

In 1930, the proportion of those living in medium to large cities (over 50,000) was 34.9%; in 1940 it was 34.4%; in 1950 it was 35.7% and in 1960 it was 36.2%.

In other words, the increase in urban population can be accounted for in the growth of small rather than large cities.

A second major characteristic of the change in population is that the rural sector has become primarily non-farm.

In the past 70 years, while U.S. total population has increased from 76 million to 203 million, and urban population from 30 million to 149 million, the rural population has remained steady at just about 50 million. The farm sector of the rural population, however, has declined from 46 million in 1900, or three-fourths of the rural total, to fewer than 10 million, only one-fifth of the rural population.

TABLE -- 2

Population of the United States by Urban and Rural Residence 1900-70
(In thousands)

	Total	Urban	Rural- Farm	Rural- Non-Farm
1900.....	76,212	30,215	45,997	
1910.....	92,228	42,064	50,164	
1920.....	106,022	54,253	31,978	19,790
1930.....	123,203	69,161	30,529	23,513
1940.....	132,165	74,705	30,547	26,912
New definition: ¹				
1950.....	151,326	96,847	23,048	31,431
1960.....	179,323	125,269	15,635	38,410
1970 ²	203,166	149,281	9,712	44,173

¹Under the current definition, the urban population is comprised of all persons living in urbanized areas and in places of 2,500 inhabitants or more outside of urbanized areas. In previous years, the urban population was comprised of all persons living in incorporated places of 2,500 inhabitants or more. In both definitions, the population not classified as urban constitutes the rural population.

²Preliminary.

Source: U.S. Censuses of Population, 1960-1970.

(See the appendix which gives the Rural Population Distribution in the United States based on the 1970 Census.)

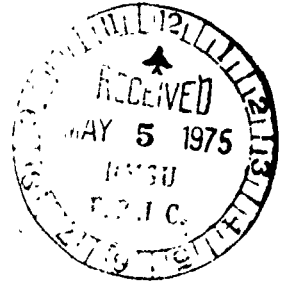
ED108826

CONFERENCE PAPER

"WHAT IS HAPPENING IN RURAL EDUCATION TODAY: A STATUS REPORT"

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.



BY

LEWIS R. TAMBLYN

Presented At

The Rural Education Conference
Southern Illinois University
Carbondale, Illinois
April 24-25, 1975

RC008832

PART I

WHAT IS HAPPENING IN RURAL EDUCATION TODAY

A STATUS REPORT

One of the more difficult tasks encountered in discussing "Rural" is one of definition. "Rural" when applied to the United States is subject to various interpretations depending upon one's frame of reference. Although most people understand the concept "Rural" they cannot define it precisely. It has different meanings when viewed historically, statistically, or philosophically or pragmatically. For example, a statistician might look at the decline of the number of farms in 1940 (6 million) to the 3 million in 1969 and project that by the year 2000, the number of farms will be reduced to a million or less.

Or one could assume from the decline in the number of 1 room schools from 147,711 in 1930 to less than 2,000 today that "Rural Education" exists no longer, or at best, has little significance for the future of the nation.

Or looking at population trends, one could conclude that since the farm population has declined from 31,978,000 in 1920 to the 9,712,000 in 1970, accounting for only 4.7% of our population, Rural can be ignored.

According to the definition used in the 1940 Census, urban population had been limited to all persons living in incorporated places of 2,500 inhabitants or more and in other areas classified as urban under special rules relating to population size and density. The remaining area of the country was classified as rural. The definition of urban area used in the 1940 Census was adopted at the time of the 1910 Census.

According to the new urban-rural definition adopted for the 1950 Census, the urban population comprises all persons living in (1) places of 2,500 inhabitants

or more incorporated as cities, borough, and villages; (2) incorporated towns of 2,500 inhabitants or more except in New England, New York and Wisconsin, where "towns" are simply minor civil divisions of counties; (3) the densely settled urban fringe, including both incorporated and unincorporated areas, around cities of 50,000 or more; and (4) unincorporated places of 2,500 inhabitants or more outside any urban fringe. The remaining population is classified as rural.

The rural population is divided into the rural-farm population, which comprises all rural residents living on farms, and the rural-nonfarm population, which comprises the remaining rural population. The definition of farm and nonfarm residents used in the 1950 Census differs somewhat from that used in earlier surveys and censuses. Persons on "farms" who were paying cash rent for their house and yard only were classified as nonfarm, as were persons in institutions, summer camps, motels, and tourist camps.

The Census definition of rural and urban and farm and nonfarm have largely lost their meaning, except for purposes of decennial comparisons. This is, however, a sufficient justification for their continual usage.

With the lack of reality in the established definitions of rural and urban, it would seem to make more sense to divide the population initially into metropolitan and non-metropolitan. These are fairly easy distinctions to make. Non-metropolitan or the new rural would be defined as in the 1970 Census as people and places outside or counties containing a city of 50,000 or more inhabitants. Such a definition would substantially increase the rural population. The rural non-metropolitan population could then be arrayed by size of place including those living on farms.

When this is done the population of the United States by residence would be portrayed as in Table 1. Some 63.8 million would be rural-non-metropolitan.

This is 31.4 percent of the total population. The metropolitan population would comprise 68.6 percent of the total U. S. population for 1970.

Table 1. — 1970 Population of the United States by residence: metro, nonmetro, rural nonfarm and rural farm ^{1/}

	Metro	Nonmetro	Total
	Million		
Urban places of at least 50,000	73.3	—	73.3
All other urban population	49.7	26.3	76.0
Rural nonfarm (places of less than 2,500, open country, except farms)	14.9	30.7	45.6
Rural farm ^{2/}	1.5	6.8	^{3/} 8.3
Total	139.4	63.8	203.2

^{1/} Residence definitions used in the 1970 Census. Rural figures are corrected and do not correspond to originally published Census figures.

^{2/} A farm is (a) a rural place of at least 10 acres that sold at least \$50 worth of agricultural products in the reporting year or (b) any rural place that sold at least \$250 worth of agricultural products in the reporting year.

^{3/} Note that this estimation of the farm population is significantly less than the 1970 count of 9.7 million as given in Current Population Reports, Farm Population, Series Census-ERS, P-27, No. 44, June 1973, p. 1.

Source: 1970 Census of Population. Developed in ERS, 1/24/74.

Figure 1 (See Appendix A) Shows population growth, 1960-1970, within the metropolitan classifications. Fringe areas of large metro areas grew most rapidly with a gain of 35.5 percent. Medium and small metro areas gained by 17.5 and 15.4 percent respectively while urbanized non-metro near an SMSA gained 12.3 percent. Rural and small city areas near a standard metropolitan statistical area (SMSA) gained only 4.0 percent. The same areas not near an SMSA lost slightly 0.5 percent, and all rural not near an SMSA lost some 4.4 percent.

(See Appendix B for a more detailed explanation of this new definition)

Irrespective of the definition used, "Rural means people. It includes men and women following every occupation known who choose to live beyond city limits in housing subdivisions, in towns, and in the open country. It means people with a strong desire for privacy, living space, and self-reliance. It means people with a pride in home and family. It means people looking for opportunity who have left the country for the city. Rural means America, our history and much of our dreams.

"Thus, the rural distinction is important because it represents so much of what America has been as well as what it hopes to be. Rural means life at a scale that is comprehensible to the individual. It is important that we preserve and strengthen this option." (Coop, James A., "The Meanings of Rural....A Third of Our Nation" 1970 Yearbook of Agriculture.)

Yes - rural means people - millions of them, enough collectively to be the world's ninth largest country. Swanson says

Although declining, its total population still exceeds the combined population of America's 100 largest cities. It is large enough so that rural America may be classified as the world's ninth largest country. (Only China, India, U.S.S.R., U.S., Japan, Indonesia, Pakistan and Brazil have total populations that exceed the rural population of the U.S.). No country in Europe, and only one in Latin America (Brazil) has a total population that exceeds the size of America's rural population. (Swanson, Gordon I.. "Rural Education News" Vol. 22 # 1, March 1970)

What is the picture if we look at population density?

The accepted minimum measurement of an urban environment is population density of 1,000 or more per square mile. The measure of sub-urbanization is a population of 500 per square mile. Approximately one-third of the states, 17 to be exact, do not contain a single county with a population density of 500 persons per square mile. Twenty-three states have a density of less than 100 persons per square mile. (IBID)

The major characteristic of change in U.S. population since World War I has been urbanization. However, the growth of urban population is not a result of population increases in our largest cities. The proportion of the population living in cities over 1 million has experienced a decline since 1930, from 12.3% in 1930 to 9.8% in 1960. Moreover, the proportion of individuals residing in cities of 50,000 or more has remained relatively stable since 1930.

In 1930, the proportion of those living in medium to large cities (over 50,000) was 34.9%; in 1940 it was 34.4%; in 1950 it was 35.7% and in 1960 it was 36.2%.

In other words, the increase in urban population can be accounted for in the growth of small rather than large cities.

A second major characteristic of the change in population is that the rural sector has become primarily non-farm.

In the past 70 years, while U.S. total population has increased from 76 million to 203 million, and urban population from 30 million to 149 million, the rural population has remained steady at just about 50 million. The farm sector of the rural population, however, has declined from 46 million in 1900, or three-fourths of the rural total, to fewer than 10 million, only one-fifth of the rural population.

TABLE -- 2

Population of the United States by Urban and Rural Residence 1900-70
(in thousands)

	Total	Urban	Rural-Farm	Rural-Non-Farm
1900.....	76,212	30,215	45,997	
1910.....	92,228	42,064	50,164	
1920.....	106,022	54,253	31,978	19,790
1930.....	123,203	69,161	30,529	23,513
1940.....	132,165	74,705	30,547	26,912
New definition: ¹				
1950.....	151,326	96,847	23,048	31,431
1960.....	179,323	125,269	15,635	38,410
1970 ²	203,166	149,281	9,712	44,173

¹Under the current definition, the urban population is comprised of all persons living in urbanized areas and in places of 2,500 inhabitants or more outside of urbanized areas. In previous years, the urban population was comprised of all persons living in incorporated places of 2,500 inhabitants or more. In both definitions, the population not classified as urban constitutes the rural population.

²Preliminary.

Source: U.S. Censuses of Population, 1960-1970.

(See the appendix which gives the Rural Population Distribution in the United States based on the 1970 Census.)

Unfortunately, the typical attitude of many urban dwellers toward rural communities is one of nostalgia. The term "rural" brings to the mind's eye a picture of endless fields of wheat or corn, contented cows grazing in lush green pastures, and decent God-fearing people tilling the soil and living the "good life." So too, rural communities elicit pictures of quaint, charming and delightful villages, the landscape dotted with small churches with white steeples, small schools, together with an uncomplicated, simple way of life. For many people, the typical belief is that Rural America is an anachronism in our urban society, a piece of America of long ago, although yearned for by many urbanites.

If asked about today's rural communities many have only a vague notion of what they are like while others recall the plight of the migratory farm worker; the attempts to unionize the grape workers in California; or the poverty of Appalachia. Many other people think of situations like "Mayberry R. F. D." with its Andy, Floyd, George and Aunt Beas--simple, uncomplicated folks from a middle class town having a few real problems--who are "doing just fine, thank you."

One can see traces of this nostalgia toward rural life in the movements toward organic foods, community schools, arts and crafts of yesteryear, decentralization of government, and the return to nature syndrome. Increasing numbers of people in urban areas beset by one frustration after another--crime in the streets, unemployment, boredom--having developed an emotional yearning to return to a rural environment which is seen as strong, secure, self-sufficient and above all free--where one is free to live his life in harmony with nature.

People, whether they be urbanites, suburbanites, or ruralites, should have alternate life styles. But these alternative life styles should be based upon fact not fiction, upon reality not fantasy.

Today's rural communities must be examined in terms of today's realities; not of myths. It must be understood that these myths have, in part at least, caused the human tragedy that permeates rural communities today. This tragedy can be shown through the high rate of poverty, illiteracy, malnutrition, underemployment, infant mortality, economic exploitation, migration, and lack of opportunity for "the people left behind."

There is one myth that is the core of all other myths. That is, at that point in time when we as a nation decided that we indeed had become an urban nation, the transition from rural to urban had been completed. We left Rural America behind, forgotten, to shift for itself. We assumed that it could maintain its most basic characteristics - a self-sufficient, prosperous, independent, small, stable, community-centered society, supported by a family farm-based economy.

This is the point at which our memory and our nostalgia crystalized--neither seeing nor understanding the changes taking place. This was a false assumption, for it is tragically clear that Rural America as it has been traditionally conceived and run is well nigh non-existent today.

More and more the large industrial complexes and corporations have invaded rural areas and have threatened the family farm as the mainstay of Rural America. Agribusiness, in many senses, has come to dominate agriculture. It is the disparity between these two perspectives that accounts in large measure for the differences in the concept of rural as people envision it and as it actually exists.

Howard Dawson, one of the outstanding Rural Education leaders, suggests that there are two clearly identifiable characteristics of Rural America irrespective of the definition used:

The first is relatively low density of population. Rural people live in smaller groups and farther apart than city people.

The second characteristic is that rural people are primarily engaged in farming, or extracting natural resources, or in processing resources of the immediate surroundings, or in performing services for people so engaged. This concept includes open country, farm villages and communities or people engaged in mining, lumbering, fishing, and related processing activities, and also the people engaged in personal, professional, and business services in such communities.

Unfortunately, all too often, "Rural" and "Rural Education" are discussed as if they are discrete, separate entities. Actually they are inextricably interwoven and inter-related. Thus, it is necessary to take a look, however brief, at rural people and their economic plight, prior to discussing the educational programs available to them.

The most authoritative, single document, which addresses itself to the rural scene is contained in the final report of the President's Commission on Rural Poverty entitled "The People Left Behind" (1967). Although compiled several years ago, much of their documentation is still pertinent to the rural scene today. The Commission paints a bleak picture of the conditions existing in rural areas of our country by status: "Rural poverty is so wide spread and so acute as to be a national disgrace, and the consequences have swept into our cities violently.... Rural poverty is acute in the South, but it is present and serious in the East, West and the North...." In short, it is scattered throughout our country. Most of the rural low income groups are white, but poverty is particularly acute among the white of Appalachia and the Ozarks, the Negroes of the South, and the Spanish speaking and Indians of the Southwest. It especially affects agricultural migrants, the share croppers, farm laborers, and rural industrial workers.

Findings of the Commission include:

- (a) Close to 14,000,000 Americans are poor (annual income less than \$3,000), with a high proportion of them destitute.

- (b) There is more poverty proportionally in rural America than in our cities. In metropolitan areas, one person in eight is poor and in the suburbs the ratio is one to fifteen; in rural areas, one in every four is poor.
- (c) Some 30 percent of our population lives in rural areas, but 40 percent of the nation's poor live there. Within this total, there are nearly 3,000,000 families plus 1,000,000 unattached persons.
- (d) Most rural poor people live in small towns and villages, with only one in four of these families living on a farm.
- (e) Of the 14,000,000 rural poor, there are 11,000,000 whites.
- (f) The usual cutoff for determining a family as being poor is an annual income of approximately \$3,000 per family.
- (g) Yet, in rural America, 70 percent of the poor struggle on less than \$2,000 per year and one family in four exists on less than \$1,000 per year. The rural poor who lack education either concentrate on low-paying jobs in rural areas or swell the ranks of the underemployed in the urban areas.
- (h) Negroes, American Indians, and Mexican Americans suffer even more than low-income whites from unemployment and underemployment, with their schooling usually being less than that of whites in areas of rural poverty.
- (i) For many rural children, hunger is a daily fact of life and sickness is expected. Many of the children are not only hungry, in pain, and ill, but also their lives are being shortened. They are losing their health, energy, spirits, and are dying directly or indirectly from hunger and disease. The children are starving to death!

In metropolitan areas, one out of every eight is poor; in rural areas, it is one out of every four.

Families living on farms are, on the average, the poorest; they have only half as much money as do rural non-farm families.

Unemployment and underemployment in rural areas is much greater than in the rest of the country. Rural underemployment also is heavier than the national average, due in large part, to the seasonal nature of much of the available work and to the general inaccessibility of full-time remunerative work.

Rural poverty is a problem of major proportions which affects the individual as well as the community in which he lives. The larger the community, the more readily available are its social services. Conversely, the poorest, most isolated communities have the fewest services, at the highest per capita cost, although they are least able to pay for them. Migration to the cities of young adults in the productive ages has left behind a large proportion of those in dependent categories, including children as well as the aged. The needs of these groups are great; their resources are limited.

The relative isolation of many rural communities, their prevailing cultural level, their relative population decline, their scarcity of local leadership, their inadequate tax base, their economically irrelevant political boundaries, their shortage of well qualified personnel and their resistance to change have, in effect, conspired to keep public services inadequate: schools are poor; transportation is often unavailable; and health and social services are frequently nonexistent.

The shortage of resources is illustrated in a number of ways, for example, in a relatively recent housing survey it was found that only half of all rural homes--and only 11 percent of those inhabited by nonwhites--were in sound condition, with complete plumbing.

In the area of health, the data illustrate what is generally true for all kinds of rural services; they are greatly inferior to those in the cities. Only 12 percent of this country's physicians, and 18 percent of the nurses, serve rural

areas. Large metropolitan centers, in 1962 had 195 physicians, rural areas had only 53 per 100,000 population.

The Hill-Burton Act, in building hospitals, met some of the most critical needs for hospital beds, yet isolated rural counties still have only half as many general hospital beds per 1,000 population as do metropolitan areas.

Clearly, greater efforts and new organizational patterns and strategies must be found to bring adequate services to American rural communities.

A larger proportion of rural youths is disadvantaged than is the case for those in the metropolitan areas. Community services available to them, as illustrated above, are greatly inferior to those for young people in the rest of the country. Schools are the one public agency which touch the lives of most families, yet rural education suffers from all the problems which beset other rural institutions.

"Rural adults and youth are the product of an educational system that has historically short-changed rural people. The extent to which rural people have been denied equality of education opportunity is evident from both the products of the educational system and the resources that go into the system. On both counts, the quality of rural education ranks low." (People Left Behind, p. 4)

Additional findings of the Committee include:

- (a) Schooling in low-income areas is as inadequate as incomes! Rural people generally have poorer schooling and are more severely handicapped by lack of education than are city people. Few rural poor adults have attained the general rural average of 8.8 years of schooling.
- (b) Low educational levels seem to be self-perpetuating. When the head of a rural poor family has no schooling, his children are handicapped in their efforts to get an education.

- (c) Rural people, handicapped educationally, have an especially difficult time acquiring new skills, getting new jobs, or otherwise adjusting to society's increasing organizations.
- (d) The rural poor who lack education either concentrate on low-paying jobs in rural areas or swell the ranks of the underemployed in urban areas.
- (e) Many people in underdeveloped areas have developed a culture of poverty. The poor have a different set of values, for example, education to the middle class stands as a road of self-betterment, but to some poor it has become an obstacle to surmount until one can go to work.

Before discerning education programs and services available to the rural population, it is necessary to mention one of the major determiners of education quality - money. The vast majority of states having large rural populations have fewer fiscal resources per child to support educational programs than the average state. This is true irrespective of the measure of fiscal ability used. Personal income per child of school age is the most commonly used index of wealth when comparing states. When this measure of ability to support educational programs is used, 29 of the 34 states falling below the national average are states having large populations. The poorest of the predominately rural states has substantially less than one-half the ability to support educational programs than is true of the wealthiest state.

This differential in fiscal ability to support educational programs is reflected in less than adequate facilities and instructional materials, a disproportionate number of unqualified teachers, a high rate of teacher turnover, fewer and less effective special services, and ultimately a higher dropout rate and inadequately prepared graduates. This in turn has led to high unemployment rates and underemployment rates and in turn to fewer taxable resources.

The most logical mechanism to correct this fiscal disparity among states is the taxing and spending authority of the federal government. If equalization is to be accomplished at a meaningful level at current levels of per pupil expenditures, it will require a federal outlay at least tripling the sum of present federal subventions for elementary and secondary educational assistance. In fact, it has been recently recommended that the federal government assume 15 percent of the total cost public elementary and secondary education in 1971-72; 25 percent in 1973-74; and 33-1/3 percent in 1975-76. This is compatible with the NEA legislative goal of having the federal government assume at least one-third the cost of public elementary and secondary education. Such funds would have to be distributed in an inverse ratio to state wealth per child with requirements that the states, in turn, redistribute such funds on a fiscally equalizing basis.

While the total of present federal subventions for elementary and secondary educational assistance is moderately equalizing a number of formula changes could be made which would make these funds even more equalizing and thus benefit predominately rural states to some degree, recognizing the fact that the sums involved in these distributions are not great enough to accomplish significant equalization of fiscal resources among the states.

Inadequate fiscal resources represent only one variable associated with rural areas and one which the federal government can take direct action to remedy through its formula for distribution, is the educational need differential identified with specific groups of children such as the physically and mentally handicapped, the culturally different, the non-English speaking, and the dropout. There is clear evidence that children with these handicaps occur in disproportionate numbers in rural and inner city areas. However, educational programs which have shown some success in remedying the handicaps are typically more expensive than the regular day school programs. Consequently care should be

taken in disbursing federal funds to the states for educational assistance for the disadvantaged. All too often pupil counts utilized as the basis for state entitlements do not include cost weightings for these high cost pupils. Instead, simply a total count of children of school age or pupils enrolled is the typical measurement of pupil need used.

in most operating educational programs, two cost over-burdens are usually associated with rural areas and areas of sparse population: (1) additional costs due to distances pupils must be transported, and, (2) additional costs associated with small administrative units. These costs are referred to as "equal service over-burdens" because it costs more to provide an equal amount of a given service of these types in sparsely populated areas than it does in urban or suburban areas.

Many states have long recognized this fact and have made provision in their program of school support to compensate these school districts for these cost overburdens. The federal government must also understand the concept of cost overburden in distributions of funds for educational assistance. The states should be required to take into account such cost overburdens in the redistributions of funds from any federal general education aid program which may be enacted.

In order for you to make up your own mind, based on the evidence available as to the proposition that rural schools have been shortchanged in the apportionment of federal monies, a table entitled "Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Expenditures in Metropolitan and Nonmetropolitan Areas Fiscal 1970." You should keep in mind when making this determination that in 1970 the enrollment in urban schools was 36,356,911 as opposed to 14,358,380 children and youths enrolled in rural schools. Additional data breakdowns are given in the following table.

TABLE -- 3

Enrollment by Educational Level
Urban, Rural Nonfarm, Rural Farm
1970

<u>Grade Level</u>	<u>Urban</u>	<u>Rural Nonfarm</u>	<u>Rural Farm</u>
K	2,334,332	573,670	116,496
1-8	25,620,953	7,719,956	1,869,310
9-12	10,401,626	3,127,740	951,268
TOTAL	36,356,911	11,421,366	2,937,074

Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, General Social and Economic Characteristics. Census of the Population: 1970; Final Report PC(1)-C1; United States Summary (Washington, D. C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972) Table 88, p.386.

Let's look at the picture of the number of school districts today as compared to 1932. In the past 40 years, there has been a dramatic drop in the number of public school districts in the United States, from 127,649 in 1936 to approximately 17,000 in 1972. The table below illustrates this decline:

NUMBER OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS

<u>Year</u>	<u>Number</u>
1932	127,649
1948	105,971
1953	67,075
1961	36,402
1970	17,498
1972	17,000

The reorganization of school districts and school consolidations are among the most significant action taken in rural America, although there is now developing a widespread criticism of the results. Many citizens feel that they have given up local control over their schools and haven't improved the quality of the educational programs available to their children. Irrespective of the outcome of this debate - school districts reorganization is a fact, and with emphasis on financial austerity, reorganization will probably continue, but at a slower pace. It is interesting to note that while rural schools are merged into centralized school districts, urban schools are moving toward decentralization.

✓ It should be noted that reorganized school districts and consolidated schools, with the help of fleets of school buses, have made a high school education accessible to many youths who previously were denied a high school education. In general, consolidated schools have more diversified program offerings, a larger quantity of up-to-date instructional materials, laboratories and libraries, as well as better utilization of professional staff.

However extensively positive these changes have been, schools in rural areas have a long way to go. Despite all the reorganizing to date, over 33 percent of them enroll 300 or fewer students; almost 80 percent of them have an enrollment of less than 2,500. More than one-third of the students enrolled attend schools with under 5,000 students. In most cases these are rural children. They attend schools in districts far too small to offer a comprehensive educational program.

The following table "Distribution of Operating Local Public Systems and Number of Pupils, by Size of System, for the United States: Fall 1970" makes these comparisons most vivid.

TABLE -- 4

Size Of System	Public School System		Public School Pupils	
	Number	Percent	Number ^{1/}	Percent
Total operating systems.....	17,498	100.0	45,037,667	100.0
Systems with 300 pupils or more	11,704	66.9	44,429,905	98.7
25,000 or more.....	191	1.1	13,493,237	30.0
10,000 to 24,999.....	557	3.2	8,041,609	17.9
5,000 to 9,999.....	1,104	6.3	7,626,270	17.0
2,500 to 4,999.....	2,018	11.5	7,036,096	15.6
1,000 to 2,499.....	3,448	19.7	5,634,730	12.5
600 to 999.....	1,976	11.3	1,541,080	3.4
300 to 599.....	2,410	13.8	1,056,883	2.3
Systems with less than 300 pupils	5,794	33.1	607,762	1.3

^{1/}These figures represent the sums of the reported "enrollment" figures, which are not comparable from State to State. The official Office of Education fall 1970 elementary-secondary enrollment figure will be reported in the forthcoming publication Fall 1970 Statistics of Public School Systems.

Now let's take a look at the educational offerings in rural schools. Although some rural schools provide and continue to provide a high quality educational program for its students, this is not the case for many rural schools. To illustrate the plight of some rural schools, I would like to share with you excerpts from a proposal from a benefit proposal designed by all the class I schools (1-6 teachers schools) in one county in the midwest. In order to protect the anonymity of the schools involved, the fictitious title "Mid-county" will refer to the county in which the schools are located. There are 17 school districts in this county, ranging from 1 to 6 teachers.

"The trend of hiring teachers with more preparation is continuing. Approximately 64 percent of the teachers (Class I) now hold at least a baccalaureate degree compared to 55 percent during the 73-74 year.

"The number of teaching positions in Class I schools continues to decrease but not at a very rapid rate. The state survey covers 1,343 teachers down only 19 from a year ago. Approximately 8 percent of the teachers are inexperienced compared to 7.7 percent a year ago.

"Salaries paid to rural teachers continues to show a lack of uniform salary schedules Salaries paid rural teachers are still considerably lower than salaries paid teachers in other classes of districts."

Benefits for teachers are available in eight of the 17 districts. The most common benefits were paid sick days and paid janitorial services. Most teachers were doubtful or not aware of any insurance such as health or workman's compensation. On the other side of benefits six of the 17 schools have outdoor sanitation.

TABLE -- 5

TEACHER BENEFITS

Paid Benefit	Number of Districts	Percent
Sick days	6	35
Janitor	5	29
Music teacher	3	17
Teacher aide	1	5
Cook and hot lunches	1	5
Use of Educational Service Unit	2	11
Workman's Compensation	1	5
Health Insurance (maybe)	1	5

Eight of the 17 districts reported benefits

The salary requests for next year are given in the following table

TABLE -- 6

TEACHERS SALARY SCHEDULE RECOMMENDATIONS

(By Teachers)

Years Experience	Teacher Preparation			
	60 Hrs.	90 Hrs.	Bachelor Degree Degree	Master's Degree
0	\$5,500	\$6,000	\$6,600	\$7,200
1	5,700	6,200	6,800	7,400
2	5,900	6,400	7,000	7,600
3	6,100	6,600	7,200	7,800
4	(Raises after step 3 not automatic)		7,400	8,000
5			7,600	8,200
6			7,800	8,400
7			8,000	8,600

Raises after step 7 not automatic

Teacher could carry four years experience plus district experience.

Per pupil property evaluation base for school districts in the county ranges from \$45,478 to \$170,246. The average is \$86,524 as shown in Table The district school mill levy range is 17.63 to 29.29 mills. The average is 23.55 mills.

If each teacher presently in the county were to be paid according to the proposed salary schedule for the 1975-76 school year, this increase in salary over the contracted 1974-75 year would represent a range of .7 to 4.3 mill increase of the existing mill levy allotted to schools. This same proposed salary increase would represent a range of 8 percent to 44 percent increase over the contracted present salary with an average of 18 percent increase.

The following table gives the cost breakdown in order to implement the new salary proposal:

TABLE -- 7

BUDGETARY CONSIDERATIONS

	Range	Average
Per Pupil Evaluation Base for School Districts	\$ 45,478 to 170,256	\$86,524
School Mill Levy for Districts	17.63 to 29.29	23.55
Increase of Mill Levy for Proposed Salary Schedule	7.6 to 1.2	2.9
Percent of Salary Increase	8% to 44%	18%

Unfortunately no dates were given as to the current salaries paid to teachers in the schools in this county. However, I will leave it to the readers to draw the conclusion as to the plight of education available to the boys and girls in the schools of this county.

The primary challenge in Rural Education is to drastically improve the quality of its educational offerings and make it relevant for those who will remain in the community as for those who will migrate to the urban areas.

Preschool and kingergarten programs are not readily available in rural areas. For the country as a whole, accessibility to kingergarten is in direct proportion to community size. For five-year olds in 1968, 71 percent of those living in urban areas were enrolled in kingergarten. However, in non-metropolitan areas, only 56 percent attended kingergarten.

Rural schools generally need to be stimulated into giving more attention to the needs of disadvantaged youth. This implies more individualized instruction, realistic, sympathetic counseling together with a curriculum which is more relevant to the needs of children. Irrelevant curricula, unresponsiveness to student needs, inadequate preparation in academic and marketable skills, help to drive youth out of school. Students attending rural schools tend to drop out more often and earlier than is true for urban youth.

For those who are potential dropouts as well as for the majority of rural students who do not plan on going to college, job preparation is a necessity. Yet a recent study indicated that only eight percent of those not college bound had received any high school vocational training. For youth in rural areas, the job situation is further complicated since for every 18 rural youths reaching working age, only ten jobs are available in their home communities.

Those rural youths who move to the city find themselves ill-equipped in the competition for urban jobs. In school, rural youth's only exposure to occupational exploration and guidance as well as to general and vocational education has been unrelated to today's job market, much less tomorrow's. The President's Committee on Vocational Education in 1963 found that industrial and distributive courses were almost non-existent in rural schools. In many rural high schools, vocational education offered tends to be limited to courses in agriculture and home economics. In numerous cases, rural students have been encouraged to enroll in vocational agriculture when job opportunities are limited and diminishing. Approximately 70 percent of the enrollment in vocational agriculture is in production agriculture courses, although projected employment of farms and farm laborers for 1975 will be down 22 percent from the 4.1 million in 1965.

A major emphasis of a realistic program of vocational education should be the development of careers for tomorrow, including those in the general area of health,

education and welfare. Some of the human service occupations require relatively little formal training and would be most appropriate for disadvantaged youth with poor educational backgrounds. Skills acquired in training for such careers have the advantage of being marketable in rural and urban areas.

Because of the uncertain future facing rural youth, rural schools "should orient students to a cluster of occupations rather than...for a specific job.... Work study programs should be extended to all rural communities. This training would assist rural students, locate jobs, and create a pool of skilled manpower which in turn could lure new industry into the rural community."

Small rural schools often have difficulty providing effective vocational programs because qualified instructors and adequately equipped shops are rare in such schools. Regional vocational schools need to be established whereby students could attend on a part-time basis while continuing their education at the local high school. These area schools would share facilities as well as vocational personnel among the participating high schools.

By and large, rural schools fail to attract and retain good teachers. While there are many fine, dedicated and competent teachers serving rural schools, their proportion is far too small and their impact rather limited. To attract and retain competent teachers in rural areas will require extensive, massive and deliberate efforts in recruitment, basic preparation, on-going in-service education, higher salaries, and adequate facilities, equipment and instructional materials.

The first problem in improving the quality of rural education partly stems from the available clientele. Two major groups are represented: natives seeking initial employment and outlanders seeking temporary employment--typically wives of graduate students in nearby colleges and universities and wives of military personnel from nearby bases. Not only do the rural people tend to seek teaching certificates through smaller institutions of higher education near home, but the

more aggressive and ambitious of these tend to seek their first teaching assignment elsewhere. Those who remain to teach in rural schools are likely to be less adventurous and less ambitious. Some years ago a study conducted by the U.S. Office of Education of Higher Education in South Dakota found that only 39 percent of the state's college graduates entered teaching in South Dakota. There was evidence which indicated that many of the more competent were those who took their initial teaching assignments in Minnesota, California, and New York. Ambition and salary were prime factors. Wives of graduate students and of military personnel are definitely temporary teachers. Many leave the school system during the school year because of their husbands being transferred. Most of those with adequate teacher preparation and even with experience are not prepared for rural conditions nor for the rural point of view.

The net affect is that much of the clientele most readily available to staff rural schools lack drive, permanence and relevant preparation. One antidote is an aggressive and systematic effort to recruit and challenge a large proportion of our most competent and dedicated youth to prepare for teaching careers in rural America. This will require better salaries, and more readily available opportunities for continuing study and professional growth.

This in turn leads to other problems. Too many four-year institutions that prepare rural teachers are "suitcase colleges." They tend to be small and cannot command the exciting curricular and co-curricular programs that challenge scholars today. Consequently, students tend to go home for weekends when they should be exploring the stimulating cultural, intellectual and recreational resources available on campus.

This raises another closely allied problem. Although many competent dedicated professors do settle in such institutions and contribute to society, the more ambitious and aspiring staff members tend to graduate to the larger more prestigious institutions. A massive campaign on rural values and ways of life, as

well as enrichment of facilities, cultural opportunities and salary to attract and retain a larger proportion of high quality staff in rural oriented colleges will be required. Although this is a difficult challenge, it is not impossible. Rather it is a matter of commitment. Many of the more significant institutions of higher education are both small in enrollment and located in non-urban areas. They are not provincial in outlook but rather dynamic centers of learning which attract able students and employ faculty from far and wide. Basic preparation received in these institutions by future rural teachers under outstanding professors is an essential ingredient if we are to meet the challenge.

Also required is a program designed for the continued professional growth and development for rural teachers. This means that there must be increased opportunities for financially supported in-service workshops, for summer study and sabbatical leave. While the enrolling legislation exists under the Education Profession Development Act, current level of funding is woefully inadequate to meet the national scope of the problem, plus the fact that a large proportion of the funding is basically urban-oriented so rural teachers are left out.

Ways must be found to remedy the salary problems facing rural teachers. People tend to gravitate toward school systems with higher salaries and better working conditions. If we really want better teachers to staff our rural schools, we must pay a premium over and above the regular salary schedule. This is done in Yugoslavia and appears to work.

A far more complicated cost-based problem is that of facilities, equipment and instructional materials. Aside from funding, the problem relates to the proposition that equipment and materials are needed even if for a few pupils. As great a variety of science equipment, for example, is required for a school enrolling 100 as for a school enrolling 1,000 students. Thus the per pupil cost of equipment in the smaller school is appreciably higher and in turn are financially less

able to provide it. Mobile laboratories are one possible answer. Instructional TV is another. At any rate adequate means of instruction, even though expensive in rural schools must be provided, not just to educate children, but also to satisfy and retain the most competent teachers. Otherwise they will go where the resources are.

Solving the problem of recruiting and holding highly competent teachers in rural America is a matter of commitment and dedication. Once this basic decision is made, legislation and monies will follow. The prime reason we are caught in this dilemma comes from insufficient concern from all levels of government, the educational enterprise, professional agencies and organizations and from the public. A massive effort is called for to change attitudes, recruit with challenges and opportunities sharpen basic preparation, provide effective programs of inservice education, make rural oriented colleges attractive to college professor and provide excellent facilities, equipment and instructional materials in rural schools and colleges alike.

In summarizing this presentation, I would like to quote from the conclusion of the Conference Working Paper #9, prepared by the Conference Subcommittee on Education, of the National Conference on Rural America, (April 14-17, 1975) Washington, D.C.

"Rural citizens have historically been shortchanged by the educational systems serving them. The effects of this failure (in terms of illiteracy, lack of marketable skills, lost opportunity, or low educational achievement) had had a crippling effect on the lives and aspirations of rural children and adults throughout America.

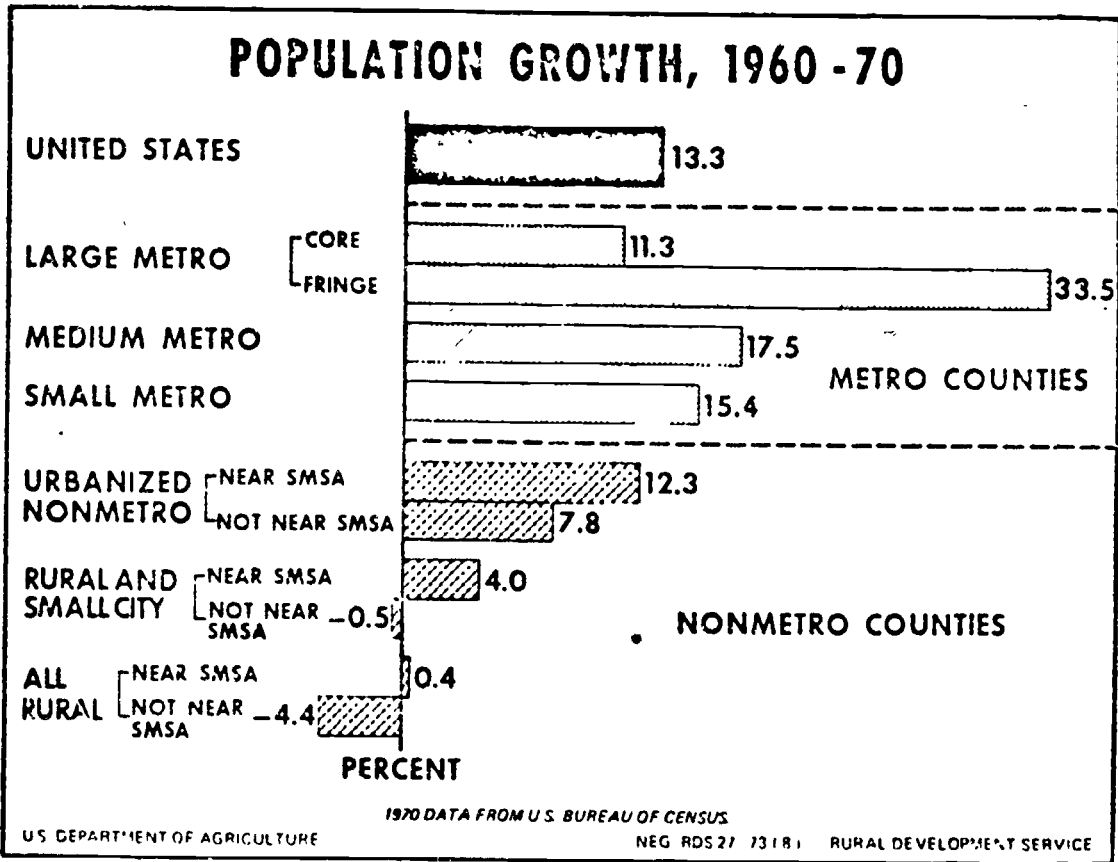
Whether intentionally or unwittingly, rural school systems have accepted assumptions of metropolitan America, i.e., that rural America is an anachronism

in our modern urban world and, therefor, bringing rural America into line with metropolitan life styles, economics, and culture makes obvious good sense. Consequently, in making this assumption, rural school systems have pushed ahead with all their energy to prepare children for lives in the urban environment they see as being inevitable. However, by encouraging the outmigration of rural youth, by adopting urban curriculums and practices, and by remaining aloof from the immediate, pressing needs of the rural areas in which they are located, today's rural schools are aiding, and perhaps hastening, the process of decay in our rural communities.

Public education in rural America is plagued by chronic underfinancing, continuing neglect by national policymakers, and inappropriate, ill-conceived programs and practices. Solving these problems is by no means an impossible endeavor. It requires only the combination of national will and increased human and financial resources. For too long, we, as a society, have avoided this task. We cannot afford the human and economic costs any longer."

In this part of the presentation the negative aspects and condition of "rural" have been emphasized. The second part will emphasize the positive things that are emerging or will emerge in order for rural education to reach its potential and to meet the needs, aspirations and hopes of those fortunate enough to reside in rural America.

FIGURE A



DEFINITIONS

I. Metropolitan (SMSA) Counties

Counties containing at least 1 city of 50,000 inhabitants or more, or adjacent cities with a combined population of 50,000, plus contiguous counties that are essentially metropolitan in character and integrated by reason of their inhabitants commuting to the central city.

1. Large (Greater) Metropolitan

Counties of SMSA's having at least 1 million population in 1970. Examples of such SMSA's are New York City, Chicago, Los Angeles, Houston, and Boston.

a. Core Counties

Examples of such counties (or the equivalent) are the District of Columbia; the five counties of New York City; Orleans Parish, La.; St. Louis City and County; and Cook County, Ill. Twenty-nine percent of the U.S. population lived in core counties of large SMSA's in 1970. The average population was over 1.2 million people. As a group these counties grew slower in population during the 1960's than the U.S. population as a whole (11.3 percent in contrast to 13.3 percent for the United States) but had a median family income roughly \$1,000 higher than the U.S. average.

b. Fringe Counties

Examples of fringe (suburban) counties of large SMSA's are Montgomery County, Md., and Fairfax County, Va.; Cobb County, Ga., of the Atlanta SMSA; and Bucks County, Pa., of the Philadelphia area. Fringe counties had an average 1970 population of almost 200,000 and a 1969 median family income of \$11,990, highest of any county group and \$1,400 more than in the core counties. These counties as a group increased in population during the 1960's by one-third. This population growth rate was almost three times that of the neighboring core counties. Over 80 percent of the fringe counties had population growth rates above the U.S. average of 13.3 percent.

2. Counties of Medium Metropolitan Areas

These counties comprise SMSA's with populations of 250,000 to 999,999. Some SMSA's which fall into the class include Oklahoma City, Phoenix, Birmingham, and Salt Lake City. As a group, counties of the medium SMSA's averaged 179,000 persons in 1970 and had a 1960-70 population growth rate above the national average and a median family income of \$9,838, roughly \$250 above the national average. Almost three-fourths of these counties were in the South and North Central regions.

3. Counties of Small (Lesser) Metropolitan Areas

These counties comprise SMSA's of under 250,000 persons in 1970. Examples of lesser SMSA's are Lawton, Okla.; Lynchburg, Va.; Fargo-Moorhead, N.D.-Minn.; Portland, Me.; and Eugene, Oreg. Average 1970 population of the counties was 97,500. During the 1960's, the population of these counties grew slightly faster than the U.S. population as a whole. The counties had a median family income in 1969 of \$8,976, \$614 below the national average of \$9,590. As was the case with medium metropolitan counties, a large majority (over 30 percent) of these counties were located in the South and North Central regions, with over one-half located in the South.

II. Nonmetropolitan (non-SMSA) Counties

All counties not qualifying as metropolitan.

4. Urbanized Counties--having 20,000 or more urban residents in 1970.

a. Counties Adjacent to an SMSA

The average 1970 population of such nonmetropolitan counties was 73,000, up 12.3 percent from 1960. In terms of population growth, these counties fall slightly below the national average. Their 1969 median family income was \$8,701, \$889 below the national average.

b. Counties Not Adjacent to an SMSA

These counties averaged 55,800 in population in 1970, substantially below the population of urbanized nonmetropolitan counties adjacent to an SMSA. Also, these counties had 1960-70 population growth rates substantially below those of counties adjacent to an SMSA--7.8 in contrast to 12.3 percent. Over 40 percent of these counties were located in the South. Median family income was \$8,086, \$1,504 less than the national average.

5. Less Urbanized Counties Having 2,500 to 19,999 Urban Residents in 1970

a. Counties Adjacent to an SMSA

The average 1970 county population in this group was 23,600 representing a 4-percent increase over the 1960 population. Thus, the population growth rate in this county group was less than one-third the national average. Over 40 percent of these counties lost population during the 1960's. Median family income was \$7,456, \$2,134 less than the national average.

b. Counties Not Adjacent to an SMSA

As was the case with the two urbanized county groups, the adjacent-not adjacent to SMSA comparison within the less urbanized group shows the positive effects in terms of population growth and income of proximity to a metropolitan area. Here the county group not adjacent to an SMSA lost population during the 1960's and the adjacent group grew by 4 percent. Median family income in 1969 was \$7,094, \$362 less than for the "adjacent" group of counties, and \$2,496 below the national average.

6. Thinly Populated Counties Having No Urban Residents in 1970

a. Counties Adjacent to an SMSA

These counties averaged 9,453 people in 1970. Over all, the population in these counties was fairly stable during the 1960's, showing only a slight increase over the decade. Median family income in 1969 was \$6,412, over \$3,000 below the national average. Almost two-thirds of the counties were located in the South.

b. Counties Not Adjacent to an SMSA

The average 1970 population of counties within this group was less than 7,000. As a group, these counties lost 4.4 percent of their population during the 1960's. Median family income was the lowest of any county group--\$6,142, \$3,448 below the national average.

FIGURE B

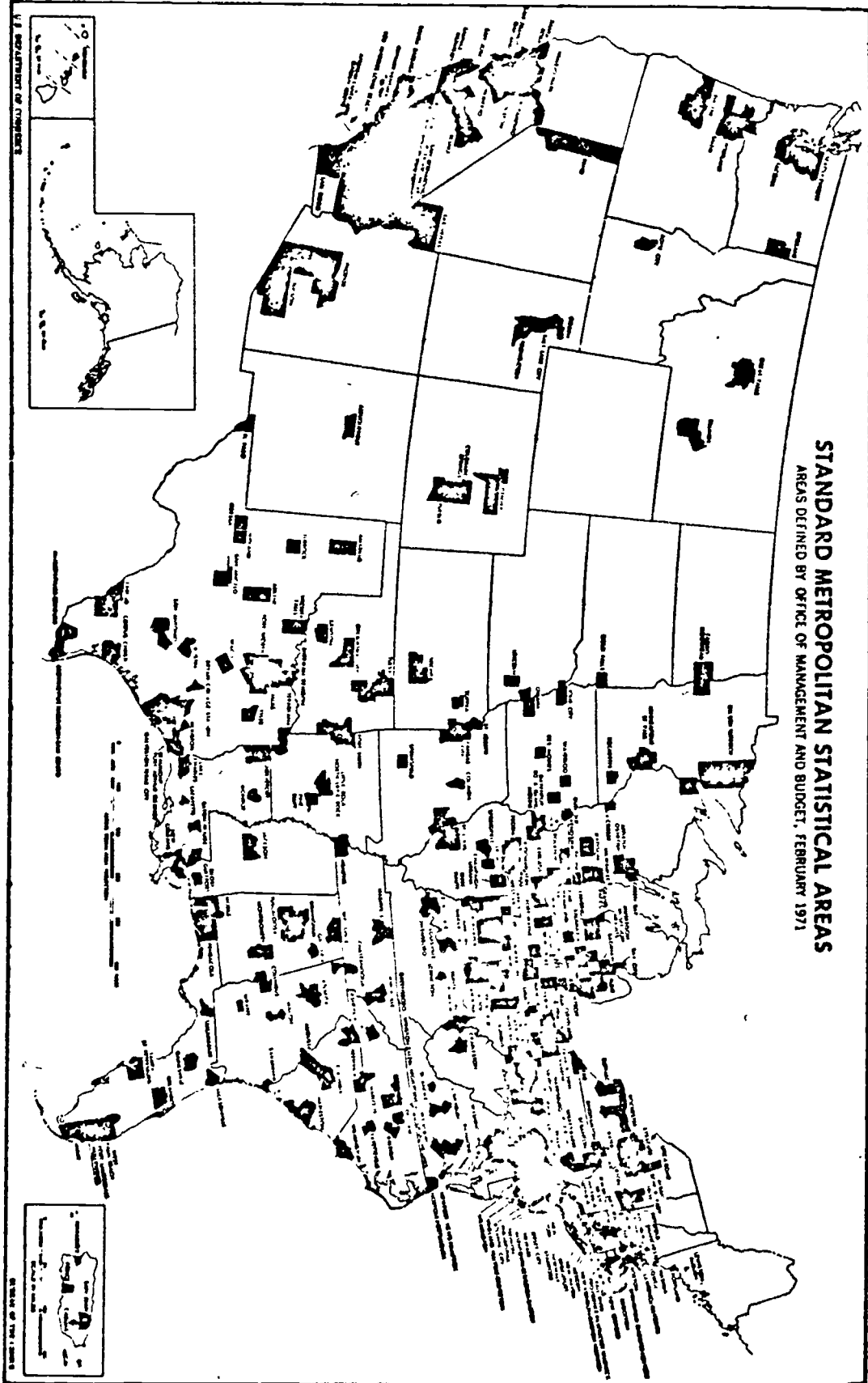


TABLE I - A

Rural Population Distribution
in the United States - 1970 Census

State	Total Population	% Change 1960-1970	Rural Population	% Rural	% Rural Change 1960-1970
Ala.	3,444,165	5.4	1,432,224	41.6	-2.9
Al.	300,382	32.8	154,870	51.6	+10.3
Ariz.	1,770,900	36.0	362,036	20.4	+9.2
Ark.	1,923,295	7.7	962,430	50.0	-5.7
Calif.	19,953,134	27.0	1,817,089	9.1	-15.2
Colo.	2,207,259	25.8	473,948	21.5	+2.8
Conn.	3,031,709	19.6	686,657	22.6	+24.9
Del.	548,104	22.8	152,531	27.8	-0.6
D. C.	756,510				
Fla.	6,789,443	37.1	1,321,306	19.5	+2.4
Ga.	4,589,575	16.4	1,821,501	39.7	+3.3
Hi.	768,561	21.5	129,878	16.9	-12.7
Id.	712,567	6.8	327,133	45.9	-6.6
Ill.	11,113,976	10.2	1,884,155	17.0	-2.9
Ind.	5,193,669	11.4	1,821,609	35.1	+4.0
Ia.	2,824,376	2.4	1,207,971	42.8	-6.7
Kans.	2,246,578	3.1	761,708	33.9	-10.4
Ky.	3,218,706	5.9	1,534,653	47.7	-8.9
La.	3,641,306	11.8	1,235,156	33.9	+3.2
Me.	992,048	2.4	487,891	49.2	+3.3
Md.	3,922,399		918,464	23.4	+8.5
Mass.	5,689,170	10.5	878,721	15.4	+3.9

States	Total Population	% Change 1960-1970	Rural Population	% Rural	% Rural Change 1960-1970
Mich.	8,875,083	13.4	2,321,310	26.2	+11.4
Minn.	3,804,971	11.5	1,277,663	33.6	-1.1
Miss.	2,216,912	1.8	1,230,270	55.5	-9.4
Mo.	4,676,501	8.3	1,398,818	29.9	-3.1
Mont.	694,676	2.9	323,733	46.6	-3.7
Nebr.	1,483,493	5.1	570,733	38.5	-11.5
Nev.	488,738	71.3	93,402	19.1	+10.4
N. H.	737,681	21.5	321,641	43.6	+27.1
N. J.	7,168,164	18.2	794,759	11.1	+14.8
N. M.	1,016,000	6.8	307,225	30.2	-5.5
N. Y.	18,190,740	8.4	2,633,254	14.5	
N. C.	5,082,059	11.5	2,796,891	55.0	+1.5
N. D.	617,761	-2.3	344,319	55.7	-16.0
Oh.	10,652,017	9.7	2,626,320	24.7	+1.7
Okla.	2,559,229	9.9	819,092	32.0	-5.1
Ore.	2,091,385	18.2	688,681	32.9	+3.0
Penn.	11,793,909	4.2	3,363,499	28.5	+4.5
R. I.	946,725	10.1	122,422	12.9	+4.5
S. C.	2,590,516		1,358,321	52.4	-3.1
S. D.	665,507	-2.2	368,879	55.4	-10.8
Tenn.	3,923,561	10.0	1,618,380	41.3	-4.9
Tex.	11,196,730	16.9	2,275,784	20.3	-4.9
Ut.	1,059,273	18.9	207,801	19.6	-7.0
Vt.	444,330	14.0	301,441	67.8	+25.6
Va.	4,648,494	17.2	1,713,653	36.9	-2.7
Wash.	3,409,169	19.5	932,701	27.4	+2.5
W. Va.	1,744,237	-6.2	1,064,746	61.0	-7.1
Wis.	4,417,731	11.8	1,506,854	34.1	+5.4
Wyo.	332,416	0.7	131,305	39.5	-7.9
U. S.	203,184,772	13.3	53,884,804	26.5	-3.6

Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Expenditures in Metropolitan and Nonmetropolitan Areas
Fiscal 1970

	<u>Millions of Dollars</u>	
	<u>Nonmetropolitan</u>	<u>Metropolitan</u>
Elementary and secondary education:		
Educationally deprived children	\$599.0	\$727.1
Dropout prevention	1.3	4.3
Bilingual education	7.2	15.4
Supplementary educational centers	16.4	100.0
Library resources	4.1	38.4
Guidance, counseling, and testing	1.4	13.1
Equipment and minor remodeling	3.7	33.1
Strengthening state departments of education	4.7	25.1
TOTAL	<u>\$637.8</u>	<u>\$956.5</u>
School assistance in federally affected areas (impact aid):		
Maintenance and operation	\$212.1	\$295.6
Construction	1.3	8.9
TOTAL	<u>\$213.4</u>	<u>\$304.5</u>
Educational professions development: preschool, elementary, and secondary	\$ 19.15	\$ 75.0
Teacher Corps	\$ 5.5	\$ 16.1
Vocational education:		
Basic grants	\$ 43.0	\$288.0
State advisory councils	0	.9
Consumer and homemaking education	2.0	13.0
Cooperative education	3.8	10.2
Innovations	2.5	6.7
Curriculum development	.099	.775
TOTAL	<u>\$ 51.399</u>	<u>\$319.575</u>

Millions of Dollars
Nonmetropolitan Metropolitan

Libraries and community services:		
Library services	\$ 5.0	\$ 30.0
Construction of public libraries	1.3	3.7
College library resources	4.1	5.9
Librarian training	.866	3.1
University community services	2.8	6.7
Adult basic education	6.2	43.6
Educational broadcasting facilities	.3	1.8
TOTAL	<u>\$ 20.566</u>	<u>\$ 94.8</u>

Education for the handicapped:		
Preschool and school programs	\$ 3.6	\$225.6
Early childhood programs	.8	2.2
Teacher education and recruitment	8.6	21.8
Research and innovation	2.4	14.6
Media services and captioned films	.719	4.0
TOTAL	<u>\$ 16.119</u>	<u>\$268.2</u>

Research and training:		
Dissemination	\$ 1.4	\$ 5.1
Training	2.1	4.6
Civil defense education	.392	1.4
TOTAL	<u>\$ 3.892</u>	<u>\$ 11.1</u>

Civil rights education	\$ 5.6	\$ 10.6
------------------------	--------	---------

Research and demonstration	\$ 4.6	60.4
----------------------------	--------	------

Child development: Follow Through, Headstart	\$167.0	\$239.0
---	---------	---------

SOURCE: The Economic and Social Conditions of Rural America in the 1970's: Part 2: The Impact of Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Programs (Washington: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1971), pp. 87-88.

FIGURE C

