enroll fewer than 1,200 pupils. Only three states (Nevada, Ohio, and Pennsylvania) which have had active reorganization programs since 1945, have been able to reduce the proportion of school districts, having under 1,200 enrollment, to less than half the total number.

TABLE XIX
DISTRIBUTION OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS BY
ENROLLMENT SIZE
1957 and 1965²

<i>Enrollment Size (Number of Pupils)</i>	<i>Number of School Districts</i>		<i>Change</i>	
	<i>1957</i>	<i>1965</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Percent</i>
25,000 or more	107	157	50	46.7%
12,000 to 24,999	176	324	148	84.1
6,000 to 11,999	549	805	256	46.6
3,000 to 5,999	1,178	1,649	471	40.0
1,200 to 2,999	2,859	3,530	671	23.5
600 to 1,199	3,221	3,121	-100	- 3.1
300 to 599	4,013	3,260	-753	-18.8
1 to 299	32,097	11,690	-20,400	-63.6
All districts	44,200	24,536	-19,664	-44.5%

Dr. Fitzwater found in his analysis of national reorganization that there were, in 1964, only seven states in which all the school districts were unified and that seventeen states had completed the unification process in fewer than half of the state's total districts.

Many of the reorganized districts established since World War II, Dr. Fitzwater noted, have been too small; they represent little more than a step in the right direction. For example, a 1953 study showed that 552 reorganized districts in eight states had a median pupil enrollment of only 626, and 75 percent of these same districts had enrollments under 1,037. *"Many of these reorganizations,"* said Dr. Fitzwater, *"involved mergers of open country elementary districts with the small hamlet or village district to which they had been sending their high school pupils on a tuition basis. Such reorganization left untouched the problem of the small high school. . ."*³

Dr. Fitzwater listed eleven national trends in reorganization, as follows:

1. Continued progress in eliminating nonoperating districts.
2. The requirement in an increasing number of states that all reorganized districts be unified, or organized to operate both elementary and high schools.
3. A related trend has been the requirement by a growing number of states that all territory of the state be in a district maintaining a high school.
4. The inclusion of more than one small high school district in a reorganized district.
5. The merging of previously established small reorganized units into enlarged reorganized units; in other words, reorganizing the reorganizations.
6. The merger of small or medium-sized city districts with the open country districts surrounding them.
7. Merging all or nearly all of the districts within a county into a single administrative unit.
8. The formation of large suburban districts adjoining major cities.
9. The merger of independent city districts and adjoining county school districts constitutes a developing trend in the Southeast.
10. In county unit school districts, especially in the Southeast, the consolidation of small high schools has been a growing trend, particularly since the mid-1950's

11. The formation of separately organized regional high school districts embracing the territory of several town (township) school districts has been a developing trend in some of the New England states. There also appears to be a slightly developing trend to convert separately organized regional high school districts into K-12 units by merging them with their underlying elementary districts.⁴

Among the fifty states, three different structural patterns have emerged. Hawaii represents one pattern where the total educational structure is centralized into one agency, the state education agency, which is responsible for direct administration and operation of all the public schools in the state. The second pattern is a two-level structure consisting of the state education agency and the local school districts. There are presently seventeen states with this type of structure. Thirteen of the states are in Southeastern United States and four states (Idaho, Nevada, Utah and New Mexico) in Western United States. The third pattern is a three-level structure consisting of the state education agency, the intermediate unit, and the local school district. This type of structure is presently found in thirty-two states.⁵

Of the two most prevalent types of organizational structure, the two-level and three-level, the former is the more economical and efficient to operate, as it is designed to provide a complete program of education, including post high school and continuing adult education opportunities. Its major limitation is its size, which requires a large pupil base for breadth of program and economy of operation. Although figures vary in support of an "acceptable" administrative unit of this type, it appears that the most current studies would indicate a need for a pupil enrollment of around 20,000 to make most programs and services available.

The three-level structure seems to be gaining acceptance. The same general objectives are present with this structure, but the local administrative districts would be designed to provide selected programs and services, with the responsibility for those programs and services requiring very large enrollment bases being delegated to the intermediate units.

A review of the studies on enrollment size for an adequate school district structure does not provide an agreed-upon answer; rather it is suggestive of a number of sizes.

William Inman of the United States Office of Education has reviewed the educational organization literature on size and school district organization. In his report he divided the sizes recommended into two groups; those recommended by prominent researchers and writers in the area of school district reorganization, and those recommended by various states. Tables XX and XXI summarize these size recommendations. Mr. Inman noted in his report that the recommendations represented a wide variance, and the size recommended appeared to be predicated upon whether the administrative unit was completely autonomous and directly responsible to the state agency, or whether it was a part of an intermediate unit for some service aspects of the educational program. He pointed out that one illustration of this was a 1965 study conducted in Georgia. This

TABLE XX

ADMINISTRATIVE DISTRICT SIZES RECOMMENDED
BY WRITERS IN THE FIELD³

<i>Authority</i>	<i>Size Recommendation</i>
Harlan Beem	11,000 pupils for complete program
Virgil Blanke	10,000–15,000 pupils unless intermediate services are available
Roald Campbell	2,000 minimum
C. C. Carpenter	1,250 minimum
Howard Dawson	9,800–12,000
C. O. Fitzwater	5,000 pupils for reasonable cost program
Calvin Grieder	Range of 2,000–3,000 pupils
William P. McLure	5,000–6,000 pupils
Edgar L. Morphet	1,200–1,500 minimum 4,000–5,000 better 10,000–common good minimum

study, *Organization of School Systems in Georgia*, recommended a minimum size of 10,000 pupils and suggested that 15,000 to 20,000 was a better figure. The study negated an intermediate unit for some service programs.⁶

Mr. Inman also listed size recommendations for the secondary attendance units from the writers in the field of secondary education and from state recommendations. Tables XXII and XXIII report these size recommendations.

Tables XXIV and XXV report elementary attendance unit size recommendations as Mr. Inman reported them.

The intermediate unit concept appears to be gaining acceptance in many parts of the country. It is known by various names, such as the Intermediate Unit, Board of Cooperative Services, Educational Service Agency, Area Educational District, Regional Educational Service Agency and Educational Service Unit. In some states these are on a county basis, but there has been a very definite trend the past few years to make them multi-county. Some provide services only. Others provide both services and administrating of such programs as vocational education and special education.

TABLE XXI

ADMINISTRATIVE DISTRICT SIZE RECOMMENDED
BY OTHER STATES⁴

<i>State</i>	<i>Size Recommendation</i>
California	2,000 minimum 10,000 pupils recommended
Connecticut	Minimum of 5,000 ADM in regional school districts
Georgia	10,000 pupils minimum 15,000–20,000 pupils is better
Idaho (Superintendent's Association)	10,000–15,000 optimum 1,600 minimum 25,000–30,000 maximum
Indiana	1,000
Kansas	1,200
Maine	1,200
Michigan	2,000
New York	No specific size of district, but attendance units suggested indicated about a 2,000 pupil district size.
Pennsylvania	1,600 pupils mandated 4,000 pupils recommended
Vermont	2,000 to 6,000
Washington	1,000

TABLE XXII

HIGH SCHOOL SIZE RECOMMENDATIONS
FROM WRITERS IN THE FIELD⁵

<i>Source</i>	<i>Size Recommendation</i>		
Harl R. Douglass	500–750 pupils		
Grieder and Rosenstengel	Min.	Opt.	Max.
7–12	350	775	1,150
10–12	350	950	1,525
Clifford Smith	800–1,200 pupils		
S. S. Mayo	1,500–2,000		
A. Hugh Livingston	2,000		
James B. Conant	At least 100 pupils in the graduating class		
Frances G. Cornell	About 1,500 pupils		
Benjamin Willis	2,000–2,200 pupils		
Thomas Woods	1,200–1,599 pupils		
William Woodham	700 pupils		
Lloyd Andrews	1,200–1,599 pupils		
M. L. Cushman	Minimum of 75 in each grade		
David Shapiro	1,200–1,599 pupils		
Stuart Gray	400–999 pupils		

The trend toward the multi-county intermediate unit has come about primarily because many counties do not provide a sufficient pupil population to make it feasible to provide some programs and services with efficiency or economy. This has been particularly true with the recent emphasis in education upon the use of the computer, a greater emphasis upon research and development, public demand for complete programs in special education to serve all the mentally, physically, and emotionally handicapped, and an increased emphasis upon providing for vocational and technical education.

Fewer states have made recommendations on size for the intermediate unit than for the administrative unit; however, pupil numbers continue to receive primary consider-

ation whenever criteria for the intermediate unit is discussed in the literature. Mr. Inman found a broad range of recommended pupil enrollments in his review of the literature on size and school district organization for the intermediate unit.

The state size recommendations ranged from 5,000 in Michigan to 125,000 in New York. The following recommendations have been made in seven states: (1) Michigan, 5,000 as a minimum, established in 1962; (2) Nebraska, 10,000, established in 1965; (3) New York, 125,000, established in 1962; (4) Pennsylvania, 100,000, established in 1965; (5) Washington, 20,000, established in 1965; (6) Wisconsin, 25,000, established in 1965; (7) Ohio, 35,000, established in 1966.⁷

Mr. Inman had the following to say with regard to organizing to provide vocational education:

If educational needs are to be met within a state, attention must be given to programs of vocational education at the secondary level. As pointed out earlier, small high school enrollments can probably not sustain a vocational education program of satisfactory breadth of offerings. Many school districts are too small to offer such programs.

TABLE XXIII

HIGH SCHOOL SIZE RECOMMENDATIONS IN OTHER STATES⁶

<i>State</i>	<i>Recommended Size</i>
Connecticut	500 pupil minimum
Florida	100 per grade minimum 1,500--1,800 pupil maximum
Georgia	Minimum 500 Maximum 1,500
Kentucky	100 in graduating class and 500 for minimum
Mississippi	700 pupils, 1,000--1,200 is better
New Hampshire	500 pupils
New Jersey	700 pupils maximum
New York	500 pupils 1,400 for vocational education
South Carolina	250 pupil minimum
Vermont	600 to 2,000 pupils
Washington	Recommended 500 pupil maximum
West Virginia	100 pupils in the graduating class

TABLE XXIV

ELEMENTARY ATTENDANCE UNIT SIZE RECOMMENDATIONS
FROM WRITERS IN THE FIELD⁷

<i>Source</i>	<i>Recommended Size</i>
John Herrick, et. al.	Minimum – 1 section per grade Optimum – 2 sections per grade Maximum – 3 sections per grade
Ralph Sollars	Range 300 to 499 pupils
David Basher	2 sections per grade
M. L. Cushman	Minimum of 175 pupils
Grieder and Rosenstengel	Minimum – 175 pupils Optimum – 525 pupils Maximum – 750 pupils
Howard Dawson	Minimum 240–280 pupils
Alves, Anderson and Fowlkes	Minimum – 1 section per grade
C. C. Carpenter	Minimum – 175, 1–6
Clement W. Wood	Minimum – 175, 1–6 Optimum – 525, 1–6
Emmitt Bohne	Optimum – 420 pupils, K–6

The literature does not contain numerous specific size recommendations on this aspect of the program. However, it is the experience of those individuals who have worked in the area of vocational education that a satisfactory program does require a rather large pupil enrollment as well as adequate financial resources to support such a program. Illustrations of this, from personnel in the Rockland County, New York BOCES Unit, and the Division of Vocational Education in the Ohio Department of Education are of some help here. The former have indicated a need for a total enrollment of 75,000 pupils from which to draw potential vocational education students for a broad program. In Ohio, the Division of Vocational Education has stated that approximately 42,000 pupils are needed as a base from which to secure sufficient students to offer and maintain a 12 unit vocational education program.

Only the largest school districts have such numbers of pupils. These exist in reasonably heavily populated areas. Yet, a student in sparsely populated areas may also have a need for, and can benefit both himself and his society by participating in a vocational education program.

In many parts of the country, it is geographically impossible to arrange school district lines to include such pupil numbers. It would probably even be undesirable to do so. Therefore, alternatives must be considered. A number of states are facing up to the problem by forming vocational school districts or area schools or districts where

vocational education programs can be made available to high school students. This is a very important part of the total school district organization problem and must receive the careful attention of those who plan a statewide program.⁸

In summary it can be said that the reorganization movement which has been much in evidence throughout the nation since 1945 has been an active one, and there is no evidence that it will slacken. The nation is in an era of rapid change, an era which is rapidly expanding educational needs – needs which in turn give rise to this widespread movement.

TABLE XXV

ELEMENTARY ATTENDANCE UNIT SIZE RECOMMENDATIONS
FROM OTHER STATES⁸

<i>State</i>	<i>Recommended Size</i>
California	One teacher per grade – minimum
Colorado	One teacher per grade – minimum
Connecticut	175 pupils – minimum
Florida	180 pupils – minimum
Georgia	One teacher per grade – minimum
Illinois	One teacher per grade – minimum
Iowa	One teacher per grade – minimum
Minnesota	One teacher per grade – minimum
Mississippi	One teacher per grade – minimum
Missouri	One teacher per grade – minimum
New Hampshire	One teacher per grade – minimum
New York	20–30 pupils for each grade – minimum
Pennsylvania	One teacher per grade – minimum
Virginia	600 pupils desirable
Washington	75 pupils per grade – multiple sections
West Virginia	175 pupils K–6; 225 pupils K–8
Wisconsin	One teacher per grade

CHAPTER IV

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS – GUIDES FOR SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION

Most everyone, it seems, believes in education these days. If they have but little of it themselves, they want more of it for their children. If they have a college education, they want at least a college education for their children. It is generally accepted that an "educated person" has opportunities for attaining the "good things" in life to a much greater degree than do those people who, for various reasons, lack formal educational training. Many adults today have not had the opportunity to acquire knowledge, understandings, and skills essential for providing those elements of everyday living which make possible the enjoyment of what, to them, constitutes the "good life." But they do want this kind of life for their children, and they will support the schools which they believe will make it possible for their boys and girls.

But the world about us is not the same that it was when we, the parents and the grandparents, were in school. In fact, the entire process of education has changed within the past quarter of a century. Twenty-five years ago, a major emphasis in the schools throughout the country centered on teaching for the present, the status quo. Today, increasing stress is being placed upon preparing the student to find his own individual and group security within an escalating process of change.

Scientific discoveries and technological developments are making our childhood days unbelievably archaic and our tomorrows a realistic challenge to the fantasies of the most incitive mind. The world and our everyday life are changing so rapidly that many of the concepts, insights, and understandings that give meaning and direction to today's activities will be outmoded in the next generation. The preparation and the conditioning of the student for change is a primary challenge for education today. Perhaps it is the one greatest service that education can render youth in our time. Only as we find a personal and a social sense of security within the process of change, will we and those who follow us, be prepared to live most effectively in and contribute efficaciously to the new world of tomorrow.

The reality of change is in evidence all around us. The implementation of this reality into the educational systems of our state and nation is less in evidence. But the process for this implementation has been established and is growing, the direction is becoming more clear. That direction is pointing toward adequate school district reorganization. The educational needs of children and youth are both the motive and the guide for this change in school district structure.

At one time the child learned a craft at his father's bench. This is still true in many of

the developing countries of the world; but it is not true in a highly scientific and technologically advanced society. The manner in which the educational structure has been established in our country over the years was determined by the kinds of needs to be met, or the purposes and objectives established for the educational system.

Early in our history there was a felt need to possess the skills of reading and writing, and schools were established for this purpose. Nearly 150 years ago the need was felt for a free, public high school to provide training beyond the elementary level. With the turn of the century and following World War I, the need was present for training in vocational education subjects, particularly agriculture and home economics. Later, greatly expanded needs for a trained manpower supply gave impetus to the establishment of vocational schools available to all boys and girls. The advent of Sputnik aroused the nation to the needs to be met in science, mathematics, and foreign languages. In every instance, the needs of individuals, the needs of business and industry, the needs of the state and federal government for a highly trained, intelligent and skilled manpower supply, gave direction for the kinds of educational programs to be established.

Just as the defining of the needs to be met gave direction to the kinds of programs to be provided by the public schools of the states and nation, so have the educational programs given direction to the requirements essential for supporting them and making them possible. These requirements, whether they were staff personnel, classrooms, facilities, equipment, transportation, or business management, had value only to the degree that they provided the quantity of the programs needed at the desired level of quality for the number of students to be served. When the needs changed and as programs became obsolete with the scientific and technological developments of the times, so was there a corresponding change in the supporting services or requirements.

In a very similar manner, school district organization evolved as a structure to facilitate the educational process. Its primary purpose was to provide the programs and services to meet the needs considered to be important by the people of the state and of the local school district. When the needs were seemingly best served by a one-room, eight-grade school, this became the administrative structure and attendance unit to meet those needs. As needs changed and a secondary education became an essential, an administrative structure was developed for countless cities and villages throughout the land which provided a high school education for all boys and girls. The centralization of school districts became a necessity as more and more children enrolled in the schools, as job opportunities expanded and became more technical, as the raw labor force required more knowledge, more understanding and more skills, and as the expanding programs to meet these expanding needs became more costly.

The above is descriptive of the developmental process throughout the history of our country. Educational needs to be met determine the programs to be provided and the services required to support these programs. Needs have served as guides for the establishment of school districts which make the programs and services possible at a high level of quality, or excellence, for all boys and girls, with efficiency in

organization and economy in operation. And, as needs change in the future, so will it be necessary to reexamine the structure to meet these needs. School district organization is the structure for providing the programs and services to meet defined and accepted educational needs at the desired level of quality, with efficiency in the utilization of human and material resources, and with the economical expenditure of the taxpayer's dollar.

Who defines needs? This is a good question and we feel it can be answered here. When the son learned the craft at his father's bench, the father defined the needs to be met, the program of training to be followed, and provided the tools and the facilities required for the learning process. As science and technology advanced, the educational process became more complex. The father no longer worked at his own bench, but on an assembly line or in a highly mechanized plant with others who possessed equal or equivalent ability and skill. In this age of specialization there was no place for the son by his father's side, except in very particular situations. The defining of and providing for educational needs to be met was passed along to others, although the father continued to have an interest in giving direction to the educational opportunities that were to be provided for his son or daughter.

Who, then, defines the educational needs to be met today? Is it the family? Is it the community? Is it the state? Is it the nation? It is suggested that it isn't any one of these alone; it is all of them together. Educational needs today are really being defined at three governmental levels, and by three echelons of our society. These may be identified briefly as follows:

1. The federal government, in the interest of national defense and the general welfare.
2. The state government, with education as a primary function and responsibility of the state.
3. The local school district, with the identification of local needs indigenous to that community or area.
4. The culture and society of which we are a part, for an understanding of the ideals of that society, and for an appreciative understanding of and contribution to the heritage of all of its members.
5. The individual, for education must be meaningful to the student.
6. Business and industry, for the welfare and economy of our society is dependent on the skills, attitudes, habits and value system held by labor and by management.

The educational system of today must meet the needs as defined by all six of the above categories. Furthermore, each one of the above-named levels of government and of society has an obligation to understand and to assist in meeting the needs as defined by each one of the others.

In this era of specialization, in a period of complex social and economic problems, in a time of national and international tensions, in this age of both hot and cold wars, we, the people, must learn to accept our dependence on one another. Of singular importance here is our knowledge and acceptance of educational needs to be met as an interdependent people. A local community cannot deny the educational needs which must be met for national security; neither can it deny the educational problems to be resolved for the general welfare of any segment of our society. At the same time, the federal government must understand and relate to the educational needs as defined at the local level. The age of specialization, the complexity of our scientific and technological developments, the pressures of confinement in an urbanized society, the emerging characteristics of a people in a process of change from one way of life to another, make of us a totally interdependent people. This, in itself, is the challenge to education — the purpose incumbent upon it to satisfy educational needs for each segment of an interdependent society.

As we view education from a national perspective, we are impressed with the fact that it has suddenly achieved a preeminent place in the thinking and action of our nation's leaders. Although always interested in education, the federal government has only recently accepted education as an instrument to help eradicate poverty, to build defense, to lower unemployment, to promote economic growth, to improve international relations, and to advance technology.

Educational needs from the national perspective are to be identified in the programs for which there has been a major flow of federal money. This flow took on major significance with the shock of Sputnik I in 1958. The immediate passage of the National Defense Education Act brought into sharp focus a national concept of educational urgencies to be met through those areas of the curriculum considered to be vital to national defense — science, mathematics, foreign languages, and counseling.

A new emphasis was to be noted in the passage of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1963, the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965, and the Vocational Education Acts of 1963 and 1965. After three years of operation, the Head Start program provides for the parents of enrolled children, the payment of dental and medical examinations, and the preschool development of the economically deprived child. The goals of the 1965 ESEA called for (1) the preparing of economically deprived children to take their place in the mainstream of American life; (2) improvement of school libraries; (3) the encouragement of innovation and pilot educational programs; (4) the establishment of regional laboratories; (5) the strengthening of state departments of education; and (6) special education.

Vocational education has been of major concern to the federal government since the passage of the 1867 Act which brought the state agricultural and mechanical colleges into existence. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 brought the federal government into a supporting position for vocational training at the secondary level. This interest was continued and expanded until 1963 when the report of the President's Committee resulted in greatly increased funds for greatly expanded vocational education programs and facilities.

Educational needs from a national perspective have the following significant facets:

1. The training of the youth of the country for national defense. This includes programs in science, mathematics, foreign language, vocational education, and special education.
2. The equalization of educational opportunity for the economically and culturally deprived in the interests of the general welfare. This includes the Head Start, the Job Corps, and related programs.
3. The improvement of the quality of education for all through research and development, educational innovation, and program development.
4. Meeting the emerging needs for a higher quality of education, including improved education for the culturally disadvantaged; the mentally, physically, and emotionally handicapped; the gifted; preschool and primary education; improvements in general education; greatly strengthened vocational education; and improved quality of community colleges.
5. Better research and development efforts to improve quality in education.

In considering educational needs from a state perspective, we must first remind ourselves that education is a function of the state. The state, therefore, has a primary responsibility for identifying the needs to be met through the educational process, or to provide for the manner in which these needs shall be identified. It has furthermore the duty of leadership in recommending and helping to develop such programs of education as will best satisfy the needs that are identified. The state, in the fulfillment of its constitutional obligation for education, cannot sidestep the responsibility for identifying needs by passing it along to be done solely by the local school district. Neither can it in fairness to all citizens, determine these needs independently at the state level, or permit them to be wholly directed and controlled from the federal level. Overemphasis in need and program determination by anyone — national, state, local — will not be in the best interests of the people, the state, the nation, and most of all for the boys and girls enrolled in the public schools.

State and local educational leaders must recognize that there are educational needs to be identified at the federal level, and these must be accepted and supported at the state and local government levels. The survival of the American nation within a world in conflict, the perpetuation and improvement of the American way of life, the future of our concept of democracy as a form of government among the governments of the world — these are matters of national concern and as such, place responsibilities on all people at all levels — the federal, the state, and the local. The national needs must be recognized and dealt with at each echelon of the state's educational system.

The state is dependent upon an enlightened citizenry, one that is capable of exercising judgment and wisdom with respect to the rights and duties of citizenship. The economic welfare of the state is strong to the extent that local business, industry and the economic status of its communities are strong. The state must guarantee to each and every individual the opportunity to become knowledgeable, to possess the skills, to

develop those personal characteristics which will enable him to become a contributing and productive member of his community, of the state, and of the nation. Thereby the state fulfills its leadership function for education.

The citizens of a local administrative school district have a responsibility to understand, to analyze, and to be actively concerned with the needs for all boys and girls which have been identified at the national and state levels. But, in addition to these, there exist needs and problems which are peculiar to each and every community. A local industry may have job-entry requirements that exist only within that part of the state. It may be the needs of an economically deprived or culturally limited area for which special needs must be identified and programs developed to erase the stains of blight on a potentially productive and economically independent citizenry. Wherever such variations in needs may be within a state, they must be identified, and the needs so identified should be accepted and supported at the state level for implementation by the local administrative district.

The greatness of any culture or of any people emerges from the value system, the ways of life, and the meaning of life as experienced by those who contributed to their development. The heritage of one generation is built upon, added to, and hopefully improved for the next generation. With the new meanings and values which emerge with each generation, the foundation is thereby built upon by our sons and daughters. Each generation of parents wants its children to have this appreciative understanding of the heritage which was theirs, and which they want to pass on to those who follow. This takes the best from the past; the individual adds to it the insights, understandings and appreciations for the present, and seeks new goals, new directions, and new meanings for today's society. It is a process through which each person must go.

The economy, the welfare, and the security of the nation are dependent upon the strength and the qualifications of the labor and managerial force. This includes those at the professional and engineering levels, paraprofessional personnel in support to the engineers, qualified workers in the skilled and semi-skilled occupations, unskilled laborers, and a great variety of personnel in all of the service occupations.

The security of the nation is dependent upon the ability, the quality and the cooperative working relationships within and between all of these various classifications. The strength of our economy, both within the nation and among the nations of the world, is likewise directly related to and dependent upon an adequate supply of qualified manpower.

The basic background and general preparation of this manpower is a responsibility of public education. The needs are quite implicit for a literate populace, possessing salable skills, habits, attitudes, and personal characteristics for utilization in constructive and productive ways. These kinds of needs to be met by the public schools have repeatedly been emphasized by state and national organizations of labor, business and industry.

The advancement of scientific knowledge and technological know-how has

revolutionized the training requirements for job entry and for job security. This is indicated when one company reports (and others could do the same) that 67 percent of their product sales have been on the market less than five years, and that 42 percent have been on the market two years or less.¹ Job retraining is an essential in today's mechanized and computerized economy.

One group of industrial representatives defined with the writer the following general needs to be met at the elementary and secondary school levels in preparation for entry into the labor force:²

1. More depth in the three R's.
2. The development of an attitude for excellence (a job performed to the best of the student's ability)
3. Training and experience in the use of knowledge and information.
4. Development of the ability to think through problem situations, including the utilization and adaptation of acquired knowledge and information.
5. Development of the basic requirements for productive work: habits, attitudes, punctuality, finishing a task undertaken, working up to his capacity.
6. Development of a spirit of self-confidence, and a faith and belief in themselves as a person, and as a person in working with others.
7. Development of a respect for the rights and privileges of others.
8. The development and implementation of a plan whereby educators listen to what business, industry and labor identify as being important, and what they indicate the needs to be.

It was stressed by these representatives of business and industry that habits and attitudes generated and developed in the public schools carry over into the adult work life. Teachers and administrators prepare the students for productivity or non-productivity in business and industry by the standards which they help them to establish as prospective workers while they are students in schools.

Education must have merit in terms of the values, insights, desires and needs of each individual student. Some pupils will accept and adopt educational purposes and objectives as defined and recommended by their parents, their teachers, and by society. Some will reject adult-conceived needs, and the educational opportunities tend to become meaningless to the degree that adult-determined educational programs differ from the student's own personal concept of values and personal "needs to be met."

Some students will accept long-term needs to be met, while others are significantly impressed with the urgency of the present. In particular circumstances these needs for some students are basically a few dollars in the pocket and a 1960 car. Although these needs are essential to the satisfying of other needs, drives and purposes, they do tend

to become all-impelling for many boys and girls. In some homes, the parents will provide these self-determined "basic essentials," while others have little or no hope of such attainment, except as they may employ a means to attain them which is not acceptable to society.

This is not to imply that it is the responsibility of the public schools to provide the dollars and the car. It does mean that parents, educators, and the general public must accept the fact that all youth, regardless of where they live and regardless of their socio-economic status, have needs to be met which are important to them, and which tend to motivate and to direct their activities and their lives. In some communities it may be desirable to develop programs or opportunities wherein some of these basic drives can be met, programs not presently conceived as being within the framework of public education. However, if such needs can be met through specially designed work programs, it is possible that a major contribution might be made for the personal self-adjustment of students and to the society of which they are a part. Certainly, this would be preferable to expending huge sums of money in welfare, in juvenile delinquency programs, and in crime prevention.

On the positive side, there are those students who have made a personal adjustment to their families, to their community, and to their educational opportunities. But even with this group, the educational program must be meaningful to them in order for them to reap the most desirable outcomes. This would be true for those who will terminate their formal education at the twelfth grade as well as for those who will continue through college; for those who will pursue training for a skilled vocation or for managerial occupation, or for one of the professions.

Also, there are those students who have special needs to be met. These include those with physical disabilities, emotional disturbances, the neurologically impaired, the slow learner, and others. Their needs are very real, both to them, to their parents, and to the citizens of the community. These kinds of needs must be recognized, identified, and appropriate programs initiated to fulfill these needs.

In summary, it may be said that educational needs to be met have value to the degree that they have significant and realistic meaning to the student. The needs as seen and interpreted by the student must become a part of the needs to be met by the public school system

The following ten clues for the identification of needs are worthy of consideration:

1. **The mobility of the population.** The people of America are quite mobile, even from the first years of settlement. We had the movement to the West, and now the movement to the cities. Families move, and youth move. It is accepted that from three to nine out of ten youth leave the area in which they grew up to seek job opportunities in urban areas, local or otherwise. This means that young people are in immediate competition for job placement with the graduates of high schools all over the nation. The breadth and quality of their educational opportunities will directly

affect their potential for immediate job placement, for the level and quality of the job opportunity, or for both. For adults, the mobility immediately brings into sharp focus the need for job training and/or job retraining.

2. **The process of urbanization.** The transition from a rural to an urban population has brought about many problems of adjustment and adaptation. The immigrants often are not prepared for compact living conditions, or for employment upon arrival in the city. Maladjustment, frustration, lack of opportunity for either social or economic independence become breeders of those ills which are increasingly undermining and plaguing our society in the core cities. The process of urbanization gives direction to a whole new set of needs to be met by the public schools of the nation.

3. **Cultural and economic deprivation.** Cultural and economic deprivation is not limited to the developing countries of the world. It exists within the most affluent nation of modern history. It is not limited to any one part of the nation, nor is it limited to urban or to rural sections. It is an inherent part of each and every community. The extent, the nature, and the degree of cultural and economic deprivation gives direction to many kinds of educational needs to be met.

4. **Scientific discoveries and technological development.** The affluence of our society, the advancement of our socio-economic structure, the leadership of our nation among nations — all are directly related to scientific exploration and technological development. The continuing advancement in science and technology is directly dependent upon the quality and excellence of the total educational endeavor.

5. **An age of specialization.** The era of science and technology has brought with it vocational specialization. Managerial and skilled levels have become so highly developed that there exist areas of specialization within highly specialized occupations. With the passing of the agricultural era, with the present highly developed industrial era, and with the developing electronic, computerized space age, the human resources era is about to emerge as the most dynamic and significant force within modern times. It is a product of highly developed and specialized training programs, research efforts and developmental activities at all levels of the intellectual, business and industrial world. The patterns of education to meet the needs of this explosion of knowledge and know-how must take cognizance of the age of specialization.

6. **Vocational education and the world of work.** Science, technology, and the age of specialization have united in providing countless new job opportunities, with new and significant needs to be fulfilled for a progressively complex and selective world of work. The security of the nation and the socio-economic welfare of the people is dependent upon education to meet the basic vocational training needs of all.

7. **Breadth of vocational opportunities.** The broadening of the world of work within the past half century has brought with it a demand for an almost limitless variety of skills, knowledges, and abilities on the part of the total labor force. The breadth of the demands created by emerging job opportunities places a significant challenge upon education.

8. **Interdependence.** The complexity of our economy and the high degree of specialization in the world of work have resulted in a highly interdependent citizenry. This interdependence has significant implications for all communities, the state, the nation, and the world. The needs to be met through education in this interdependent society are most vital for the development of respect for all peoples, and for cultivating the habits and attitudes essential for people of all races and creeds to work and live together as a team.

9. **The process of change.** The first eight clues to need identification highlight one underlying and fundamental characteristic inherent in each and all of them – the process of change. The status quo was yesterday; the process of change is today. It brings with it a mobile people seeking self-identification in a new and emerging urban environment, and seeking employment in a rapidly adjusting labor structure. A major need exists for the preparation of youth and adults to find their personal and social sense of security within the process of change itself.

10. **Value system.** Educational needs emerge in relation to the value system of individuals and of a people. School buildings and school programs are representative of the value system of the communities of which they are a part. Values for and concerning education give direction to decision-making about education in terms of programs, services, buildings, and tax support.

The needs identified are the directing forces for determining the kinds of programs and services to be provided by the public schools in the interests of the nation, the state, the local administrative district, society in general, business and industry, and for the individual student.

It has been written that three-fourths of the knowledge now available to man was not known at the close of World War II, and this tremendous accumulation is expected to double within the next decade. If the acquisition of actual data and specific knowledge were the primary objective of education, each student's storehouse of such knowledge and information would very largely be obsolete by the time he reached the age of thirty-five. What, then, is the purpose of education? What are the real and vital needs to be met? What are the implications for those who define needs and for the clues to identification of needs for public education to satisfy in an era of an escalating change?

Needs to be met by the public schools are becoming increasingly less concerned with specific bits of information. Instead there is more and more emphasis toward the development of an individual who can cope rationally, intelligently, and constructively with problems and issues, utilizing knowledge and information as background support for decision-making and directed action.

Needs, per se, are commonly expressed as educational purposes or objectives. They constitute goals to be achieved, with the term "goal" being used interchangeably with such words as objective, purpose, aim, or continuing purpose. For the purposes of this

study, goal may be looked upon as a long-term purpose, while objective refers to a target with certain limitations or more definable circumscriptions. For example, the goal may be vocational competence, while the objective in the teaching process is the acquisition by the student of the necessary skills that lead to vocational competence.

The assessment of circumstances, the identification of needs, and the continuing redefinition of goals for education have been a part of the whole process of socio-economic and cultural progress since the days of the Latin grammar school and the dame school in early colonial life. Countless authors, commissions, and associations have defined and redefined the purposes of education, each one of which is an expression of needs to be met by the public schools. The more serious efforts in this direction began with the report of the Committee of Ten in 1893, followed by the well-publicized seven cardinal principles proposed by the Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education in 1918. One of the more recent efforts appears in a publication by the American Association of School Administrators entitled, *Imperatives in Education*. Nine chapters were devoted to defining and interpreting the imperatives as:

1. To make urban life rewarding and satisfying.
2. To prepare people for the world of work.
3. To discover and nurture creative talent.
4. To strengthen the moral fabric of society.
5. To deal constructively with psychological tensions.
6. To keep democracy working.
7. To make intelligent use of natural resources.
8. To make the best use of leisure time.
9. To work with other peoples of the world for human betterment.

Another descriptive analysis of educational goals was reported by a subcommittee of the Governor's Committee on Public School Education in Texas. The persistent goals of education from the Latin grammar school in 1635 to the present time were identified and given expression in a statement of suggested goals for public education in Texas. These included the following:

1. Intellectual discipline.
2. Economic and vocational competence.
3. Citizenship and civic responsibility.
4. Competence in human and social relations.

5. Moral and ethical values.
6. Self-realization and mental and physical health.

The following interpretation of needs to be met by the public schools is suggested as a basis for further study and identification by those concerned with giving direction to educational planning, structure, and organization. They are illustrative of some of the needs which should give direction to the selection and development of the programs and services which must be provided by school district organization today and in the foreseeable future

NEEDS TO BE MET

1. The need to acquire knowledge and understandings
 - of themselves
 - of themselves in relation to others
 - of the socio-economic world about them
 - of our culture, our way of life
 - of our culture in relation to the way of life of many people and many cultures.

Related programs include, but are not limited to: literature, social studies, history, science, humanities, etc.
2. Need to develop skills
 - as a means of acquiring knowledge and understandings
 - as a means for economic survival
 - salable skills, intellectual or manual or both.

Related programs include, but are not limited to: reading, mathematics, science, vocational education, etc.
3. Need to develop a sense of values which become basic to individual and group beliefs; beliefs, based upon values, which give meaning and direction to:
 - a. Knowledge to be acquired
 - b. Skills to be developed
 - c. The application and utilization of knowledge and skills that contribute to making life meaningful, constructive and productive within our culture and value system.
4. Need to acquire and/or to develop the knowledge, understandings, beliefs and values essential to learning how to live, to work and to play with others
 - first with himself, then with his parents, his playmates, and his neighbors; with people in his community, in the state, in the nation; and, with all peoples of the world.
5. Need to develop the ability to theorize and to conceptualize; and, to constructively relate such conceptualization to reality. Emphasis is placed on:

- a. Skill acquisition (reading, mathematics, vocational education, etc.);
- b. Subject matter (literature, social studies, etc.);
- c. Conceptual and process-oriented studies (data collecting, estimating, problem-solving); and
- d. The interrelating and coordination of each of the above for meaningful educational experiences related to life experiences of the individual.

It must be emphasized that the above does not purport to continue the historical separateness of specific content areas. It is used in this context only for illustrative purposes within a generally understood and accepted organizational framework. New and significant research data are pointing toward the interrelated aspects of knowledge as opposed to fragmentation through segmentation.

6. The need to correct and to improve physical and mental defects and/or limitations.
7. The need to develop the potentials of each and every pupil to the highest level of performance possible for that individual pupil.

It must be emphasized again that the only purpose and function of structure in education, or school district organization, is that of providing programs and services essential for the meeting of the identified educational needs for all people at an acceptable level of quality or excellence, with efficiency in organization and economy of operation. Needs to be met give direction to programs, programs require certain kinds of services to support them, and it is the responsibility of the structural organization to provide both to fulfill the need requirements. As needs change, so do programs and services. As programs and services change in relation to the changing needs, so will the structural organization to provide them efficiently and economically. Needs to be met come first; school district organization is in a supporting position only.

CHAPTER V

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AND SERVICES

Educational programs and services must be provided for meeting identified needs. The translation of needs into programs is a continuous process, and one which, of necessity, involves many people.

The Great Plains School District Organization Project staff has placed a major emphasis upon identifying those programs and services that are essential to meeting the needs of all children and youth in the four states involved by the project, regardless of where they live. As was stated in the preceding chapter, all public school organization is related to the provision of programs and services. Organization is basic to planning for and providing programs and services. Organization does not by itself guarantee the provision of needed educational opportunities, but it does guarantee the possibility.

To make a determination with regard to those programs and services that are essential to meet the needs, the Great Plains staff solicited the assistance of leaders in the various subject-matter and service areas from the four states, and in some cases the assistance of nationally recognized experts outside the four-state area. This was done by extending an invitation to selected educational leaders and to several professional organizations to assist the project by identifying and spelling out in some detail, in the form of a position paper, the essentials in their area of expertise. Appendix A lists the programs and service areas in which position papers were developed, together with the names of the educational leaders (or associations) which developed them. The writers submitted the original draft of their papers to a panel of recognized leaders in their field of interest for review and critique, and from this review finalized their position.

For the purpose of this final report, it is possible to list and discuss only a few of the essentials as outlined in these papers. For this reason a separate publication of abstracts of each position paper has been developed and is available upon request from any of the project offices. In addition, copies of each of the position papers have been reproduced in mimeographed form and are available from each of the project offices.

In addition to the position papers, a jury of six nationally recognized educational authorities (*See Appendix B*) were selected to meet with and to consult with the Great Plains School District Organization staff to assist with the translation of educational needs into specifics with regard to programs and services to meet these needs, and with regard to an educational structure to make the programs and services possible.

Three major generalized conclusions can be drawn from the position papers and from

the jury of experts with regard to the provision of educational programs and services. First, there was concensus, without exception, that administrative districts for elementary and secondary education should be unified and governed by one board of education in order to provide a continuous, balanced, flexible, and articulated program of education. Secondly, there was general agreement that any educational structure developed should provide for flexibility in educational planning in order to adapt to changing educational needs, to changing educational methodologies, and to new instructional materials and equipment. Lastly, there was general agreement that the structure must provide the means to meet the needs of all children and youth regardless of where they live, and regardless of how unique the individual need might be.

Programs

Below are listed suggested programs which should be provided to meet the needs of all boys and girls in Nebraska. This list is compiled from an analyzation of the position papers, from the consultation with the jury of educational authorities mentioned above, and from the literature in the field. It is by no means intended as an all-inclusive list, but rather a suggestive list, and certainly program offerings should not necessarily be limited to it.

English: At the elementary school level the program is usually called a language arts program. This program should place emphasis on reading; oral and written expression; listening; spelling and handwriting; and literature. In addition, some consideration should be given to a second language. At the secondary level the English program should provide instruction in language usage (oral and written), literature, creative writing, drama, and journalism. It is essential that the program provide for integrated instruction in the above-named areas in a sequential, well-articulated K-12 curriculum. Instruction should be provided in a planned framework, so designed that each year's content is based upon previous learning.

Mathematics: The mathematics program must be carefully coordinated and articulated, beginning in kindergarten and extending through grade twelve. It must be especially concerned with providing the mathematical training needed by our future leaders in the fields of science, mathematics, and other disciplines. It must as well insure mathematical competence for the ordinary affairs of life experienced by citizens generally, regardless of their vocation.

The elementary program should place an emphasis upon the usefulness of arithmetic and its practical and scientific applications. Mathematics at the high school level should provide a minimum of two tracks of math and in some cases three or four tracks to accommodate those students with varied interests and abilities.

Science: The elementary science program should enable the child to know and appreciate science; to perform simple experiments; to interpret, record, and report accurately; to distinguish between truth and superstition; and to associate and apply science with daily living.

The secondary science program should build upon that provided at the elementary level. Like the mathematics program, it should provide sound training and background for those entering professions requiring science, and provide as well a basic understanding of science for all citizens. Such a program should include a minimum of general science, earth science, biology, chemistry, physics, anatomy, and physiology.

Social Studies: The social studies program must be a basic coordinated program provided for all students from kindergarten through the twelfth grade, with variations within the program to provide for differences in ability and interests. The content of the program should be drawn from the areas of history, economics, sociology, anthropology, geography, and political science. A common program should be required from kindergarten through grade ten, with electives beginning at grade ten.

Speech: The elementary speech program should be an integrated part of the total learning experience of students, with planned speech experiences that include storytelling; creative dramatics; oral presentations; choral speaking; oral reading; plays; and group discussions.

The secondary program should include creative dramatics; dramatics; fundamentals of speech, discussion and argumentation; oral interpretation; and debate. In addition, extracurricular speech activities should be made available.

Foreign Language: The teaching of foreign language at the elementary level should be considered optional and the decision to provide or not to provide it at this level should be made after careful consideration of the needs and mores of the community. The secondary program should begin at grade seven and the minimum program should be one modern foreign language for a minimum of three years. More desirable is a six-year program which gives individual students who need and desire this depth in a language the opportunity to get it. As enrollments increase, the number of languages offered should be increased.

Art: The program should be a well-articulated and coordinated program, beginning in the elementary school and extending through the secondary school. At the elementary level the major emphasis should be on the experimental nature of art. Pupils should have opportunity for art expressions with a variety of materials and processes, and should through these activities and supplementary reading come to an appreciation of art in the culture

At the secondary level, learning experiences in art should provide for the realization of the four aspects of art education: seeing and feeling visual relationships; producing artistic expressions; studying and appreciating works of art from the past and present; and the critical evaluation of art products. The student should be able to pursue art both as a part of a general education program, as well as in special elective fields, such as studio art courses or art history in greater depth.

Music: Like the art program, music should be well-articulated and coordinated, beginning in the elementary school and extending on through the secondary. It should provide each child an opportunity to develop his own music capabilities to the fullest extent through group and individual instruction. The program should provide instruction in vocal and instrumental music, and in appreciation and theory. An extra-curricular program should be provided to include at least band, orchestra, and chorus.

Health and Safety: A sequential health program should be provided, with instruction beginning in the elementary school and extending through the secondary. Health is multi-disciplinary in nature, with the content being derived from medicine, public health, and the physical, biological, and social sciences. The following health education areas are suggested as a random listing of the content areas from which the sequential health program should be drawn: community health; consumer health; dental health; environmental health; exercise; family health; health careers; healthy body; international health; mental health; nutrition; personal health; prevention and control of disease; rest, sleep, relaxation, and leisure; safety; and stimulants.

Driver Education: Nationally, driver education has come to be recognized as a universal need for all children and youth, and it should accordingly be provided in the secondary schools of Nebraska. Several acceptable arrangements are presently in operation, including before-and-after-school instruction, regular school day instruction, and summer instruction.

Physical Education: The physical education program should be provided throughout the elementary and secondary school and should go far beyond common team sports. It should cover a wide range of individual and dual activities which relate to optimal physical growth; to the development of the fundamental motor skills; to the development of strength, endurance, agility, and coordination; to learning to play and perform to a satisfying degree; to the development of a few sport skills for leisure time use in later life; to the development of good health; and to the development of poise and self-confidence.

Industrial Arts: The industrial arts program should begin in the elementary school as an integrated part of the other programs. Industrial arts concepts should be introduced in the elementary school to provide opportunities which will give deeper understandings and meanings to regular subjects through first-hand experience with real materials. Through these experiences the child should develop an understanding of industry and its place in the development of our society.

At the seventh-grade level instruction should be begun which places an emphasis on exploratory experiences in drafting, metalworking, woodworking, electricity, electronics, graphic arts, industrial crafts, and power mechanics.

The senior high school industrial arts program should be provided in depth on an elective basis in the same areas as mentioned above.

Home Economics: Instruction in home economics should begin at the seventh-grade level and extend through the twelfth grade with instruction being provided in general home economics, home management, foods and nutrition, home furnishings, clothing and textiles.

Business Education: The business education program should begin in grade seven and should provide extensive course offerings in the areas of general business; business law; economics; consumer economics; typewriting, shorthand, bookkeeping, office machines; selling and merchandising; and clerical and secretarial practices. In addition, personal use courses should be made available in typewriting, note-taking, and record-keeping.

Vocational and Technical Programs: These programs should be provided with the primary goals being to equip persons for useful employment. The program should be designed to train youth for occupational entry and to train adults for job advancement or to retrain them. It is the purpose of vocational education to give definite purpose and meaning to education by relating it to occupational goals.

There is substantial evidence that the majority of high school graduates in rural Nebraska migrate to the urban centers, both within and outside the state, and compete for job opportunities with business and industry oftentimes quite different from those which are located in their home communities.

Two position papers have been developed for the Great Plains Project which point to an urgent need to provide vocational-technical training opportunities for high school youth who enter the labor market immediately upon graduation from high school.

The content of the program should include technical education, agriculture (including production, mechanics, management, leadership and related occupations); home economics (*discussed above*); business education (*discussed above*); distributive education (including retailing, wholesaling, service); trade and industrial education, such as machine trades; auto mechanics; basic electricity; electronics; mechanical drafting; printing; welding; sheet metal; bricklaying; carpentry; plumbing; cosmetology; appliance repair; auto body repair; architectural drafting; commercial art; and dental assistant.

Special Education Programs: The goal of special education is to provide a program especially geared to the abilities of all exceptional children to increase the likelihood that these children will become successful, contributing, independent adult members of our society.

Special education is generally expected to provide programs for at least the following areas: the gifted; the educable mentally retarded; the trainable mentally retarded; the visually impaired; the acoustically handicapped; children with cerebral dysfunctions; children with orthopedic handicaps and special health problems; children with speech and language impairment; the emotionally disturbed; and the delinquent.

Compensatory Programs: The nation, including Nebraska, has and is placing an increased emphasis on providing a sufficient and desirable program of education to meet the special needs of the children of the urban ghettos and the rural slums. Federal aid programs are providing special funds for this purpose as is the State of Nebraska through its state aid to education program

Programs for Preschool Age Youth: The federal government through its Head Start program has identified a need for preschool programs for some children. As with the compensatory programs, it is essential that any organizational structure developed be designed to provide preschool programs

Continuing Adult Education Programs: In a rapidly changing society such as ours, continuing education is a constant need for adults for training and retraining. The public schools have accepted the challenge and responsibility for this purpose. The schools have a responsibility to provide programs for adults in evening schools, for cultural enrichment, and for occupational training and retraining.

Services

After the programs have been developed to meet the identified needs, many and varied services must be provided to support the programs. Services refer to human and material resources required to facilitate the optimum development of the programs considered to be important in meeting the needs and objectives of the public school system. Educational facilities are considered to be necessary to house the equipment and to provide the spaces for the provision of the programs and services. Teachers, supervisors, administrators, counselors, custodians, transportation personnel, food services personnel, secretarial personnel, and others are likewise essential to achieve the desired goals of the school. With this broad interpretation of services, the following is a partial listing of them with a brief discussion of each. The project position papers and other project publications give considerably more detail than can be included in this report.

Administrative Services: The administrative staff has the primary function of organizing the human and material resources from within the organization and to make use of selected resources from outside the organization to accomplish the goals of the school as established by the board of education in its policy-making function.

The chief school administrator and his staff are responsible to the elected board of education for the execution of the board policy; decision-making on all matters relating to school operation; business and financial operations of the system; personnel administration; curriculum development; in-service training; professional growth; articulation and coordination of the educational program; administration of special programs; and public relations

An analysis of the position papers and the judgments of the jury of experts has led the project staff to conclude that the minimum administrative staff for any administrative district should include at least a superintendent, an assistant superintendent in

charge of business affairs, an assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, and a principal in charge of each elementary and secondary attendance center. As overall enrollments increase from a minimum, as programs and services are expanded, and as the professional and nonprofessional staff increase accordingly, it will be necessary to add administrative personnel to assist with particular goals, such as personnel management, special services, and adult and continuing education. This is not to say that these special administrative services are not needed even in the minimum district; but the minimum district may look to the intermediate unit to supplement some of these services.

In Nebraska the record would show that boards of education and administrators have been reluctant to place a principal in the elementary school. In addition, the pattern has been that when the principal is added to the elementary school staff, it too frequently involves the assignment of a teacher as principal who continues with a full-time teaching assignment. For these reasons, a statement is included in this report concerning the importance of administrative services in the elementary school.

Elementary educational programs provide the foundation for all education. For too long educators and laymen alike have tended to consider secondary education first and the more important.

The operation of a modern elementary program is a task of tremendous importance. If classroom teachers are to be free to work with children, if the efforts of the instructional staff are to be coordinated, and if adequate specialized services are to be established and maintained, a non-teaching supervising elementary principal is needed. Such a person should have graduate training in elementary school education and administration and the personal characteristics necessary to work with young children and their teachers.

Instructional Staff: The key to providing a quality education program is the quality of the instructional staff. The staff should be carefully recruited in order that the best prepared and best qualified teachers can be placed in the classrooms to provide the instruction.

Supervisory and Consultant Services: Teachers need consultative assistance as they are charged with many responsibilities. The Nebraska elementary teacher, for example, most generally operates in a self-contained or modified self-contained classroom situation in which she is expected to assume the major responsibility for eight to ten subject areas. A great many elementary teachers, even with a baccalaureate degree, find it extremely difficult to effectively treat each of the areas of mathematics, science, reading, social studies, art, health, etc. Even the elementary teacher with superior capabilities in each subject area and the secondary teacher who teaches in only his area of specialization find a need for in-service training in order to keep abreast with the changing educational concepts.

For these reasons, teachers need to have available to them, supervisory and consultative services organized to provide an ongoing in-service education program. This can best be provided by a staff of helping teachers, subject area consultants, and general supervisors to work with teachers in curriculum development and the overall improvement of the instructional program.

It is not likely that most administrative districts in Nebraska, even after comprehensive reorganization has taken place, can efficiently or economically provide a full staff of these specialists. For this reason it will be essential for the educational service units to provide some of these services.

Educational Media Services: Teaching and learning materials have come to be recognized as a vital part of the material resources necessary to the provision of an educational program. Nebraska and the nation have over the past several years put a major emphasis on the development of adequate libraries in the elementary and secondary schools for both students and the professional staff. In addition, a major emphasis has and is being placed on the development of media centers. The library and media services should provide resource materials and services that will enable teachers to gear the instructional program to group and individual needs. Adequate library and media services should: (1) help students to become independent and discriminate users of information; (2) enhance their ability to do independent thinking; (3) develop desirable attitudes toward learning and research; (4) assist them in learning how to create and produce information; and (5) aid them in acquiring a self-satisfaction in learning.

Health Services: Many vision, hearing, and other physical defects first become apparent during the elementary and secondary school years. Unless they are detected early, needless educational retardation may take place. In addition, children of school age are highly susceptible to the common childhood diseases.

The school health services program then should provide at least the following: (1) periodic health examinations; (2) frequent screening tests (including growth and development, vision and hearing); (3) well-trained teachers in an observational role; (4) an effective system of referral examinations; (5) an effective means of follow-up; (6) the employment and use of psychologists; (7) use of mental health clinics; (8) a health guidance program; and (9) completed, up-to-date health records.

It is also the responsibility of the school to provide a healthful environment and it should be the function of the health services personnel to see that such an environment is maintained. Considerations for a healthful environment must be given to: (1) the school building; (2) the water supply; (3) waste disposal; (4) ventilation; (5) lighting; (6) acoustics; (7) equipment; (8) housekeeping practices; (9) food service; (10) traffic control; and (11) playground construction and equipment.

Guidance Services: Guidance and counseling services are essential as a means of assisting the pupil to understand himself, his environment, and others about him. In

addition, the counseling services should assist the individual pupil to become competent in making satisfactory decisions regarding his immediate and future experiences. Guidance and counseling services should be aimed at assisting teachers and administrators in their attempts to help elementary and secondary school students cope with their individual problems and with the problems of the society in which they live.

Other Pupil Personnel Services: Supporting services for the instructional staff, the school health services and the guidance services should include at least: (1) psychological services for appraisal, treatment, and consultation; (2) learning diagnosticians; (3) social worker or workers; and (4) attendance supervision.

In all likelihood, it will be necessary for many local administrative districts within Nebraska, even after reorganization, to request some of the services from the educational service unit.

School Food Services: Through the longtime interest of the federal government, school food services have become a common and accepted service to be provided by the public schools. It is imperative that this service be included in the school with adequate facilities and personnel. It is important that the supervisor of food services have a close working relationship with all other school personnel, particularly the school health, guidance, and instructional personnel, in order that the food services can make a maximum contribution to the teaching of good nutritional habits and the school health program generally.

Pupil Transportation Services: Pupil transportation has been an important and widely used activity in many Nebraska schools for many years. Reorganization of local school districts has increased and will continue to increase the number of elementary and secondary school students transported throughout the state.

Transportation and the modern educational programs go together. There are certain factors which make this evident:

1. Transportation has made educational programs of much greater breadth available. The rapid growth of newly reorganized districts throughout many areas of the United States attests in large measure to the fact that children in remote areas are now receiving a more comprehensive educational program.
2. Transportation has resulted in economics in the operation of the schools. Just as mechanization has made larger units in farming and industry profitable, the larger enrollment in reorganized school districts, resulting from transportation, has made savings in the total school operation. These have resulted from efficient teacher-pupil ratios and the efficient use of noninstructional staff time.

The chief objectives of school transportation are:

1. To furnish transportation to those pupils whose health or distance from the school make this service essential.

2. To provide the safest school bus operators and transportation equipment possible.
3. To operate transportation efficiently and economically.
4. To adapt transportation to the requirements of the instructional program.
5. To maintain conditions on the buses which are conducive to the best interests of the pupils, including mental, moral, and physical considerations.

To achieve the above objectives, certain factors need to be considered. For this reason the following criteria are suggested as desirable for route planning:

1. Keep at a minimum the number of hazards such as steep hills, dangerous approaches to intersections, railroad crossings, narrow bridges, and sharp curves.
2. Make sure that necessary "turn-arounds" are safe and suitable in all weather conditions.
3. Load and discharge pupils so that it is not always necessary for them to cross main highways in order to reach their homes.
4. Plan routes so that the majority of the secondary children do not have to ride in excess of one hour one way to or from school. Elementary students should probably spend somewhat less time enroute than secondary students.
5. Avoid all duplication of unnecessary mileage of any kind.
6. Each route should provide a reasonable pupil load for the bus used.

A key to the distance a student can be transported within the reasonable time limitations mentioned above is the type of routing used. School officials responsible for the planning of bus routes should be familiar with the various types of routes which may be used individually or in any combination. The most common types are as follows:

1. A circular route is a main or trunk route which circumscribes an area by using different roads on the outgoing and incoming trips. On a given trip, none of the mileage is covered in both directions. The circular route has the advantage of equalizing the time which pupils spend on the bus. This is accomplished if the bus travels in the same direction on each trip so that the first child on in the morning is the first off at night. This type of routing usually cuts down the distance that students can be transported as the time enroute for the first students on the bus is longer than it would need to be with other types of routing.
2. The shoestring or spoke route is a main or trunk route which extends from the school to some terminal point out in the district. If the bus is stored at the school, the same road or roads are used on the outgoing and incoming trips. On a shoestring route the children travel more or less directly toward the school.

3. A feeder route extends from some transfer point on the main route farther out in the district. The use of a feeder route may be advisable for one or both of the following reasons: (1) to limit the use of large buses to improved roads, or (2) to reduce travel time on the main route.
4. A spur route is similar to a feeder route in that it extends from a point on the main route farther out into the district. The distinction is that the regular main-route bus serves the spur, whereas an auxiliary vehicle serves a feeder. Spur routes are necessary where main routes do not meet established standards of service.
5. A shuttle route extends between two or more school buildings. Routes of this type are often required for the transfer of pupils in districts operating two or more attendance centers.

In addition to laying out the routes, consideration should be given to the various methods of serving these routes. The plans for serving routes will have an important effect upon the number of buses and drivers required as well as upon the quality of the service. There are three principal types or trips: single, dual, and double:

1. The single trip involves a morning and an afternoon trip by one bus on each route. This form of service is well adapted to sparsely settled areas. It also meets the needs of schools where the instructional program requires that both elementary and secondary pupils arrive at the same time. The single trip plan requires a maximum number of buses and drivers as each route is covered but once and each bus serves but one route.
2. The double trip plan calls for each bus to cover two or more different routes morning and afternoon. This plan is suited to districts of greater population where distances are not great. As children of all grades are carried on each trip, program adjustments in the instructional schedule are necessary to avoid idle waiting time at the school. If these adjustments can be made without sacrificing the interests of the children, the double trip plan may be economical by requiring fewer buses.
3. The dual trip plan, also known as dual routing, calls for two or more morning trips and two or more afternoon trips over the same route by each bus. This arrangement is feasible only where route distances are relatively short. High school pupils may be brought to school on the first morning trip, with elementary children arriving on the second trip. In the afternoon the elementary children may be scheduled to leave on the first trip if it is desired that the elementary day be shorter than the high school day.

Economies in route service may be brought about by use of the double or dual trip plan. Either method may reduce by as much as fifty percent the number of buses needed to meet the transportation requirements of a district. Any reduction in the number of buses will represent a substantial saving in fixed charges and other costs of transportation. It should be noted, however, that where routes are necessarily long, it is generally not possible to use dual or double trips. Also, it is most important that requirements of the instructional program be in no way neglected as a result of the use of dual or double trips.

School Plant Services: School plants are an important and necessary part of providing any and all educational programs. Educational plants which are of immense functional value to the instructional program are the result of prudent plant-planning processes. They must be planned so that they will be economical to maintain and to operate, safe, healthful, and aesthetically appealing.

It is essential that each local administrative district have available someone, either at the district level or from the educational service unit level to assist with the planning for and supervision of new construction, remodeling, and maintenance. Also, the person in charge of school plant services should supervise and assist with determining equipment needs, equipment purchasing, inventory, and maintenance.

Research and Development: With the rapid changes taking place in education, it is becoming increasingly important that the local administrative districts have or have available to them from the educational service unit, research and development services for the improvement of the instructional programs. Such a service would do at least the following things: (1) encourage research and experimentation of all kinds by the professional staff; (2) design research and experimentation projects; (3) conduct evaluation; (4) disseminate research findings from the state and national levels; (5) keep accurate statistical records; and (6) analyze data.

Data Processing Services: A relatively new supporting service is that of data processing and computer technology. This use of the computer found its way into the metropolitan school districts several years ago. More recently it has become a service desired by many smaller local administrative districts and requested in some cases of the intermediate units and in other cases leased from private industry to accomplish specific tasks. It is the recommendation of this study that in Nebraska, a state system for computer technology be developed with regional centers to be established in the educational service units or combinations of the educational service units. Some of the uses that are being made of computers where they are available are: (1) accounting; (2) supply requisition and purchase; (3) financial reporting; (4) pupil accounting; (5) pupil and personnel record keeping; (6) class scheduling; (7) grade reporting; (8) test scoring; (9) cost analysis; (10) library and media center processing; and (11) compiling an analysis of research and evaluation data.

The uses for data processing and computer technology in education are at the moment in a developmental stage, but there seems to be little doubt about the place for the computer in education. The total educational structure of the state should provide for it, and it should be a statewide coordinated effort.

Summary

Educational needs to be met by the public schools of Nebraska are very broad. They are increasingly being identified, as was mentioned in an earlier chapter, at the federal, state, area, and local levels.

The programs considered essential to meet these broad listings of identified needs vary from the basic three R's for intellectual and economic literacy on the part of all to broad comprehensive programs in technical education, and to special programs for the intellectually gifted, the emotionally handicapped, and the physically handicapped. All are needs to be met if the state is sincerely committed to the idea of providing educational programs and services for all children and youth regardless of where they live.

The educational tools, the equipment, the buildings, and the personnel services are increasingly diversified, specialized, and costly as intellectual progress, scientific development, and technological advancement brings to the American people a new way of life within each generation.

CHAPTER VI

DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGE

As Dr. Ellis Hanson stated in the introduction to his study, *Peoples — Places — Perspectives*, "The real basis for all educational undertakings is people. Where people presently live, work and play and where they may in the future be expected to live, work and play has a profound effect on describing and projecting future organizational patterns for educational endeavors."¹

Throughout the history of Nebraska the organization of school districts has been related to the location of people and to the movement of people. As was stated in Chapter I of this report, local responsibility for schools was assumed by small population centers and the rural areas surrounding them. As the population moved westward across the state, school districts were organized to accommodate the people who settled there to live. The history of consolidation and reorganization in Nebraska and in other midwestern states has also been related to the movement of people. As the rural-to-urban movement of people has depleted the population of the rural areas, the citizenry has in many instances recognized the need to enlarge their local school district boundaries in order to continue to provide an educational program.

As society changes and becomes more complex, the educational needs of children and youth change and become more complex. Today, these changes are placing a greater demand upon school systems for programs of education which have greater breadth, greater depth and better all-round quality.

Causes underlying the changing needs in education and the movement of people to different living locations are closely related. Rapid changes in technology have resulted in an era of specialization in the entire world of work, including agriculture, which has been Nebraska's major industry. The day of the subsistence farmer is rapidly coming to an end as agricultural operations become more and more specialized, taking the form of a single-type of agricultural production most suited to a particular area. Contributing as well is the advanced technology which makes larger agricultural operations possible and greatly decreases the number of persons needed for "on-the-farm" occupations. With the advent of agricultural specialization and advanced technology in agriculture, a steady out-migration of rural people to both the urban centers within the state and outside the state has taken place.

The migration from rural to urban has affected the agricultural village as well as the "on-the-farm" population. The villages and hamlets of Nebraska have throughout their history been dependent upon the "on-the-farm" population to purchase the goods and

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services provided by the village. As this population decreases, fewer people are dependent upon the villages for goods and services. Also, as improvements in transportation have taken place, the remaining rural population tends to look more and more to the larger economic center for most goods and services, contributing even further to the economic and population decline of the villages.

This movement of people has directly affected our educational system, both in the rural areas and in the urban centers. The rural areas have been faced with a declining population (including, of course, school age children and youth), which has made it increasingly difficult for local school districts in rural areas to meet the increasing demands for education. On the other hand, urban centers have been faced with a growing population, both from in-migration and an increased birth rate. These centers have found it difficult to keep pace in educational planning to meet the needs of a rapidly growing population.

Dr. Hanson said in his paper:

Population changes since 1900 have greatly redistributed the Midwest population. Massive migration, within states and out of states, best characterizes the pattern of movement. Migration is essentially a social response to change. It is a product of the changing capacities in the agricultural system and the attractions and opportunities in the urban-industrial areas. It has resulted in the dismembering of many communities and the inordinate growth of others.

One result of this migratory movement has been the very sizable decline in populations of most geographic regions of the Midwest. It has accelerated the social and economic decline of small towns and cities which is resulting in changing patterns of organization within our society. It has contributed to the decline of associations and institutions and has been reflected in the area economic activity, educational systems, governmental efforts, and on the basic values and purposes of social existence.

The Midwest population change has shattered the stability of communities and prompts one to question seriously the adequacy of existing social institutions to cope with changing needs and demands.²

Our nation's growth in population has been extremely rapid, but this growth has been at a declining rate, as follows: population doubled five times between 1790 and 1950; three times between 1790 and 1865, at intervals of twenty-five years; once in the thirty-five year period from 1865 to 1900; and once in the fifty-year period from 1900 to 1950. The combined efforts of the Great Depression and restricted immigration brought birth rates and growth rates to new lows during the 1930's. Projections made in the 1930's and 1940's suggested 165 million as the peak population for the United States at the turn of the century.³

However, an unprecedented upsurge in both marriages and fertility rates during the 40's and 50's contradicted all projections. The population of the United States passed the 165 million mark in 1955, is over 200 million today, and is projected to exceed 300 million by the turn of the century.⁴

In 1790, when the first census was taken, only 5 percent of the nation's population was located in twenty-four urban places. In 1960, 125 million persons, or approximately 70 percent of the total population, was residing in urban complexes. Some of the most reliable projections presently available suggest that by 1980, at least 80 percent of the total U. S. population will be residing in urban areas.⁵

Nebraska's population growth has in some respects followed the national trend, but at a slower rate. Table XXVI shows the United States Census figures for Nebraska, beginning with 1900. Examination of the table reveals that Nebraska has shown a rather steady but slight growth during all census periods with the exception of the 1930-1940 decade during which the state encountered a 4.5 percent decline. But even though the overall population has increased since 1900 the rate of increase has been substantially below the national rate of increase.

TABLE XXVI

NEBRASKA POPULATION BY DECADE

<i>Year</i>	<i>Population</i>
1900	1,000,000
1910	1,192,000
1920	1,296,000
1930	1,378,000
1940	1,316,000
1950	1,326,000
1960	1,411,000

Like the rest of the nation, Nebraska has also experienced a shift from a predominantly rural population to one which is predominantly urban in nature, but again the percentage of those Nebraskans in urban centers is somewhat below the national percentage. Even though the rural-to-urban movement in Nebraska is somewhat slower than that taking place at the national level, it is a dramatic one. In the 1950-1960 decade Nebraska recorded a 23.2 percent increase in urban population and an 8.3 percent decrease in rural population.⁶ Table XXVII shows the percent of population by groups of places in Nebraska according to size in 1950 and in 1960; it can be noted from this table that by 1960 Nebraska had over one-half of its population living in urban areas.

By all reliable projections and by available data, it is estimated that the same trend has continued through the 60's, and by 1970 an even greater percentage of the population of the state will be residing in the urban areas. One indication of the continued decline in the rural areas is the decrease in the number of farm units. Table XXVIII shows the number of farm units by county and by region for the years 1962, 1963 and 1964. It can be noted from this table that there was a reduction in farm units in nearly every county of the state during this period and with a statewide reduction of 2,000 per year.

TABLE XXVII

PERCENT OF POPULATION BY GROUPS OF PLACES
 ACCORDING TO SIZE, 1950-1960
 IN NEBRASKA⁹

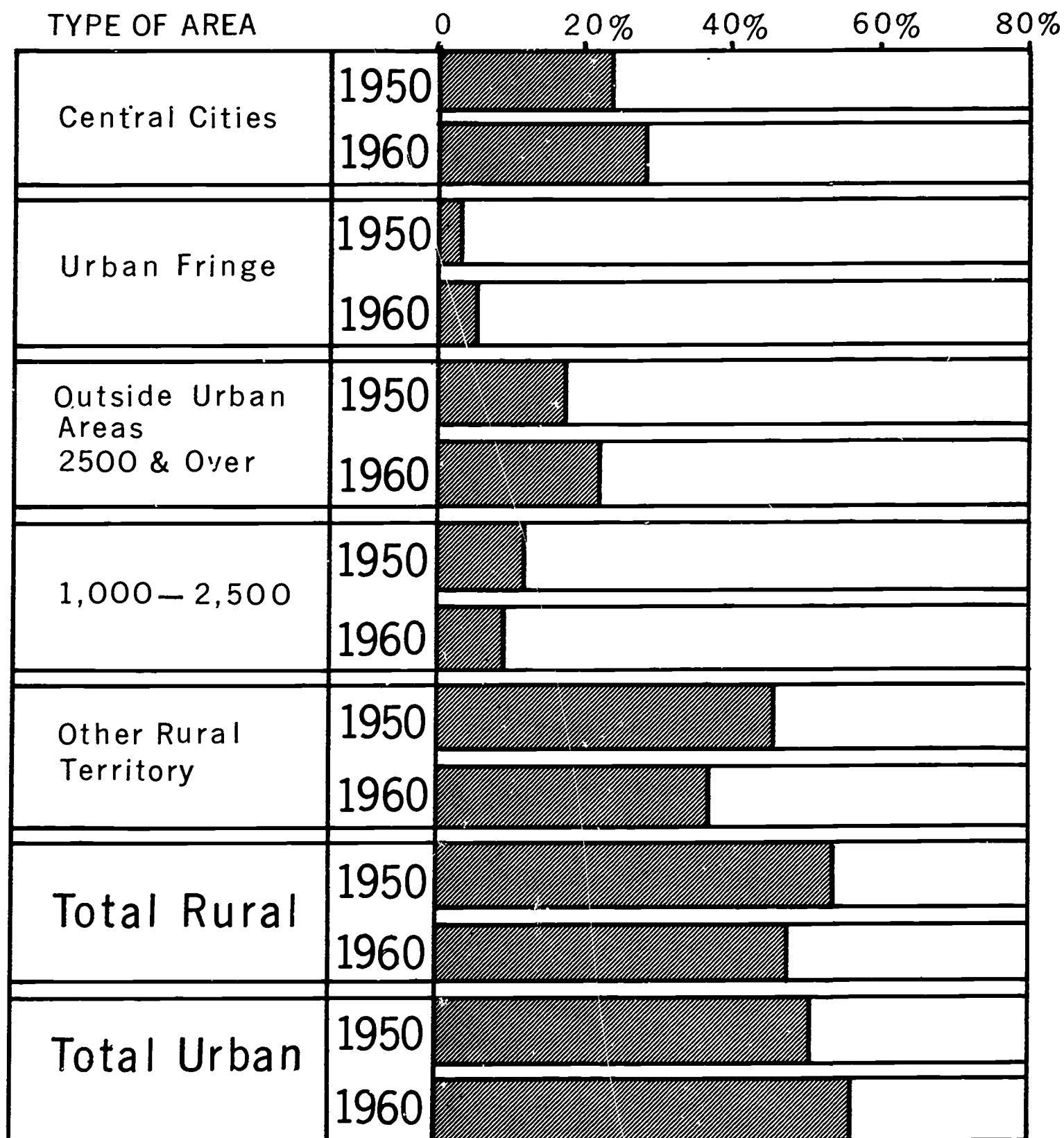


TABLE XXVIII

NEBRASKA — NUMBER OF FARMS 1962-1964 ¹⁰

County	Number of Farms			County	Number of Farms		
	1962	1963	1964		1962	1963	1964
	Number	Number	Number		Number	Number	Number
Banner	245	250	250	Butler	1,520	1,510	1,460
Box Butte	620	610	605	Cass	1,370	1,340	1,310
Cheyenne	875	860	840	Colfax	1,170	1,150	1,120
Dawes	570	560	540	Dodge	1,490	1,440	1,400
Deuel	345	340	330	Douglas	1,140	1,060	960
Garden	465	460	455	Hamilton	1,230	1,220	1,170
Kimball	435	430	440	Lancaster	2,030	2,000	1,940
Morrill	740	730	720	Merrick	1,050	1,040	1,000
Scotts Bluff	1,545	1,520	1,500	Nance	780	770	750
Sheridan	905	890	880	Platte	1,680	1,640	1,620
Sioux	455	450	450	Polk	1,090	1,050	1,020
NORTHWEST	7,200	7,100	7,010	Sarpy	660	640	610
Arthur	100	100	105	Saunders	2,010	1,970	1,930
Blaine	140	140	135	Seward	1,460	1,450	1,410
Boyd	615	600	595	Washington	1,140	1,100	1,070
Brown	420	410	400	York	1,360	1,320	1,280
Cherry	730	720	710	EAST	21,180	20,700	20,050
Garfield	325	310	300	Chase	520	510	500
Grant	70	75	75	Dundy	455	450	450
Holt	1,630	1,620	1,600	Frontier	695	670	660
Hooker	55	55	50	Hayes	405	380	375
Keya Paha	315	300	295	Hitchcock	605	580	570
Logan	175	170	170	Keith	500	470	460
Loup	200	195	190	Lincoln	1,380	1,350	1,310
McPherson	145	145	145	Perkins	640	620	620
Rock	300	280	270	Red Willow	740	710	690
Thomas	95	100	100	SOUTHWEST	5,940	5,740	5,635
Wheeler	215	210	205	Adams	1,115	1,080	1,060
NORTH	5,530	5,430	5,345	Franklin	790	760	740
Antelope	1,520	1,490	1,460	Furnas	810	790	770
Boone	1,280	1,270	1,260	Gosper	495	470	460
Burt	1,120	1,090	1,070	Harlan	680	650	650
Cedar	1,770	1,730	1,690	Kearney	860	820	800
Cuming	1,760	1,750	1,720	Phelps	870	840	820
Dakota	620	610	600	Webster	840	810	780
Dixon	1,140	1,130	1,100	SOUTH	6,460	6,220	5,080
Knox	1,860	1,840	1,800	Clay	960	930	900
Madison	1,500	1,470	1,460	Fillmore	1,180	1,130	1,100
Pierce	1,310	1,300	1,260	Gage	2,140	2,080	2,030
Stanton	1,040	1,030	1,010	Jefferson	1,180	1,150	1,120
Thurston	830	820	800	Johnson	900	880	870
Wayne	1,250	1,240	1,200	Nemaha	1,000	970	940
NORTHEAST	17,000	16,770	16,430	Nuckolls	980	970	960
Buffalo	1,770	1,730	1,700	Otoe	1,520	1,460	1,400
Custer	2,180	2,100	2,070	Pawnee	860	890	870
Dawson	1,560	1,520	1,480	Richardson	1,300	1,280	1,250
Greeley	670	640	630	Saline	1,450	1,410	1,380
Hall	1,210	1,150	1,110	Thayer	1,120	1,090	1,070
Howard	1,010	990	960	SOUTHEAST	14,590	14,240	13,890
Sherman	870	850	830	NEBRASKA	88,000	86,000	84,000
Valley	830	820	780				
CENTRAL	10,100	9,800	9,560				

In 1960, the U. S. Census Bureau classified two areas within Nebraska as Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas (SMSA's) – Omaha and Lincoln. From 1950–1960 these two metropolitan areas showed an increase of 27.3 percent in population as compared to only a 6.5 percent increase for the state as a whole. The population of these two metropolitan areas, in 1960, accounted for 37 percent of the state's total population. It can also be noted from Table XXVII that another sizable percentage of the state's population is located in those communities of 2,500 or over.⁷

Table XXIX shows the average population of various sizes of communities in Nebraska at each census date from 1910 through 1960. It can be noted from this table that those communities with a population of fewer than 500 have generally experienced a steady decline during each decade. Those communities of 500 to 1,000 tend to show a growth up through 1930, but since that time a general decline. Those communities of 1,500 to 2,000 have shown a general trend of growth through 1950, but have experienced a decline from 1950 to 1960. Those communities of 2,000 to 2,500 in Nebraska have shown a general but slight growth up to 1960. Communities of 2,500 to 5,000 have shown a rather steady growth during each decade; however, those communities of between 5,000 to 10,000 and above have shown the most significant increases in size, and it can be noted that the larger the community the greater increase in population.

TABLE XXIX

**AVERAGE POPULATION OF INCORPORATED COMMUNITIES IN NEBRASKA
IN VARIOUS SIZE RANGES FROM 1910–1960**

<i>Community Size Range</i>	<i>Number of Communities in Size Range</i>	<i>Average Population 1910</i>	<i>Average Population 1920</i>	<i>Average Population 1930</i>	<i>Average Population 1940</i>	<i>Average Population 1950</i>	<i>Average Population 1960</i>
0–500	207	374	371	362	341	306	279
500–1,000	82	618	717	752	737	721	707
1,000–1,500	45	979	1,091	1,140	1,170	1,241	1,237
1,500–2,000	16	1,384	1,720	1,775	1,897	1,777	1,773
2,000–2,500	7	1,630	1,616	1,870	1,920	2,028	2,331
2,500–5,000	19	1,822	2,095	2,333	2,607	3,035	3,539
5,000–10,000	13	3,027	3,918	4,704	4,796	5,735	6,685
10,000–25,000	8	6,399	8,755	10,489	11,268	13,462	15,516
25,000–100,000	1	10,326	13,947	18,041	19,130	22,682	25,742
100,000–250,000	1	43,973	54,948	75,933	81,984	98,884	128,521
250,000 up	1	124,096	191,601	214,006	223,844	251,117	301,598

Dr. Hanson, in his demographic study of the four states in the Great Plains Project, had this to say with regard to stability and growth of communities in the four-state area:

In Iowa, Missouri, and the eastern one-third of both Nebraska and South Dakota, most cities and towns of 2,500 or less will encounter increasing difficulty in maintaining stable population. The smaller communities (2,500 or less) of the entire area will find it increasingly difficult to remain viable cohesive community centers. The exceptions to this will be smaller communities within a 25-30 mile range of major urban centers and these communities located in isolated areas.

Development over the past 20 years indicates that all communities within a 25-30 mile radius of urban complexes, regardless of size, have remained stable or experienced some growth.

In western portions of Nebraska and South Dakota, communities of less than 1,500 people will encounter difficulties in surviving. However, these smaller communities in the very sparsely settled areas will probably persist for some time as minimum convenience centers providing a very limited range of goods and services to a relatively large geographic area.⁸

Along with the rural-to-urban movement within the state, there has also been a pattern of out-migration from the state. Dr. Hanson found in his study that an overwhelming percentage of those who move from the state come from the white population and are in the 18 to 44 age grouping. During the 1950-1960 decade, the out-migration from Nebraska was approximately 9 percent of the white population.⁹ During the same 10-year period, Nebraska experienced a substantial in-migration of non-whites, mostly Negroes moving into Omaha and Lincoln. The net increase by in-migration of non-whites into Nebraska during the period extending from 1950 to 1960 was in excess of 4,000, or an increase of 17.5 percent. Though the percentage appears large, it is relatively small in proportion to the total population; in 1960, the Negro population of Nebraska was only 29,262 or 2.08 percent of the total population.¹⁰

In examining population, it is also necessary to look at live birth rates. The trend in live birth rates has closely paralleled the national pattern.

Table XXX shows the number of live births per 1,000 population for Nebraska and for the United States for the years 1940, 1950, 1960, 1963, 1964, 1965, and 1966.

TABLE XXX

LIVE BIRTHS PER 1,000 POPULATION 1940-1964 ¹¹

<i>Year</i>	<i>1940</i>	<i>1950</i>	<i>1960</i>	<i>1963</i>	<i>1964</i>	<i>1965</i>	<i>1966</i>
Nebraska	17.3	24.1	24.3	22.4	21.9	18.6	17.5
United States	19.4	24.1	23.7	21.7	21.2	19.4	18.5

The table shows that the United States reached the peak birth rate in 1950, while Nebraska peaked in 1960. Since that time, the decrease in both the nation and Nebraska has been a dramatic one, with Nebraska falling below the national average in both 1965 and 1966.

In addition to the rural-to-urban movement, the out-migration of the 18 to 44 age group of white population, some in-migration of non-white population, and a lower birth rate, there is also the problem of the changing age composition which is partly a result of the above factors.

In 1800, the average age was only 16, while in 1960 the median age was less than 30. However, of greater concern are the changes that have been taking place and are still taking place in the age distribution of the population. Several trends were discernible in 1960 and have magnified since then. The percentage of the total population under 15 and over 65 has increased substantially. At the same time, the percentage in the 25-45 age range has decreased markedly. This changing composition is a manifestation of variable live birth rates during the 1920-1950 period, increasing life expectancy, and out-migration from the area. This has resulted in a decline of median age of the population from 30.2 years in 1950 to an estimated 27.2 years in 1965. As a result of this changing composition nationally, during the next fifteen-year period the 65 and over age group may be expected to increase by 27 percent, the 35-64 age group by only 8 percent, the 18-34 age group by about 17 percent, and the 13 and below group by about 11 percent.¹¹

Dr. Hanson noted in his study that Nebraska, along with the remainder of the four-state area, will be similar to the national progression with one major exception. The percent of the population 65 and over, already larger than the national average, will increase even more unless there is an alteration in out-migration rates of this group to warmer climates for retirement purposes.¹²

What can Nebraska expect in the future? The evidence would seem to indicate that the following generalization with regard to population could be expected: (1) the state can expect to record population increases at a rate substantially below the anticipated national growth rate. Factors which will contribute to this growth rate below the national level are continued out-migration of the 18-45 age range (the child-bearing age group) coupled with a declining birth rate; (2) the rural-to-urban movement will continue and by 1970 Nebraska can expect to reach the 70 percent urban level; (3) most communities of under 2,500 will decline in population, while those of 2,500 or above will likely be able to maintain a somewhat stable population or experience some growth, with the rate of growth increasing proportionately to the size of those communities above 2,500 in population; (4) the out-migration of the vital 18-45 year age group will continue unless substantial economic inputs are initiated within the state, creating jobs at the skilled and semi-skilled levels; (5) the two urban centers will continue to grow, but with a continued movement of the white population from the core of the cities to the suburban areas.¹³

In recent years increasing attention has been directed to research which would define larger geographic areas that might be used for economic consideration. Much of this research has resulted in the definition of trade centers which serve the people of a wide geographic area for major goods and services; it further defines the geographic area served by the trade center. Research in this area has been done by Evans of the University of Nebraska College of Agriculture, using techniques developed by Dr. Hugh Denney of the University of Missouri who has been involved in extensive research identifying growth centers. Also, Howard Ottoson who has worked extensively with the Great Plains Agricultural Council, has proposed fourteen viable economic areas for Nebraska that coincide with existing county boundaries.

The latest study has been conducted by the Nebraska Department of Economic Development. Map III shows twenty-six Planning and Development Regions as they have been delineated in the study.

The authors of the study have this to say with regard to it:

The purpose of this report is to tentatively delineate planning and development regions for Nebraska and thus provide guidance to private and public (Federal, State, and Local) sectors for planning and development efforts of all types. Guidance seems especially necessary at a time such as this, when a wide variety of such efforts are being launched after the delineation of a series of overlapping regions (or at times in a non-comprehensive patchwork method) in what sometimes appears to be a very arbitrary manner. The many economies resulting from greater uniformity in regionalization are obvious. They, of course, include those engendered by common or consistent basis (i.e., statistical and economic estimates) and in sharing planning facilities and resources.

The primary concept behind this study is to delineate small "building block" regions which can be combined in any number desired for types of functional planning. The possibility, and in fact necessity, of combining contiguous "building block" regions is based upon a recognition that a single region simply cannot be delineated that will be appropriate for all types of functional planning or development activities. Smaller regions and the combination thereof is a much better alternative.

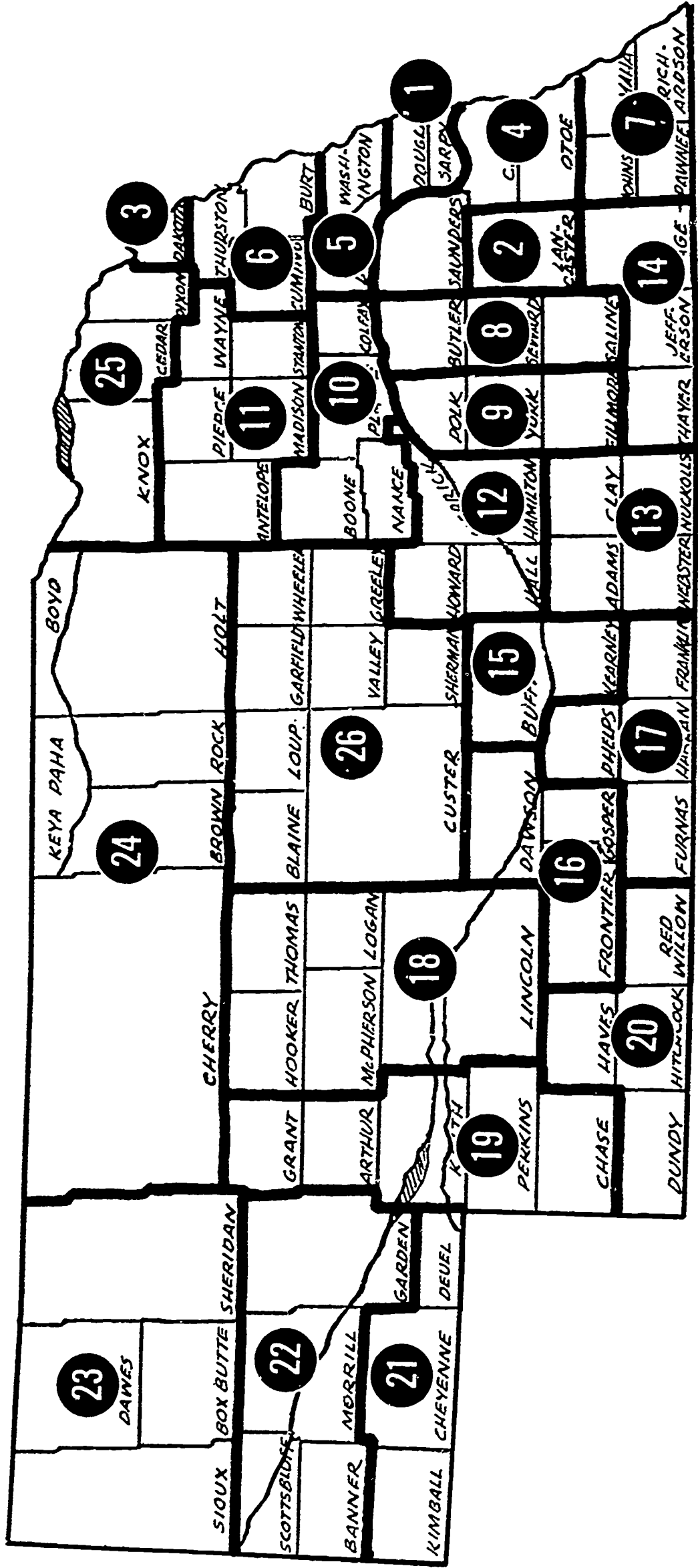
Each of the 26 "building blocks" designated within Nebraska utilizes county boundary lines and includes (where possible) a growing regional service center and its service-employment area *as it will exist in 1988* (the normal long-range planning projection period of twenty years). A "regional service center" for the purpose of this study is a community classified as at least a growing "complete shopping center" . . .

Among the most important considerations in delineating these regions was the practical application of the gravity model theory. Stated in simplest terms the *theory is that the potential for the interaction between one central place or area and all others in a particular study area is a direct function of the size of the central places and an inverse function of the distance between central places.*

Another important consideration concerns delineating the regions that include a metropolitan center; those regions conform to the current SMSA (Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area) boundaries as promulgated by the U. S. Bureau of the budget. A mass of statistics are already available for those geographic areas. Furthermore, metropolitan area planning efforts for SMSA's are required by the federal government as a prerequisite for local participation in numerous grant-in-aid programs. Adjacent counties were not included due

MAP III

NEBRASKA PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT REGIONS



to the fact they often have very different planning and development requirements than the urbanized central county or counties, even though they may be dependent upon the metropolitan center for many employment service functions. In addition, the exclusion of these adjacent non-SMSA counties from the region of the metropolitan centers (Omaha, Lincoln, and Sioux City) will encourage sustenance or creation of regional service centers in these border counties. Such centers are to be encouraged so as not to unnecessarily aggravate the congestion and concentration of activities within our metropolitan centers.¹⁴

Undoubtedly differences of opinion can be found concerning the delineation of the twenty-six building blocks as they have been designated by the Department of Economic Development; however, it is questionable that any delineation could win the acceptance of all governmental and private agencies. It is the opinion of the Great Plains staff that the units possess great potential and utility in planning for education, particularly at the intermediate level of organization, as well as for economic considerations.

Implications for Long-Range Educational Planning

When analyzing the available population data and trends of Nebraska, three factors essential to long-range educational planning emerge as having relevance to the demographic trends presently established and to those trends which would appear to continue.

- 1 Long-range educational planning should provide for an educational structure, when feasible, with sufficient pupil population to make it possible to provide an educational program which meets the modern needs of all children and youth with quality, with educational efficiency, and with economy of operation.

No one has yet presented an unchallenged size for a school district, but there are certain basic educational requirements that must be met if the school is to meet its objectives, and these are related to size

The school must be large enough to make it possible to offer a program of education from pre-kindergarten through at least grade twelve.

The program must include the basic general elementary and secondary curriculum, plus provision for appropriate services for the mentally and physically handicapped, a full-range of remedial and enrichment services for deprived and gifted children, and vocational education for pupils not planning to attend college

The size of the district should make it possible to provide the full-range of educational programs and services in order that the specialized personnel and technology required for a modern program can be utilized with efficiency and economy

Experience with school districts of various sizes and comparative evidence drawn from a study of them would indicate that those schools with the largest enrollments are most able to fulfill the above stated educational objectives with the greatest efficiency

and economy. There is furthermore the indication that Nebraska should strive for a school size that would bring together into the local district organization as many children and youth as is feasible, giving consideration to the factors of population density/sparsity and a reasonable time/distance factor.

2. The educational structure developed to meet the objectives for school programs and school size stated in the foregoing paragraphs should provide the stability needed for long-range educational planning.

The local administrative school district should be organized in such a way that it will be least affected by the population decline which is in evidence throughout most of Nebraska as a result of out-migration, migration from rural to urban, and a declining birth rate.

In order to achieve population stability or growth, it is imperative that prime consideration be given to the formation of administrative districts, wherever feasible, which would include at least one center of population which has demonstrated population stability or growth. In most areas of Nebraska, this would require that at least one city of 2,500 or above be included in each local administrative district.

This is essential if local districts are to be organized with a sufficient pupil enrollment and continue to maintain this enrollment. Such an enrollment is necessary to provide the scope and quality in educational programs that are essential to meet, not only the present day needs of our elementary and secondary youth, but also to be able to adapt to the changes that will come in the future.

A stable or growing population makes it easier to plan for the construction of school plants at locations where they can be expected to be utilized for a reasonable length of time. A stable or growing population enhances the chances of attracting and retaining the quality of professional staff necessary to provide a quality educational program. And a stable or growing population contributes to the financial stability of a school district; this stability is basic to the provision of any educational program.

There is little evidence to support the idea that communities of fewer than 2,500 people, unless they are in the sphere of influence of a major urban area will in the future show any appreciable population growth or even remain stable. Even those smaller communities which are showing growth because of the sphere of influence of larger urban areas should in most instances become a part of an educational structure which includes the larger urban areas. This is desirable because the smaller center is primarily a "bedroom" community, and the social, economic, and cultural influences are tied closely to the urban center. Experience has demonstrated that "bedroom" communities have been unable by themselves to provide an adequate taxable base to support educational programs with a reasonable tax levy.

Further consideration should be given, particularly in more sparsely settled areas, to the formation of administrative districts which might require, in order to have reasonable travel time, two or more secondary attendance centers. There are certain advantages in this type of arrangement, particularly when population sparsity makes it

difficult to bring together an adequate number of pupils in one center so that a comprehensive program of education can be provided with efficiency and economy. The limitations on program can be overcome to a large extent if more human, material, and financial resources from the administrative unit are used to remedy inadequacies of the small attendance unit.

Because of the population sparsity in some areas of Nebraska, and the obvious improbability of local administrative districts being formed there which could provide a complete program of educational services, it is imperative that Nebraska retain and strengthen the Educational Service Unit to supplement the programs and services of the local school districts.

3. The educational structure should be heterogeneous in its socio-economic composition and where possible in its racial and ethnic composition.¹⁵

As the urban centers of Nebraska continue to grow, and as the migration from the core city to the suburban area continues, increasing attention must be directed to planning for education in the urban areas. It is apparent that planning for education in the central cities cannot be isolated from the total urban complex. The interrelatedness of economic, social, cultural, and governmental ties necessitates serious consideration to seeking ways and means of using a metro approach to long-range educational planning if equitable educational opportunities are to be made available in our urban complexes.

CHAPTER VII

GUIDELINES, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

All social systems and educational organizations are related to a common goal, the provision of educational programs and services. Organization of a school system for a state cannot in itself guarantee needed educational opportunity for all children and youth, but adequate organization is basic to the planning for and the identification and implementation of broad programs and services to meet the educational needs of every child, regardless of where he lives.

To make possible the scope and quality of educational opportunities, experiences, and services needed, this study supports the following guidelines for implementing a desirable educational organization for Nebraska.

Guideline Number 1

ALL TERRITORY IN THE STATE OF NEBRASKA SHOULD BE ORGANIZED INTO LOCAL UNIT-TYPE SCHOOL DISTRICTS TO PROVIDE A PROGRAM OF EDUCATION EXTENDING FROM AT LEAST KINDERGARTEN THROUGH GRADE TWELVE. THE ORGANIZATION SHOULD INCLUDE A PUPIL POPULATION SUFFICIENTLY LARGE TO MAKE IT POSSIBLE TO PROVIDE AN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM WHICH MEETS - WITH QUALITY, EFFICIENCY, AND ECONOMY - THE PRESENT AND PROBABLE FUTURE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF ALL ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL CHILDREN AND YOUTH IN THE DISTRICT.

The local administrative district is the primary or basic unit of organization for the provision of education. Maximum local control can be exercised when the local district is strong enough to have jurisdiction over a major portion of the educational programs and services needed by the elementary and secondary children and youth residing in the district.

No one has yet presented an unchallenged minimum and maximum enrollment size for a school district. The evidence shows, however, that as the enrollment size increases up to 20,000 pupils, the local autonomy increases and the less dependent the district is upon the educational service unit and the state agency. On the other hand, the evidence shows that as the enrollment decreases below about 20,000 pupils, the more the district must depend on the intermediate unit and the state agency for the provision of programs and services.

The objective, then, should be to make each administrative district within the state large enough so that it can enjoy some fiscal independence and can support a program

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of education sufficiently comprehensive to meet the various needs of the children and youth from at least kindergarten through grade twelve. This, it must be emphasized, should be construed to include children of pre-kindergarten age.

It has been noted above that only local school districts with school populations of 20,000 can offer complete basic educational programs and services with maximum efficiency and economy, but the policy and decision-making process must not become too removed from the people. This will mean that in some areas of Nebraska sparsity and distribution of population make the attainment of this either impossible or at least undesirable.

In some areas of Nebraska, it will be possible to organize administrative districts enrolling from three to five thousand pupils. It is possible in this size of school district to provide minimum selected general, pre-vocational, and college preparatory programs of reasonably good quality. However, only limited specialized services such as special education programs, pupil personnel programs, limited administrative and supervisory services, and limited vocational programs can be made available, with efficiency and economy, in this size of district.

The evidence supports the conclusion that the administrative district, even in the most sparsely populated areas, should not be permitted to go below a total enrollment of 1,500 students. This size enrollment should support a high school graduating class of about 100.

Guideline Number 2

EACH LOCAL ADMINISTRATIVE DISTRICT SHOULD BE ORGANIZED TO INCLUDE A STABLE OR GROWING POPULATION CENTER IN ORDER TO RETAIN THE PUPIL ENROLLMENT NECESSARY TO PROVIDE, WITH EFFICIENCY AND ECONOMY, THE SCOPE AND QUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM NEEDED.

The local administrative school district should be organized in such a way that it will be least affected by the population decline which is in evidence throughout much of Nebraska as a result of out-migration, migration from rural to urban, and declining birth rates.

In order to achieve population stability or growth, it is imperative that prime consideration be given to the formation of administrative districts, wherever feasible, which would include at least one center of population which has demonstrated population stability or growth. In many areas of Nebraska, the communities showing population stability or growth are those cities of at least 2,500 or more. (*See Chapter VI.*)

In nearly every instance in Nebraska, at least one city with a population of 2,500 must be included if local districts are to be organized with a minimum enrollment of 1,500 students.

A stable or growing population makes it feasible to plan on a long-range basis for the construction of school plants at locations where they can be expected to be utilized for a reasonable length of time. A stable or growing population also enhances the chances of attracting and retaining the quality of professional staff necessary to provide a quality educational program. And a stable or growing population contributes to the financial stability of a school district; this stability is basic to the provision of any educational program.

Guideline Number 3

EACH LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICT SHOULD BE LARGE ENOUGH TO EFFICIENTLY JUSTIFY A PROFESSIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF OF SUFFICIENT SIZE, QUALITY, AND SPECIALIZATION TO PROVIDE THE LEADERSHIP NEEDED TO ESTABLISH AND IMPLEMENT LOCAL EDUCATIONAL POLICY

Through the leadership of the administrative staff, the goals and educational guidelines of the administrative district should be clearly established by the board of education and the people in the policy-making function. It then becomes the additional responsibility of the administrative staff to organize the human, material, and financial resources in the most efficient and effective manner to implement and accomplish these goals.

In Chapter V it was reported that the minimum administrative staff should include a superintendent of schools, an assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs, an assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, and at least one principal responsible for leadership at the elementary school level and at least one principal responsible for leadership at the secondary level.

As existing programs expand, as new programs develop, as the teaching and non-professional staffs increase, and as enrollments increase accordingly, it will be necessary to provide additional administrative personnel to develop and to evaluate particular goals in the internal organization, and to give specific leadership to such areas as personnel management, special services, and adult and continuing education.

Guideline Number 4

EACH ADMINISTRATIVE DISTRICT SHOULD HAVE SUFFICIENT ENROLLMENT AND FINANCIAL RESOURCES TO MAKE POSSIBLE THE ESTABLISHMENT AND MAINTENANCE OF APPROPRIATE ATTENDANCE CENTERS WHERE THEY ARE NEEDED, TAKING INTO CONSIDERATION FACTORS SUCH AS. (1) POPULATION SPARSITY OR DENSITY, (2) TIME/DISTANCE, AND (3) SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

Much experience has been accumulated about size of enrollment as a basic factor in school district organization. Various studies have indicated a direct relationship in both elementary and secondary school attendance centers, between size and curriculum breadth, size and quality, size and efficiency, and size and economy.

As indicated earlier in this report, research and studied observation of educational leaders indicate that an elementary attendance center should have as an optimum three to five sections per grade. This size unit should be provided wherever it is feasible within the limitations of reasonable travel time and distance. However, every administrative district should have the freedom to plan and to develop unique types of grouping patterns for elementary attendance centers to meet varying socio-economic and geographic conditions, to facilitate the establishment of new programs and new methodologies, and to justify on an economic basis the provision of a variety of materials and equipment. In sparsely populated areas it may be necessary to go below this figure, since the attendance center would be a part of an administrative district which would provide the needed supporting and human resources.

There is considerable evidence that attendance centers for secondary schools should be no smaller than 700 pupils. (A secondary attendance center can be organized for grades 7-9, 7-12, 9-12, or 10-12.) This is a realistic and an attainable goal in all but the most sparsely populated parts of Nebraska.

Evidence gives considerable support to the belief that in most sections of Nebraska an enrollment of 100 in the graduating class is a reasonable goal. The time/distance factor in those few sparsely populated areas of the state may necessitate attendance centers of fewer than 100 in the graduating class, but these centers must be a part of a larger administrative district in order to have the necessary human, material, and financial resources available to them.

As is the case with the elementary school attendance center, the administrative districts should have the freedom to plan and develop new and unique types of secondary school attendance centers to meet varying socio-economic and geographic conditions and to facilitate the institution of new programs, new methodologies, and the acquisition of needed instructional materials and equipment.

Many new and promising educational developments have emerged during the last few years; included among these are the ungraded primary unit, the middle school, and the educational park. Each administrative district should be large enough so that it can exercise the freedom to innovate and experiment with any or all of the significant variations from the accepted mode.

A major limiting factor that must be given consideration in the planning for attendance centers within the administrative district is that of time/distance. Maximum pupil travel time on school buses should remain a relatively constant factor, with distance being a variable in relation to the mode of travel, to road and highway conditions, and to routing techniques used. Pupil transportation must be carefully developed for the entire administrative district in order to avoid unnecessary duplication of routing and to assure the most efficient pattern for transporting pupils in the minimum amount of time. For example, circle bus routes, traveled by large capacity buses, within a few miles of the school and taking an hour's travel time, limit the efficiency of pupil transportation in terms of both time and distance. An administrative district should be

encouraged to employ any one or a combination of proven routing procedures such as: (1) shuttle routes, (2) spoke routes (from the outside to the inside), and (3) express routes (nonstop from a pick-up point to the center).

Pupil transportation time for secondary youth should probably not exceed one hour, one way, for more than about 10 percent of those transported. Transportation time for elementary students should ordinarily be somewhat less than that for secondary pupils. However, if in the judgment of the parents and the local school officials, the interests of the child can best be served by spending more time enroute, it should be possible to extend the travel time

It would appear that with the present design of conventional transportation vehicles and with existing roadway networks, an area transportation radius of 25 to 30 miles would be feasible for secondary attendance centers, utilizing efficient routing techniques. However, if lines of communication are such that greater distances can be traveled without jeopardizing the health or educational interests of boys and girls, transportation services might be extended to larger areas.

Guideline Number 5

SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION SHOULD CONTRIBUTE TO THE ADEQUATE AND EQUITABLE FINANCING OF PUBLIC EDUCATION, WITH FUNDS TO BE RECEIVED FROM FEDERAL, STATE, AND LOCAL SOURCES.

The problems of financial support for public education have always been with us and always will be. The problem is threefold: (1) to fairly and accurately determine the financial cost of the programs and services to be provided; (2) to fairly and accurately identify the changing sources of taxable wealth in our society; and (3) to equitably assess these sources for the support of the programs and services required to meet the approved educational needs

Nebraska has an abundance of examples of unfair and inequitable distribution of wealth in support of education, many of which are a direct result of the organization of the local school districts. Also, it is becoming more and more obvious that meeting the educational needs of some children will cost more money than others.

Experience and research show clearly that it is essential for us to have a balanced financial support for education, with funds from the federal, state, and local sources. Because the major share of support for public education has in most states, including Nebraska, come from local sources, and because local tax revenue is likely to continue to play an important role in financing education, it is imperative that Nebraska not permit administrative districts to be so organized that flagrant tax inequities arise.

Guideline Number 6

THE SUPPORTING AND COMPLEMENTARY UNIT FOR THE LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICT IN NEBRASKA SHOULD BE THE EDUCATIONAL SERVICE UNIT

The intermediate unit of educational organization in Nebraska, called the educational service unit, serves in a supporting role to the administrative districts.

Because it does not seem likely that most administrative districts will be organized with a sufficient enrollment to make it possible to provide complete educational programs and services in an efficient and economical manner, it is essential that Nebraska retain and strengthen its system of educational service units as well as to broaden its function. The educational service units should then provide those supplementary programs and services which cannot be provided at a quality level of excellence, with efficiency of organization and economy of operation, at the local administrative level. The educational service unit can also provide leadership for education on an area planning basis by interrelating activities with other governmental services and by performing area-wide community functions which serve the socio-economic area of which the unit is a part.

Some supporting programs and services that can be provided by the educational service unit are: (1) special education programs in those areas which have a low pupil incidence rate, such as the trainable mentally retarded and the severely emotionally handicapped; (2) psychological and testing services; (3) competent specialists in all program and service areas; (4) data processing; (5) curriculum development and research; (6) administrative services; (7) vocational-technical education, and (8) adult education.

Guideline Number 7

THE STATE AGENCY, IN THE FULFILLMENT OF ITS LEADERSHIP FUNCTION FOR EDUCATION, MUST BE ORGANIZED TO PROVIDE NEW AND EXTENDED LEADERSHIP SERVICES.

The upper unit in the state school organization is, of course, the Nebraska State Department of Education. The State Department performs many regulatory functions specifically delegated to it by the Constitution and by the Legislature. In addition, it performs a policy-making, leadership, and service role within the broad context of a statewide educational system.

If education is to remain a function of the state and if the state is to provide leadership which will assist in making possible educational programs of high quality, with efficiency and economy in the expenditure of the federal, state, and local tax dollar, then it is imperative that the State Department of Education, as the officially established agency of the state for education, be organized to fulfill the role of educational leadership for the state.

Educational problem-solving in any and all states necessitates a unified and coordinated approach to decision-making and to action for implementation. Just as our society is becoming increasingly interdependent, so is education becoming increasingly interdependent in all of its aspects. The state, having primary responsibility for education, must play a significant leadership role in effecting this unification and coordination of effort.

Educational planning and development in a state is dependent upon the cooperative and coordinated efforts of five general classifications of institutions and organizations: (1) all who represent the citizens of the state in the legislative assemblies; (2) all who officially represent the state for educational purposes at the state level, especially the State Board of Education and the State Department of Education; (3) all colleges and universities participating in the training and in-service growth and development of teachers and administrators; (4) all public school personnel, including board members, administrators, teachers, and service personnel; and (5) the related state and local organizations of citizens, labor, business, and industry who seek the improvement of educational opportunities for all boys and girls in the state. The state, as the agency responsible for education, should provide the leadership which will enable educational statesmanship to be exercised in this coordination and unification of effort on behalf of education in the state.

Notable efforts are being made for the strengthening of state departments of education. For example, the newly established Commission of the States is a major step in this direction. Title V, Section 505, of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, has as one of its primary purposes the strengthening of state departments. Additional federal monies most likely will be allocated under Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act for this same purpose in fiscal year 1969. The Nebraska Legislature has recognized the need for expanded services from the Nebraska Department of Education by providing in its last budget for an expanded program of services in special education, programs for the gifted, and school food services.

With school district organization patterned after the guidelines set forth in this statement, there will be a need for redefining and expanding professional leadership, services, and technical assistance from the State Department of Education. This will require highly trained personnel to serve the local administrative districts and the educational service units effectively and efficiently. Nebraska should immediately assess the increased requirements for services either by or from the State Department of Education in this new organizational structure, and proceed without delay to prepare and equip itself for the performance of this emerging role.

Education is a state responsibility. Its strength rests in the optimum performance of the leadership role at the state level, supported by strong administrative districts and intermediate units that provide comprehensive and equitable educational programs and services for all children and youth of the state. Education will continue to be a state function only as long as these conditions are met.

Recommendations

The Nebraska Report of the Great Plains School District Organization Project has been completed, and the data collected have been presented in this report and in other project publications. The seven guidelines for planning and implementing a statewide program of comprehensive school district reorganization have been presented in the preceding paragraphs.

If in the judgment of the people of the State of Nebraska and their Legislators these guidelines are valid and reasonable, active support will need to be given so that appropriate legislation can be enacted to facilitate their implementation. Recommendations are made for the consideration of the people and Legislators of Nebraska.

It is suggested:

1. That legislation be enacted to provide for:
 - a. all territory in the State of Nebraska to be included in local school districts organized to offer education from at least kindergarten through grade twelve;
 - b. a representative school district reorganization committee selected on a county, intermediate, or area basis which would be required to develop a comprehensive plan of school district reorganization;
 - c. a State Committee for School District Reorganization, appointed by either the Governor or the State Board of Education, which would be required to approve or veto all comprehensive school district reorganization plans developed by the area school district reorganization committees;
 - d. the adoption of guidelines for school district reorganization to be used in planning by the area and state committees for school district reorganization;
 - e. a popular election on all reorganization plans approved by the area and state committees for reorganization; with further provision to prohibit an election on plans vetoed by the State Committee for School District Reorganization;
 - f. a timetable for the inclusion of all territory in the state in local school districts which meet the guidelines as directed by the Legislature;
 - g. delegating authority to either the State Board of Education or the State Committee for School District Reorganization to reorganize by mandate, at the expiration of the established date, all territory within the state which is not a part of a local school district that meets the established guidelines;
 - h. funds to acquire sufficient staff at the state level to provide services to area reorganization committees in order that the task of statewide school district reorganization can be accomplished within the established time period.
2. That legislation be enacted to strengthen the educational service units. It is recommended that this can best be done by:
 - a. including all territory in the State of Nebraska in an educational service unit, with the possible exception of Omaha and Lincoln, and stabilizing the boundaries;

- b reducing the number of educational service units in order that each unit, with very few exceptions, will have a pupil population of at least 10,000;
 - c redrawing the educational service unit boundaries to conform with the building block concept set forth by the Nebraska Department of Economic Development.
- 3 That after careful study for the reallocation of those essential functions performed by the county superintendents, the office of the county superintendent be replaced and the essential functions be transferred to other appropriate agencies, such as the local school districts, other county offices, the educational service units, and the State Department of Education.

Suggestions for Further Study

As a result of this study, it is suggested that further studies be conducted to determine:

1. How and at which level of the state system of educational organization the training for technical job placement skills can be made available to best advantage for those youth of secondary school age who need and desire them.
2. The most desirable relationships and organizational structure for the provision of 13th and 14th year education in Nebraska (adult and continuing education, post high vocational and technical education, junior college, and community college)
3. The most desirable organizational pattern for coordinating higher education in Nebraska
4. Desirable alternatives to the existing patterns of external and internal organization in metropolitan, urban, and suburban areas

FOOTNOTES

INTRODUCTION

1 Carter V. Good (ed.), *Dictionary of Education*, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959), p. 182.

2 *Ibid.*

3 Term created by Nebraska State Department of Education in a brochure, *What is a School Attendance Center*

4 Edgar L. Morphet, Roe L. Johns, and Theodore C. Reller, *Educational Administrative Concepts, Practices, and Issues*, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959), p. 215.

5 Term created by the 1965 Nebraska Legislature at the recommendation of the late Dr. Merle A. Stoneman and Dr. Rosalie Farley who served as consultants to Senators Ross H. Rasmussen, Richard D. Marvel, and Henry F. Pederson, the introducers of Legislative Bill 301 of the 1965 session.

6 *Nebraska School Laws*, Chapter 79, Article 10, Section 2, Reissue Revised Statutes of Nebraska.

7 *Ibid.*

8 *Ibid.*

9 *Ibid.*

10 *Ibid.*

11 *Ibid.*

CHAPTER I

1 F. E. Henzlik, Leslie L. Chisholm, *Nebraska Looks at Her School Districts* (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1948), p. 18.

2 Millard D. Bell, *A Plan for the Reorganization of Administrative Units for the Schools of Nebraska* (New York, N. Y.: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), p. 25.

3 *Ibid.*, p. 26.

4 Merle A. Stoneman, "The Progress of School District Reorganization in Nebraska" (Lincoln, Nebraska: Teachers College, University of Nebraska, October, 1964), pp. 5-7. (Mimeographed)

5 *Nebraska Laws*, 1881, Chapter 78, Subsection VIII, Section 1.

6 *Reissue Revised Statutes of Nebraska*, 1943 and *Amendments Thereto*, Chapter 79, Article 3, Sections 12-18 and Article 4, Sections 2-26.

7 Legislative Bill 301, 1965 Nebraska Legislature.

8 Ginger Jensen, *Development of Nebraska Education* (Lincoln, Nebraska: Nebraska State Department of Education, 1968), pp. 1-5. (Mimeographed.)

9 *Ibid.*

10 Stoneman, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

11 *Ibid.*, pp. 20-36.

12 *Ibid.*

13 *Ibid.*

14 *Ibid.*

15 *Ibid.*

16 Henzlik and Chisholm, *op. cit.*, pp. 3-6.

17 Jensen, *op. cit.*, pp. 37-38.

18 LB 279, Nebraska Legislature, 1953.

19 LB 892, Nebraska Legislature, 1965.

20 Stoneman, *op. cit.*, pp. 7-11.

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1 Rosalie Farley, "Elementary Education and School District Organization" (A position paper prepared for the Great Plains Project, 1967), p. 8. (Mimeographed.)

2 Franklin Stone, "Secondary Education and School District Organization" (A position paper prepared for the Great Plains Project, 1967), p. 5. (Mimeographed.)

3 *Ibid.*, p. 47.

4 Floyd A. Miller, "The New Role of the Nebraska State Department of Education," *The Annual Report of the State Board of Education to the Governor of the State of Nebraska for the Fiscal Year Commencing July 1, 1964 and Ending June 30, 1965* (Lincoln, Nebraska: The Nebraska State Department of Education), pp. 14-15.

CHAPTER III

1 Charles O. Fitzwater, "Patterns and Trends in State School System Development," *Journal on State School Systems Development* (National Education Association, Department of Rural Education, Vol. 1, No. 1, Spring, 1967), pp. 14-15.

2 *Ibid.*, pp. 15-16.

3 *Ibid.*, pp. 18-20.

4 *Ibid.*, pp. 22-23.

5 *Ibid.*, p. 6.

6 William Inman, *Size and School District Organization* (U. S. Office of Education, 1966), p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

7 *Ibid.*, p. 25.

8 William Inman, *Size and State School System Organization* (Lincoln, Nebraska: A position paper developed for the Great Plains School District Organization Project, 1968), pp. 20-21. (Mimeographed.)

CHAPTER IV

1 *Annual Report, 1967* (Redwood City, California: The Ampex Corporation, 401 Broadway), Chart 3, p. 4.

2 *A Master Plan for School District Organization in Ohio* (Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio Manufacturers Association, October, 1966), Appendix VII, p. 174.

CHAPTER VI

1 Ellis G. Hanson, *Peoples - Places - Perspectives: The Great Plains States* (Lincoln, Nebraska: The Great Plains School District Organization Project, 1968), Introduction.

2 *Ibid.*, p. 3.

3 *Ibid.*, p. 1.

4 *Ibid.*, p. 2.

5 *Ibid.*, pp. 1-9.

6 *Ibid.*

7 *Ibid.*

8 *Ibid.*, p. 16.

9 *Ibid.*, p. 9.

10 *Ibid.*, pp. 9-12.

11 *Ibid.*, pp. 16-17.

12 *Nebraska Planning and Development Regions* (Lincoln, Nebraska: Nebraska Department of Economic Development, 1968), p. 1.

13 Hanson, *op. cit.*, pp. 24-26.

14 *Nebraska Planning and Development Regions, loc. cit.*

15 *Know Your Schools*, Fact Sheet No. 9 (Washington, D. C.: National Committee for Support of the Public Schools, June, 1967), p. 2.

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2 *Ibid.*, p. 16.

3 William Inman, *Size and School District Organization* (U. S. Office of Education, 1966), p. 3. (Mimeographed.)

4 *Ibid.*, p. 5.

5 *Ibid.*, p. 12.

6 *Ibid.*, p. 14.

7 *Ibid.*, p. 19.

8 *Ibid.*, p. 21.

9 Ellis G. Hanson, *Peoples – Places – Perspectives: The Great Plains States* (Lincoln, Nebraska: The Great Plains School District Organization Project, 1968), p. 8.

10 Pearl F. Finigan, Director, *Nebraska Agricultural Statistics, Annual Report 1964* (Lincoln, Nebraska: State-Federal Division of Agricultural Statistics, 1966), p. 78.

11 Hanson, *op. cit.*, p. 12.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

LIST OF POSITION PAPERS DEVELOPED FOR THE GREAT PLAINS SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION PROJECT AND THE AUTHORS

<i>Author</i>	<i>Position Paper</i>	<i>Title and Address</i>
THOSE DEVELOPED FOR THE PROJECT OFFICE		
1. Beckmann, Milton	<i>Mathematics and School District Organization</i>	Professor of Education and Supervisor of Math, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska 68508
2. Boles, Donald E.	<i>Implication of Political Science, Sociology and Economics for Structure and Organization in Education</i>	Professor of Government Iowa State University Ames, Iowa 50010
3. Denney, Hugh	<i>Demographic Factors</i>	School of Social and Community Services, University of Missouri Columbia, Missouri 65201
4. Englehardt, George	<i>School Buildings and School District</i>	Director, School Building Services, State Department of Education, Jefferson City, Missouri 65101
5. Farley, Rosalie	<i>Elementary Education and School District Organization</i>	Associate Professor, Elementary Education, Teachers College, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska 68508
6. Ferguson, John	<i>Basic Requirements for an Adequate Pupil Personnel Program</i>	Professor of Education, College of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri 65201
7. Jakubauskas, Edward B.	<i>The Implications of Manpower Supply and Demand Upon Vocational-Technical Education in the West North Central States Region</i>	Professor of Economics and Director, Industrial Relations Center, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa 50010
8. Karel, Leon	<i>The Arts-Humanities in the Public Schools and School District Organization</i>	Allied Arts Certification, Northeast State College, Kirksville, Missouri 63501
9. Kipling, Cecil	<i>An Optimum Reading Program for Grades K-12 and School District Organization</i>	Professor of Education, School of Education, University of South Dakota, Vermillion, South Dakota 57069
10. Manatt, Richard	<i>A Study of Administrative Costs in Selected School Districts of South Dakota, Iowa and Missouri</i>	Assistant Professor of Educational Administration, Iowa State University, 220 Curtiss Hall, Ames, Iowa 50010
11. Purdy, Ralph D.	<i>Needs to be Met</i>	Director, Great Plains School District Organization Project, 411 South 13th Street, Room 100, Lincoln, Nebraska 68508

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13. Shoemaker, Byrl	<i>Vocational-Technical Education and School District Organization</i>	Past President, American Vocational Association, Director, Division of Vocational Education, State Department of Education, Columbus, Ohio 43200
14. Stephens, Robert	<i>The Emerging Regional Educational Service Agency: The Newest Member of the Restructured State School System</i>	Department of Educational Administration, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa 52240
15. Stone, Franklin D.	<i>Secondary Education and School District Organization</i>	Associate Director, Iowa Center for Research in School Administration, College of Education, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa 52240
16. Swartz, Alfred	<i>Quality in Education</i>	Dean, College of Education, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa 50309
17. Turner, Harold E.	<i>The Relationship of Curriculum to School District Organization</i>	Chairman, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, University of Missouri at St. Louis, 8001 Natural Bridge Rd., St. Louis, Missouri 63100
18. Whitt, Robert L.	<i>Business Administration and School District Organization</i>	College of Education, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa 50309
19. Levine, Daniel V. Havighurst, Robert	<i>Implications of Social Changes for School District Organization</i>	Center for the Study of Metropolitan Problems in Education, University of Missouri at Kansas City, 5100 Rockhill Road, Kansas City, Missouri 64110
THOSE DEVELOPED FOR THE IOWA PROJECT OFFICE		
1. Bolton, Bernard	<i>Secondary Education in Iowa</i>	Co-Chairman, Iowa Association of Secondary School Principals; Principal, Thomas Jefferson High School, 2601 Broadway, Council Bluffs, Iowa 51501
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4. Grosland, David	<i>Educational Needs of Iowa</i>	Chairman, Iowa Classroom Teachers Association; Teacher, Roosevelt High School, 4419 Center Street, Des Moines, Iowa 50312
5. Hanson, Ellis G.	<i>Demographic Study</i>	Iowa Director, Great Plains Project, Department of Public Instruction, State Office Building, Des Moines, Iowa 50310
6. Maxey, E. James	<i>Iowa Curriculum & NCA Innovative Practice Study</i>	Measurement Research Center, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa 52240
Thomas, Donald		Project Administrator, Iowa Educational Information Center, Iowa City, Iowa 52240
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3. Summers, Arthur L.	<i>Effective Legislation for School District Reorganization</i>	State Director, Great Plains School District Organization Project, State Department of Education, P. O. Box 480, Jefferson City, Missouri 65101
4. Young, Harold	<i>School Finance</i>	Director of Field Services, Central Missouri State College, Warrensburg, Missouri 64093
Morton, R. Clark		Professor of Education, Central Missouri State College, Warrensburg, Mo. 64093
5. Denney, Hugh	<i>A Method for Visualizing a Statewide School Reorganization Plan</i>	Associate Professor, Regional and Community Affairs, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri 65201
6. Denney, Hugh	<i>The Changing Scale of Communities and the Need for Continuing School Readjustments</i>	Same as above

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7. Haynes, W. E.	<i>The Effect of Pupil Transportation Upon School District Reorganization</i>	Assistant Director of Pupil Transportation State Department of Education, Jefferson City, Missouri 65101
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1. Culver, Gordon F.	<i>Business Education for Tomorrow's World</i>	Professor & Chairman, Department of Business Teacher Education, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska 68508
2. Goldenstein, Erwin H.	<i>School District Organization and Goals of Social Competence</i>	Chairman, Department of History and Philosophy of Education, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska 68508
3. Hamon, Esther	<i>English</i>	President, Nebraska Council of Teachers in English, Extension Division, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska 68508
4. Moreland, Willis	<i>Social Studies</i>	Department of Secondary Education, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska 68508
5. Parrish, Edwin	<i>Vocational Education – The Bridge Between Man and His Work</i>	Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Vocational Education, Omaha Public Schools, Omaha, Nebraska 68102
6. Peterson, Paul O.	<i>An Adequate Health Program for Nebraska Schools</i>	Associate Professor of Physical Education, Dana College, Blair, Nebraska 68008
7. Phelps, H. Vaughn	<i>Administrative Structure for Comprehensive Educational Services</i>	Superintendent of Schools, Westside Community Schools, 78th & Cass Street, Omaha, Nebraska 68114
8. Prichard, Keith	<i>Education for the Culturally Deprived</i>	Department of History and Philosophy of Education, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska 68508
9. Robertson, Billy O.	<i>School Media Programs as a Factor in School District Organization</i>	Coordinator of Library Services, Lincoln Public Schools, Lincoln, Nebraska 68510
10. Russell, Lester F.	<i>Industrial Arts and School District Organization</i>	Associate Professor of Industrial Arts, Peru State College, Peru, Nebraska 68421
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14	Wear, Carl	<i>The Physical Education Program Grades K-12</i>	Chairman, Department of Physical Education for Men, University of Nebraska Lincoln, Nebraska 68508
15	Whitmore, Helen	<i>The Essentials of a Quality Art Education Program</i>	Art Teacher at Hastings Junior High School, 1133 N. Bellevue, Hastings, Nebraska 68901

**THOSE DEVELOPED FOR THE
SOUTH DAKOTA PROJECT
OFFICE**

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2	Nelson, Gordon	<i>School Finance in South Dakota</i>	Ex-Secretary, Associated School Boards of South Dakota, Huron, South Dakota 57350
3	Poling, E. Gordon	<i>Guidance & Counseling</i>	Professor, Department of Ed. Psych. and Guidance, School of Education, University of South Dakota, Vermillion, South Dakota 57069
4	Riley, Marvin	<i>The Migration of Young Adults, 1950-60</i>	Professor, South Dakota State University, Brookings, South Dakota 57006
	Pew, James		Graduate Student, Same Address
5	Ruark, Roger Mrs.	<i>School Libraries in South Dakota</i>	School Librarian, Mitchell, South Dakota 57301
6	Scholten, Marvin	<i>Standards for School Districts</i>	Extension Research, South Dakota State University, Brookings, South Dakota 57006
7	Strobel, Otto	<i>Intermediate Service Units</i>	County Superintendent, Leola, South Dakota 57456

APPENDIX B

LIST OF EDUCATORS WHO ASSISTED GREAT PLAINS PROJECT

Jury of recognized educational authorities who met with and consulted with the Great Plains School District Organization staff to assist with the translation of educational needs into specifics with regard to programs and services.

W. E. Bishop, *Superintendent of Schools*, Englewood, Colorado.

William Emerson, *Superintendent of Oakland County Schools*, Pontiac, Michigan.

Robert Gilchrist, *Director*, Mid-Continent Regional Education Laboratory, Kansas City, Missouri.

Thomas Quick, *Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction*, The State Department of Education, Columbus, Ohio; *President*, National Education Association, County and Intermediate Unit Superintendents.

Arnold W. Salisbury, *Superintendent*, Cedar Rapids City Schools, Cedar Rapids, Iowa; *President*, The American Association of School Administrators.

E. C. Stimbert, *Superintendent of Memphis City Schools*, Memphis, Tennessee; *Member Executive Committee*, American Association of School Administrators.