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SOME IMPORTANT SCHOOL LEGISLATION 1921 AND 1922

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SOME IMPORTANT SCHOOL LEGISLATION, 1921 AND 1922.

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CONTENTS.—Introduction—Compulsory school attendance—State departments of education—County boards of education—County superintendents and rural supervision—State taxation—Local school taxes—Secondary education—School buildings—Teachers' homes—Teachers' certificates—Teachers' salaries—Teachers' tenure—Teacher training—Textbooks—The school term—Consolidated schools—Physical welfare of school children—Moral education—Americanization—Kindergartens—Vocational rehabilitation—Private and parochial schools—Higher institutions.

Within the biennial period here under review, 47 States held regular meetings of their legislative assemblies, and a few extraordinary sessions were called by governors. The lawmakers of six States—Massachusetts, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, South Carolina, and Georgia—meet annually, and those of all others except Alabama meet biennially. Of the latter group, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Louisiana hold sessions in even years and all the rest in odd years. Alabama holds quadrennial sessions and will hold its next in 1923.

Owing to the necessity for brevity in this chapter and to the enormous bulk of school legislation passed in the two-year period under review, the method of treatment here must be more or less summary; only what appear to be the most important phases of legislation, or phases of most interest to school men, can be noticed. In the States whose legislative assemblies met in 1921 and 1922, there were passed approximately 1,600 educational acts of general application within the respective States where passed. Manifestly this number is much too large to admit of adequate discussion of each act in any treatment limited to a few printed pages. It has therefore seemed well to make the review here undertaken a brief subject study and, by means of a sort of adaptation of the "case system," to use certain outstanding acts as examples of noteworthy legal provisions on the subjects treated.

It must not be understood, however, that a legislative act reviewed or cited in this chapter is in every case thought to be the very best of its kind. Several considerations have entered into the choice of

the enactments here used. Among the more important of these considerations are, first, that on the whole the act is appraised as reasonably good legislation; second, that it possesses relative merits with respect both to other enactments of the same State and to legislation passed on other subjects in other States; third, that in the light of other present-day enactments it generally represents an advanced stage of legislation on the subject with which it deals.

COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

Laws requiring attendance at school have two fundamental purposes: First, to insure the best possible citizenship, and second, to enforce the educational rights of children. The first of these looks to the interest of the State, and the second to the interest of the child. The latter would seem to be the newer conception, for it is only in recent years that we have developed considerable appreciation of the child's inherent right to go to school. Formerly church and religious interests entered largely into the purpose of such compulsory education as existed, but this idea is now overshadowed by the interests of the State and the child. These are fundemental, and so compulsory education is now regarded as fundamental.

The Ohio act of 1921 is selected for treatment under this head. It regulates both school attendance and the employment of minors. Compulsory school age is defined in this act to mean 6 to 18 years of age, but a local school board may, for its own district, define such age to mean 7 to 18. The parent or other person in charge of a child of compulsory age who is not employed on an age and schooling certificate must send the child to a public, private, or parochial school for the full term, which can not legally be less than 32 weeks in the year. Exemption is allowed in the case of a child whose bodily or mental condition, "upon satisfactory showing," does not permit school attendance, and also of one receiving at home instruction by a teacher whose qualifications are approved by the local superintendent of schools. Where attendance is at a school other than public, the instruction therein must be equivalent to public-school instruction "for children of like age and advancement," and the hours and term of attendance must be equivalent to those of the public schools.

Although the employment of minors in vacation time is regulated by law in many other States, Ohio is now in advance in making provision for vacation "activities" other than ordinary labor. The act authorizes boards of education to "provide or approve, subject to the approval of parents, activities for children during the summer vacation period which will promote their health, their civic and vocational intelligence, their industry, recreation, character, or thrift, or several of these," and the local superintendent is directed to keep

proper record of these activities, for which school credits may be allowed.

A child may be assigned to any suitable school, but when suitable schooling is not available in the district he can not be sent elsewhere unless tuition is paid and transportation furnished for distances over 2 miles in case of elementary pupils and over 4 miles in case of high-school pupils. School boards must provide high-school facilities within 4 miles of those qualified to attend or must furnish transportation. Completion of the work of a four-year high school exempts a child from further attendance requirement. In case of failure or refusal of the superintendent of schools to excuse a pupil from attendance or to issue an employment certificate on request, appeal may be taken to the juvenile court of the county, and the decision of this court is final.

The Ohio act contains no specific provision for a State supervisor of attendance or like official for general State supervision of attendance-law enforcement, and no penalty is provided for a district as such which fails to enforce the attendance law, as in Pennsylvania, where State funds may be withheld from delinquent districts; but rigorous personal penalties are prescribed for violations of the act, and the provisions for local attendance officers would seem to be reasonably adequate. The board of education of every city and of every village district not a part of the county school district must employ one attendance officer, and one or more assistants may be employed. Likewise every county board of education is required to employ at least one such officer and may employ assistants. The powers and duties of attendance officers are prescribed at length, and include the power to enter and investigate places where minors are employed, to take into custody and put in school a child not in attendance, to make to the juvenile court complaint against truants and their parents, and otherwise reasonably to enforce the law.

The child labor law, which is embodied in the same legislative act with school-attendance requirements, is drafted in correlation with these requirements. This law is too long and intricate to admit of complete analysis here, but in general Ohio now prohibits the employment of minors under 16 years of age within school hours, and the employment of those between the ages of 16 and 18 is permitted only under sanction of the school authorities as evidenced by various classes of employment certificates. A brief description of these certificates will serve as an outline of the main provisions of the law. They are all issued by the local superintendent of schools and are of the following classes:

1. An "age and schooling certificate," issued only on pledge or promise of the prospective employer that he will employ the child and on proof that the child is over 16 years of age, has completed the

work of the seventh grade in school, and is physically fit to perform the labor in which it is proposed to employ him. This certificate is printed on white paper.

2. A certificate marked "Retarded—schooling not standard," which may be issued to a child who, in the opinion of the proper school authority, is so below the normal in mental development that he can not "with further schooling and due industry" pass the test showing completion of the work of the seventh grade. A child of this class must be over 16 and must comply with the provisions of the act relating to physical fitness. This certificate is printed on yellow paper.

3. A certificate marked "Conditional—schooling not standard," which may be issued to a child over 16 who can not for the time being pass the seventh-grade test, but who "with further schooling and due industry" can pass it. This certificate is issued only on a showing of certain facts such as that the child has not had proper educational opportunity or that his services are needed for the support of dependent relatives, and on condition that he will, in addition to part-time day-school attendance, pursue approved studies in evening school or elsewhere. Physical fitness is required here as in other cases. The color of this certificate is green.

4. A "vacation certificate," issued to minors between 14 and 18 years of age for employment during the vacation period in occupations lawful for such minors. Requirements as to age, physical fitness, and promise of prospective employer apply here, but the certificate is issued without regard to the amount of schooling completed. This certificate is printed on blue or blue-tinted paper.

5. A "special age and schooling certificate," issued to minors over 14 years of age and permitting employment in lawful occupations during hours when school is not in session, other than the summer vacation, or permitting part-time employment where the minor is engaged in alternate work and study in cooperative courses approved by the State board of vocational education. This certificate is issued without regard to completion of the seventh grade, but physical fitness for the occupation is required. The color of the paper used is light brown.

6. A "limited certificate." Any one of the first four classes of certificates above mentioned may be "limited" and all "special" certificates must be. A limited certificate is issued to a minor whose physician's certificate shows him physically fit only for certain occupations, and the employment certificate, whatever may be its class, must conform to the physician's statement of occupations for which the minor is physically fit. The certificate here described is in reality not of a separate class, but represents a limitation of any one of the other classes.

7. An "overage certificate" may be issued to a minor proved to be over 18 years of age but who may reasonably be supposed to be under that age.

8. An "age and preemployment card" may be issued to a boy over 16 who was lawfully employed before the passage of this act, and such a boy is excused from further attendance except at part-time school.

Ohio's continuation-school provisions are also included in the same legislative act with the attendance law. Local boards of education are authorized to establish and maintain part-time schools or classes, and where these are maintained minors holding employment certificates must attend so long as they are required to have certificates. It is provided, however, that the local superintendent may excuse any minor from attendance on satisfactory showing that the latter has already completed the work given in the part-time school, and four-year high-school graduates are exempt from all attendance requirements. The amount of attendance required is not less than four nor more than eight hours a week for the full term of the school. Where established, part-time classes must be held between 7 a. m. and 6 p. m. only on days other than holidays and Sundays, but on Saturdays they must be held between 7 a. m. and 12 m. Classes may be provided by employers, private and parochial school authorities, or philanthropic agencies, and when approved by the State superintendent of public instruction attendance thereat is accepted in lieu of public continuation-school work. Attendance at part-time classes is not required of holders of "vacation" or "special" certificates, and generally all minors are exempt after passing the age of 18.

Some other noteworthy features of the Ohio attendance law are that principals or teachers in both public and private schools shall report to the district clerk attendance in their respective schools and classes, that proceedings in juvenile court be instituted against parents and children violating the law, that provision be made by local school boards for indigent children, and that an annual enumeration be made of all children between 5 and 18 years of age.

The Ohio law represents the most advanced stage of compulsory-attendance legislation in this country. It contemplates school attendance and prohibits child labor within the school term or school hours for all children under 16 years of age; it fixes, for the normal or average child, educational qualifications equivalent to completion of the seventh grade before regular employment can be entered between the ages 16 and 18, and between these ages attendance upon part-time classes is required without regard to completion of the seventh grade; it raises the hand of compulsion altogether only when the age of 18 is reached or the work of a four-year high school

completed. A dozen years ago, in connection with the movement for "industrial education," much was said of the "gap" in the child's life between the ages of 14 and 16, within which period the attendance law did not apply and the child was yet too young to be accepted as an apprentice. Under such laws as that of Ohio there is now no such gap; the child is in school.

STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION.

All States, except Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Nebraska, Ohio, and South Dakota, now have general State boards vested with a greater or less degree of administrative control over their systems of public education; and of the six States named, each has a board for one or more special purposes, such as the administration of vocational training. Every State has a chief State school officer who is called in most cases "superintendent of public instruction," but the title "commissioner of education" is used in several cases and shows some tendency to displace other titles for this office. The trend in present-day legislation is toward more definitely centralizing administrative authority and fixing responsibility in the State board of education, or like body; and the State superintendent tends to become, as many authorities urge that he should be, a professional expert functioning as chief executive officer of the board.

A California act of 1921 (ch. 605) exemplifies this tendency. It creates a "department of the government of the State of California to be known as the department of education," and directs that this department be conducted under the control of an "executive officer to be known as director of education." The State superintendent of public instruction is, ex officio, the director. The act, however, makes no attempt otherwise to change the title of the State superintendent or to provide for his appointment by the governor or the State board of education. Article IX, section 2, of the California constitution directs that a superintendent of public instruction be elected by the qualified voters at each gubernatorial election, and any attempt in a statute to change the manner of choosing this officer would doubtless be unconstitutional.

The work of the department is divided into two divisions, namely, (1) a division of textbooks, certification, and trust funds, in charge of the State board of education, which is continued with powers and functions as under the older law and with certain additional functions in respect to teachers' colleges and special schools; (2) a division of normal and special schools, in charge of the director of education, but under the general oversight of the State board. California publishes the textbooks used in its public schools, and this system of textbook supply is left under the control of the State board

of education, as is also the system of certificating teachers. Trust funds mentioned in the act include the teachers' retirement fund. The State board of education also retains the administration of funds accruing for vocational education and for the rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry.

For the conduct of State teachers' colleges and certain other State institutions the State superintendent as director of education is given somewhat more direct administrative control. It is provided that the division of normal and special schools shall perform the functions conferred by older law on the boards of trustees of the several State teachers' colleges, the California Polytechnic School, and the State School for the Deaf and the Blind, which boards are abolished by this act, and that this division be in charge of the director of education "for the purposes of administration." The presidents or principals of these institutions are, under the act, appointed by the director, with the approval of the State board, and other instructors and employees are similarly appointed, but on nomination of the respective presidents or principals. The State board is invested with the powers formerly vested in the trustees of teachers' colleges in so far as they relate to the enactment of rules and regulations and the revocation of diplomas. The department of education succeeds to "all the duties, powers, purposes, responsibilities, and jurisdiction" of the State board of education and the respective boards of the teachers' colleges, the polytechnic institute, and the school for the deaf and the blind.

The California act presents several phases of interest. First, it creates in the State government a "department of education" with legal existence as such and on equal footing with other State departments, such as "labor and industrial relations," "agriculture," and "public works," which were also created by acts of the legislature of 1921. Secondly, it makes the superintendent of public instruction the chief "executive officer of the department of education. Thirdly, it abolishes the boards of trustees of certain State educational institutions, including the schools for training teachers, and vests their powers and functions in a State department. Fourthly, it displays a more definite fixing of responsibility.

COUNTY BOARDS OF EDUCATION.

Five States in 1921 or 1922 included county-school organization among the subjects on which their legislatures took action. Ohio and Kentucky reorganized their county boards and otherwise revised their existing "county unit" laws, and Arizona included in its legislation a bill providing for county administration in counties where accepted by vote of the people, but the enacting clause was omitted from this bill as signed by the governor. The Oregon Legis-

lature also passed a "local option" county-unit act. Missouri is the fifth State in this group; its legislature passed an initial law on the subject.

The Missouri act places the rural schools of the State under county-unit organization. It creates in each county a county board of education of six members elected by the people; two of these are to be elected annually for terms of three years. The powers of this board are to appoint a county superintendent of schools and, on his nomination, to appoint assistants, supervisors, and attendance officers; to contract with teachers after their selection from eligible lists by local district boards; to exercise administrative control over school property within the county school district; to change the boundary lines of local districts and to combine such districts for either elementary or high-school purposes; to maintain high schools or otherwise provide for high-school instruction and pay transportation charges; to prepare and publish an annual budget; to have control of the annual tax levy of 40 cents on the $100 in the county district, which levy may be increased by the voters; to borrow money and issue bonds; on recommendation of the superintendent, to make rules for the district schools; to furnish needed supplies and school libraries; to select textbooks; to discharge existing indebtedness of local districts. All existing school districts which maintain high schools of the first class are exempted from the provisions of this act and are thus made independent districts. It is provided in the act that after July 1, 1922, the title to all school property in the county district shall vest in the county board of education, except that public-school lands granted by the National Government and funds derived therefrom remain the property of the district or township as under the older law. Provision is made for the transfer of an independent district, on its request, to the county district, and for the transfer of a local to an independent district. Local districts and district boards retain all privileges and powers vested in them under older laws, except such as are specifically conferred by this act on county boards and county districts.

In Missouri the district system has taken deep root, having been planted there long ago, and many people of the State will pass very reluctantly from the district to the county unit of local control. This tenacity of the district system has, in fact, been evidenced in the case of the act here outlined, for soon after its passage a referendum petition was circulated, the necessary number of signatures was obtained, and the act is accordingly referred to the people voting at the election in November, 1922.[1]

[1] This act was rejected by the people, Nov. 7, 1922.

Independent school districts in Missouri are left independent on the fiscal as well as on the administrative side. Otherwise expressed, the county as a whole is not a "unit" for school purposes, either administrative or fiscal; for the independent district, within its own corporate limits, collects and retains its own taxes, and the county district does likewise. Thus the equalizing value of the county unit, which is urged by advocates of this unit as one of its chief values, is not so marked in Missouri as in some other States. Missouri, in exempting districts maintaining high schools of the first class, probably exempts all of its cities and many of its towns from the requirement that they contribute to the support of all the schools within the county.

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS AND RURAL SUPERVISION.

This is a subject on which there is much legislation; so much, in fact, that adequate treatment is impossible in brief space. Chapter 382 of the Maryland Laws of 1922 is selected for review here.[1] It (1) amends the State's law governing the certification of teachers, principals, and supervisors; (2) provides salary increases for all teachers except those holding third-grade and provisional second-grade certificates, the larger increases being allowed the better-trained; (3) raises the salaries of county superintendents, these being based on qualifications, number of teachers in the county, and experience as superintendent; (4) provides for additional supervisory assistants to the superintendent; (5) increases by 50 per cent the State aid to high schools; (6) raises from 140 to 160 days the required term for colored schools; and (7) establishes an "equalization fund" to aid 15 of the less wealthy counties which are not able with a tax of 6.7 mills to meet the State's requirements.

From an administrative point of view the most noteworthy of these provisions are those relating to the county superintendent and his corps of supervisory assistants. It is here that Maryland has taken decidedly advanced ground. In this State a county superintendent must hold a "certificate in administration and supervision," which is granted only to a person who is a graduate of a standard college or university or has equivalent "scholastic preparation," has completed one year of graduate work in education at a recognized university, or has equivalent advanced credits, and has had at least two years' experience as a teacher. The act provides, however, that the incumbents may continue to hold the office and may be reappointed by county boards of education.

[1] For a discussion of this act by State Supt. Albert S. Cook, see *School and Society*, June 17, 1922, p. 678.

The following is the schedule of salaries provided in the act for these officers:

County superintendents' salaries.

Number of teachers in the county.	Years of service, salaries.		
	1 to 4 years.	5 to 7 years.	8 or more years.
Fewer than 150	$2,500–2,940		
150 to 199	2,940	$3,240	$3,540
200 or more	3,540	3,840	4,140

Two-thirds of the salary of each superintendent is under this act paid out of the general State school fund, but the State will not share in the payment of any salary in excess of $2,940 unless the superintendent has met the full requirements for the certificate in administration and supervision, nor will the State share in the payment of any amount which the county board of education may allow in excess of the schedule.

From this salary schedule and the qualifications required, it seems clear that Maryland aims to put at the head of its system of school supervision in each county a professionally trained and expert superintendent. The plan of employment of assistants in the system would seem equally meritorious. The act provides that in each county employing fewer than 80 teachers in the white elementary schools one "supervising teacher or helping teacher" shall be employed; in a county with 80 or more but fewer than 120 teachers, two such supervisory assistants must be employed; for 120 but not more than 160 teachers, three such assistants; more than 160 teachers, one such assistant for each additional 50 teachers or major fraction of 50. Both supervising and helping teachers must be holders of "certificates in supervision," which are granted to persons who are graduates of standard colleges or universities or have equivalent preparation and who have had at least four years of teaching experience in elementary schools. For a "helping teacher," however, a certificate of this class may be granted on academic and professional work one year less in grade.

The salary of a supervising teacher must be not less than $2,040; if he or she has served in such position in the State four years, $2,340 is the minimum; if in such position seven years or more, not less than $2,640 must be paid. With the approval of the State superintendent, county boards of education may employ helping teachers at an annual salary $600 less than that paid supervising teachers, but under all other conditions prescribed for the latter. The act directs that the State pay two-thirds of the salaries of all supervisory assistants. County boards of education may employ super-

vising teachers or helping teachers in addition to those provided for in the act, but the State will not share in the payment of these additional employees.

STATE TAXATION FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES.

The States usually make their contributions to the support of the schools either through appropriations from general State funds or by means of tax rates specifically for the schools; and these rates in turn fall into two general classes—those expressed in mills on the dollar or cents on the hundred dollars and those expressed in an amount per child of school age or per pupil in attendance. Four States—California, Washington, Utah, and Arizona—have in recent years increased their State contribution to the schools by fixing amounts which the States as such will pay per child or per pupil. An act of the Arizona Legislature of 1921 will illustrate.

The Arizona act provides for the annual levy of "a sufficient tax to raise a sum which shall not be less than $25 per capita on all children in average daily attendance in the common and high schools of the State, as shown by the records of the State superintendent of public instruction for the preceding year." This provision displaces a section of the revised statutes which provided for a levy sufficient to raise the sum of $750,000 annually. Since the average attendance in the public schools of the State was 46,420 in 1920, and a considerable increase of attendance was then shown, it seems safe to assume that the State distributive school fund is by this time approximately $1,250,000—an increase of 66 per cent over the amount provided in the older law. An advantage of this kind of tax rate is that it is based on the needs of the schools and grows in amount as the schools grow, whereas a tax expressed in mills is based on assessed valuation, which bears little relation to school needs and may grow or diminish without regard to increased or diminished school attendance.

LOCAL SCHOOL TAXES.

A State in which there has been considerable effort in recent years to establish a sound system of school support is Texas. Already a relatively generous contributor to the schools within its borders, that State as such appreciably increased both its taxes (3½ mills now being allowed) and its appropriations, until in 1920 these, added to an income of $4,384,009 from permanent school funds and lands, brought its contribution to school support up to 54 per cent of the total public-school income within the State. The increase of local taxation was somewhat more laggard, owing to the failure of some early efforts in this direction. In 1915 a constitutional amendment

was proposed which was intended to authorize any county to levy a county school tax not exceeding 50 cents on the hundred dollars and any district to levy not exceeding $1 on the hundred. This amendment, however, was defeated by a small majority at the November election, 1916, and the county was thus left without any authority to tax itself for school purposes, while the common-school district could levy only the 50 cents permitted under the older constitutional provision, though the independent city district could levy as much as $1 on the hundred. This condition with respect to local taxation remained the same until 1919, when the advocates of an increase proposed another change. This time the provision for a county tax was omitted from the amendment, and the single proposition to authorize the common-school district to levy as high a rate as the independent district was submitted to the people. This amendment was ratified at the November election, 1920, and became a part of the State constitution.

By act of March 5, 1921, the legislature "put into effect amended section 3 of article 7 of the constitution, relating to independent and common-school districts," and the latter districts, as well as the former, may now levy as much as 10 mills on the dollar for the support of their schools. The county remains without power to tax itself for school purposes, but the advocates of a county-school tax doubtless find a measure of compensation in the fact that a relatively large contribution is made to the schools from the State treasury.

EXTENSION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

There is a wide diversity in plans of providing high-school education in this country. The more important of these plans may be indicated by naming the several units used or especially organized for high-school purposes. These are (1) city and town school districts, which maintain their own schools of secondary grade, as in practically all States; (2) townships, as in Pennsylvania and Indiana; (3) high-school districts organized without necessarily following township or common-school district boundary lines, as in Illinois and Wyoming; (4) "union high-school districts" whose boundaries follow the boundary lines of constituent common-school districts, as in California and Colorado; (5) counties where only one county high school is maintained by each county, as in Alabama and some parts of Kansas; (6) counties where several county high schools may be maintained by each county, as in North Carolina and Tennessee; and (7) consolidated elementary-school districts which may superimpose one or more high-school grades, as in Minnesota and Mississippi.

An Indiana act of 1921 requires the establishment and maintenance of township high schools under certain specified conditions. Any township having an assessed valuation of $600,000 or more, and having resident therein eight or more graduates of the elementary schools in each of the two preceding years, must establish a school of secondary grade, unless such a school is maintained within 3 miles of the limits of the township. In any township having an assessed valuation of $1,250,000 or more, a high school or joint high and elementary school must be established on petition of one-third of the resident persons in charge of children of school age, notwithstanding there may be a high school within 3 miles of the boundary lines of the township and without regard to the number of graduates of the elementary schools. Indiana had in 1920 a population which averaged 81.3 per square mile of the State as a whole. Since the township in that State is approximately 36 square miles in area, it should lend itself admirably to the purpose of providing high schools for rural communities. The general use of the township for this purpose, however, should have no claim to superiority over that of the county where an adequate number of high schools in each county is provided for in the law and where these schools are properly placed.

STATE AID TO SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Special State aid to schools of secondary grade is now almost universal in this country. Methods of distributing this aid vary in the different States, but those of most frequent occurrence exhibit one or more of the following bases for distribution: (1) Number of high schools maintained, distinction generally being made between different classes or grades of such schools; (2) number of teachers employed to give secondary instruction; (3) amount of tuition fees paid by districts not maintaining high schools of their own; and (4) number of high-school pupils in attendance The attendance basis appears in several acts of recent legislatures. A Rhode Island act of 1921 is noteworthy. It provides that any town maintaining a high school approved by the State board of education shall be entitled to receive, for the first 25 pupils in average attendance, $35 for each such pupil, and for the second 25 in attendance, $25 per pupil. The town so aided must admit pupils from other towns "to the extent of the capacity of its high school," at a rate of tuition not to exceed the average cost per capita for maintenance. A town not maintaining instruction of secondary grade must provide for the free attendance of its children at some high school or academy approved by the State board and shall be entitled to State aid for each pupil "upon the same basis and to the same extent as if it maintained a high school by itself."

SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

Two phases of recent legislation relating to the school plant are worthy of note here: First, the provisions made for more and better buildings generally; and, second, better regulation of schoolhouse construction by means of the requirement that plans and specifications have the approval of the State department of education. Even before our entry into the World War there was lack of adequate school-building accommodations in the country; and with the almost total stoppage of construction during the war there was by the year 1920 a widely felt want. This condition was aggravated by two serious difficulties in the way of resumption of construction, namely, the high cost of materials and labor and the failure of many bond issues to attract buyers. A very common way of meeting these difficulties was simply to submit to the payment of the high costs and to make bond issues more attractive as investments by means of legislation authorizing higher interest rates and the like.

North Carolina, however, chose a different plan of financing its needed buildings. By act of March 7, 1921, its legislature provided for a State bond issue of not over $5,000,000 for the purpose of establishing in the State treasury a "special building fund" to be loaned to county boards of education for the erection of schoolhouses. It was provided in the act that no loan be made for a building of less than five rooms and that plans for buildings have the approval of the State superintendent of public instruction. Thus the necessity of throwing local school bonds on the market and possibly having them go without buyers was obviated. In this connection it may be pointed out that Texas and a few other States use moneys of their permanent school funds to buy local bonds. This plan undoubtedly operates to stabilize the issue and sale of these bonds and in the same transaction provides safe investment for the permanent school fund.

A noteworthy act relating to the approval of schoolhouse plans was that of the Maine Legislature, approved by the governor March 17, 1921. This is an amendment of an older law, and the law as amended provides that plans for a new school building or for reconstruction costing $500 or more must have the approval of the State superintendent of schools. When the building is ready for occupancy the committee in charge of construction must report to the State superintendent such facts as will show whether the plans previously approved have been carried out. He may in his discretion have the building inspected and, where changes are required, order them to be made. On failure of the committee to make the required changes, State school funds may be withheld from the town erecting the building. Many of the States now provide by law for

the approval of schoolhouse plans by State departments, particularly of those for rural schools, and the Maine law is representative of the better class of these legal provisions.

TEACHERS' HOMES.

Only a few years back the teachers' cottage or home found little place in school laws, but more recently this is a subject of legislation in some State or States each year. More than one-third of the States now have laws specifically permitting school boards or other local agencies to expend public funds for the provision and maintenance of homes for the teacher or teachers employed in the district, and in numerous other cases some general authorization in the law would seem to embody this permission. There were in the school year 1921–22 more than 3,000 residences or other suitable buildings owned or rented by school districts and occupied by public-school teachers.

One of the most recent enactments on this subject was that of New Jersey, approved by the governor March 11, 1922. This act empowers the board of education of a consolidated district "to purchase, erect, or lease, and to furnish a residence or residences for teachers employed in the district, and to operate and maintain such residence or residences, providing both board and lodging, or either, for such teachers and upon such terms of payment as may be fixed by such board of education, and to borrow money therefor with or without mortgage." This act, it will be observed, permits the school board either to operate the home entirely or to provide lodging only, leaving the teachers to furnish their own meals. The Legislature of New York also provided for teachers' homes at its session of 1922.

TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES.

There has been no very distinctive legislation on this subject within the past two years. The general tendency to raise the qualifications required of teachers, which has been marked for many years, is still evident, however. A constant subject of legislation in this field is the accrediting of diplomas and certificates. The Florida Legislature of 1921 passed two acts of this nature which are representative. One of these acts provides for the issuance of a "graduate State certificate" to a graduate of the normal or collegiate department of the State university or the State College for Women if he or she has, in the junior and senior years, made on examination a general average of 85 per cent or more and an average in no subject less than 60 per cent. A diploma from the collegiate department, however, entitles the holder to a certificate only when he has devoted at least three-twentieths of his college study to psychology and educa-

tion or has taught 24 months in the public schools. A graduate of any chartered college or university in the State may be similarly certificated if the institution to be thus accredited submits to inspection and the regulations of the State board of education and maintains standards equivalent to those of the university and the college for women.

The other Florida act provides for accrediting in that State a teacher's certificate issued in another State. This act provides that the certificate filed for acceptance must be equivalent to a Florida first-grade or a State certificate and must represent certain prescribed educational qualifications and otherwise meet the approval of the State superintendent of public instruction. This act of the Florida Legislature exemplifies legislation of which there has been a considerable body in recent years. The advantages of such a law are obvious.

TEACHERS' SALARIES.

A Pennsylvania act of 1921 presents several of the better phases of "minimum salary laws." The purpose in such a law should be not merely to prevent the stingy school board or district from hiring a teacher at less than a decent living wage; the law should do this and more. It should recognize differences in academic and professional preparation and promote the employment of the better qualified teachers; it should make equitable allowance for variation of the cost of living, as, for example, between urban and rural communities; it should promote longer tenure; and, finally, it should provide for State aid in paying the minimum salaries required to be paid. Some of the earlier salary laws succeeded only in making the district pay a certain minimum, which often operated as a maximum, and where salaries were stipulated according to grade of certificate held, the demand for the low-grade teacher was in some cases increased, while the teacher of higher quality was inclined correspondingly to leave the profession or to go elsewhere to teach.

All school districts of Pennsylvania are classified as first, second, third, or fourth class, Philadelphia and Pittsburgh being districts of the first class, and gradation downward to the fourth is made according to population. The act here considered provides salary schedules for each class of district. The schedules for elementary teachers and for elementary principals devoting less than one-half their time to supervision and administration are given below.

Salaries of elementary teachers.

Classes of districts.	Minimum.	Annual increment.	Number of increments.
District of first class	$1,200	$100	8
District of second class	1,000	100	8
District of third class	1,000	100	4
District of fourth class	[1] 100		

[1] Per month.

It will be observed that these schedules provide somewhat higher salaries for teachers in the larger centers of population, and that the initial or basic salary is increased by a minimum annual increment for a prescribed number of years of teaching service. Similar schedules are prescribed for high-school teachers, principals, supervisors, and other members of the teaching and supervising staffs. The prescribed salaries and increments are intended as minima, local school authorities being permitted to allow higher pay, and where existing schedules provide salaries equal to or in excess of those provided by this act, these schedules may remain in force. The annual increments are applicable only where the "beneficiary" remains in the service of the same school district; when a teacher enters the service of a district other than where previously employed, the point of starting in the schedule must be as agreed upon with the proper authorities of the district becoming the new employer. Thus the act tends to bring about longer tenure of the same teaching position or in the same employing district.

With respect to qualifications required of beneficiaries the act provides that only where the qualifications required for the certificate held include not less than graduation from a State normal school or equivalent training, or where the certificate is a permanent license to teach in the public schools, is the teacher entitled to the benefits of the salary schedule. Teachers not entitled to these benefits must be paid at least $75 per month, or, in the case of the holder of a "professional certificate," $85 per month. After September 1, 1927, all persons receiving public-school teachers' certificates, except emergency certificates, must have the qualifications required by this act of beneficiaries of the salary schedules. Thus one of the effects of the act will be to raise the standard of teachers' qualifications.

Of the minimum salaries prescribed for the teaching and supervisory staffs, except those of part-time and night-school teachers, the State is to pay districts which comply with the law as follows: Districts of the first class, 25 per cent; districts of the second and third classes, 35 per cent; fourth class, 50 per cent. Where a teacher is legally paid less than the salary prescribed in the act a corresponding per cent of the salary is to be paid by the State. By means of these provisions for State aid the State of Pennsylvania will become, as the funds provided for in the act are made available by taxation or appropriation, a more generous contributor to the support of schools within its limits, and thus equality of educational opportunity will be promoted.

TEACHERS' TENURE.

"Teachers' tenure laws," which are now among the statutes of several States, present some difficulty of proper enactment and ap-

plication. It is certainly not desirable to give the inefficient or immoral teacher such strength of tenure that he can not by reasonable means be separated from the service; and, on the other hand, it would seem no more than just to give the efficient teacher, after a proper period of probation, such tenure as will relieve him of having to stand annually for reelection. There is, somewhere between hard and fast tenure and annual election, a desired mean; and recently enacted laws would seem to be trying to reach this by placing on the school board, after the probationary period is past, the burden of showing cause why any teacher should be dismissed or reduced.

A Colorado act of 1921, which applies to the city school districts of Denver, Colorado Springs, and Pueblo, exemplifies present-day legislation on this subject. The first section of this act is brief and may be quoted in full:

SECTION 1. Any teacher who has heretofore been or shall hereafter be employed as a regularly elected teacher for three consecutive school years in any first-class school district having 20,000 or more inhabitants, and shall be re-elected after the passage of this act, shall, without further election, have stable and continuous tenure of his or her position during efficiency and good behavior.

Section 2 of the act relates to the method of dismissal of a delinquent teacher. It provides that no teacher after probation shall be dismissed or reduced in salary (except in case of reduction of 50 per cent or more of all teachers), unless charges are preferred in writing and the accused is given opportunity after at least 30 days' notice to be heard in person and by attorney if he wishes. It is provided, however, that whenever dismissal is recommended by the superintendent of schools and by the principal or supervisor having immediate supervision of the teacher, it may be effected without a hearing by vote of at least two-thirds of the entire membership of the school board. But in such a case a statement in writing of the cause of the board's action must be furnished the accused, and a copy preserved in the records of the district. Evidence given at hearings must be under oath or affirmation, which may be administered by the president of the board.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS.

Two States in 1921 passed acts which are typical of the outstanding features of current enactments under this head. The Minnesota Legislature changed the names of "six educational institutions heretofore designated as State normal schools" to "State teachers' colleges," and the normal-school board was accordingly changed to State teachers' college board. The six institutions thus redesignated are located at Winona, Mankato, St. Cloud, Duluth, Moorhead, and

Bemidji. The board is authorized to award appropriate degrees to persons who complete the prescribed four-year course. Several other States have in very recent years designated as "teachers' colleges" all or one or more of their State institutions for training teachers.

By act of 1919, West Virginia provided for normal training courses in public high schools and granted State aid of $400 to each school approved for the purpose by the State board of education. This aid was to be in addition to sums allowed for classified high-school instruction, and was granted to not exceeding 10 schools in the State. Chapter 15 of the acts of 1921 amends the older law by allowing aid to the amount of $1,000 in lieu of the $400 and increases to 20 the number of schools that may be so aided. It is provided in the act that no training school located in a county in which there is a State normal school or other State institution maintaining a normal course shall be aided by the State. There are now somewhat more than one-half of the States in which normal training is maintained in public schools of secondary grade. Kentucky by act of 1922 provided for this kind of training.

TEXTBOOKS.

Since the change, in 1917, in Arkansas from county textbook uniformity to State uniformity, there has been no radical change of any State's policy with respect to the uniform use of textbooks in its public schools. With respect to free textbooks, there has been some tendency toward the further spread of free-book provision. Exclusive of a few States providing free books for indigent pupils only, there are now 39 States whose laws provide for furnishing textbooks free to public-school pupils, at least for the elementary grades. These laws fall into three general classes, as follows: (1) Those which provide that books be furnished at State expense, (2) those requiring local school authorities to furnish free books, and (3) those which merely permit local authorities to take such action. Five States are of the first class, 13 of the second, and 20 of the third.

Within the period here under review one law of the mandatory type was enacted. This was in Montana. The law of this State requires all school districts to purchase books and furnish them free of charge to public-school pupils, including those in high schools. District trustees are required to submit to the county commissioners estimates of the cost of books needed in their respective districts, and the commissioners must levy taxes in the several districts of the county to provide funds for the purchase of books. Parents or guardians may, under the Montana law, buy books for their own children or wards.

THE SCHOOL TERM.

The marked tendency in this country to raise the required school term to nine months in all districts where such a term can be maintained without undue burden is seen in a Michigan act of 1921. This act prescribes a minimum term of nine months for all districts, excepting any that may have an assessed valuation less than $75,000. In a district with less than $75,000 but with $30,000 or more the term must be at least eight months. If the valuation is less than $30,000 and the children of school age are fewer than 30, only seven months are required. Any district which fails or refuses to maintain school according to requirement forfeits its share of the State distributive school fund. This act also grants State aid of $200 annually to any "primary school district" maintaining a one-room school nine months, if its school-maintenance tax for a seven months' school is $12 or more on $1,000 of valuation; and a special appropriation is made to provide this aid.

THE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL.

Here is a term that needs better definition. Six States define by statute the term "consolidated school" or "consolidated district," while many other definitions are obtainable from such official sources as educational reports; and few, if any of these, are identical. The term, however, is generally understood in its principal aspects. These include the organization of a central school in place of two or more one-room or other small schools, the extension of the district over a wider area in order to make available and bring together at one center a sufficiently large group of pupils to permit suitable gradation and instruction, and the provision of an adequate school plant and of means of transportation to and from school.

An Iowa act of 1921 repeals that State's older law on the subject and substitutes several new paragraphs. This act does not especially define a consolidated school but provides that "consolidated-school corporations containing an area of not less than 16 Government sections of contiguous territory in one or more counties may be organized for the purpose of maintaining a central school." The procedure in effecting such an organization is by presenting to the county superintendent a petition of one-third of the voters of the proposed consolidated district; filing of objections, if any, with the superintendent and his decision thereon, subject to appeal to the county board of education; and a vote on the question by the qualified voters. A majority vote in the proposed district as a whole is necessary to decide the issue, but when it is proposed to include a district containing a town or village of 200

inhabitants or more or a school corporation comprising 16 sections of land and maintaining a central school, such a district or corporation may vote separately. It is provided in the act that the expenses incident to the organization of a consolidated district be paid out of the general funds of the county. Taxation is regulated by the existing school-tax laws, and a site and buildings may be provided either by taxes or by bond issue. Transportation must be provided for pupils, but the school board is not required to have the vehicle leave the public highway. Under the Iowa law annual State aid is granted to a consolidated school approved by the State superintendent of public instruction as follows: For a two-room building, $200; three-room building, $500; four rooms or more, $750.

Though some authorities would doubtless urge that a larger proportion of State aid be allowed the consolidated school, the Iowa act of 1921 exemplifies some of the better tendencies in present-day legislation on this subject. One marked tendency is seen in the provision that the proposed district vote as a whole on the issue. The earlier laws of some of the States permitted a single original district to defeat by a mere majority a proposed consolidation, even though a large majority of the votes in the proposed consolidated district as a whole were favorable. Another present-day tendency is toward effecting any single consolidation in the light of the interests of neighboring communities. It is easily conceivable that, unless proper foresight is exercised, a few favored communities in a county may effect consolidations in such fashion as to leave other parts of the county practically impossible of improvement by means of enlarged central schools. Under the Iowa act the county board of education is made the final authority in fixing the boundaries of proposed consolidated districts, and this board may prevent unwise district boundary arrangements.

THE PHYSICAL WELFARE OF SCHOOL CHILDREN.

A Massachusetts act of 1921 is typical of the better class of laws providing for the physical examination of public-school pupils. It requires the school committee of any city or town to appoint one or more school physicians and nurses, to assign them to the public schools, and to provide them with all proper facilities for the performance of their duties. The act provides, however, that such appointment and assignment to duty shall be made by the board of health in any city where this board is already providing medical inspection as contemplated in the school law. A second exemption is made in the case of a town constituting part of a superintendency union which employs medical experts to the satisfaction of the State

department of education. The Massachusetts law contemplates physical examination both for the purpose of discovering and excluding communicable diseases and in order to detect other ailments and defects for possible treatment and cure.

A class of legislation to which lessons learned from the World War gave decided impetus was the provision for physical education in the schools. Many of these provisions are mandatory in character—that is, they require the school authorities to provide physical training—and others are merely permissive. Under a Connecticut act of 1921 "there shall be established and made a part of the course of instruction in the public schools of this State a course in health instruction and physical education." The course must be adapted to the pupils of the several grades and "shall include exercises, calisthenics, formation drills, instruction in personal and community health, and safety, and in preventing and correcting bodily deficiency." The act directs that this course be prepared by the secretary of the State board of education, who may employ experts to assist in the preparation, and when approved by the State board the course so prepared must be used in the schools. All public-school pupils except those in kindergartens are required to take the course, which in measure of time must aggregate at least 2½ hours a week. Four-fifths of this time must be devoted to physical education and one-fifth to the teaching of health.

MORAL EDUCATION.

If one may judge from requests received in the Bureau of Education for information and advice relative to moral education in the public schools, there has been in recent years increased interest in this subject; and the enactment of several State laws designed to promote moral instruction has also shown this interest.

The most recent act relating to moral education was that of Mississippi, approved March 7, 1922. This act directs the State board of education to "prepare or cause to be prepared a suitable course of instruction in the principles of morality and good manners," provides that this course be used in all the public schools, and makes it the duty of county and city superintendents to see that the provisions of the act are carried out. It is provided that the course may be graded and may be formulated with the idea that a certain amount of time will be devoted to it. A proviso is added to the effect that no "doctrinal nor sectarian teaching shall be permitted in any public school," and that any pupil may be excused from the course on written request of his parent or guardian.

The Mississippi act presents several features in the introduction into the public-school curricula of what are often called "special

subjects." The first of these features is that it embodies little detail as to the nature of the course; it merely directs that a course be prepared, fixes one or two limitations, and then leaves the State board to work out the details administratively. This procedure is in accord with the approved practice in other States. A second noteworthy feature of the Mississippi act is that it prescribes no specific time to be devoted to the subject, and thus it avoids a danger seen in some other State laws relating to special subjects. This danger is that special-subject requirements with minimum time limits specified may be written into statutes to such extent that too much of the total weekly instruction period will be thus whittled away. It is better that legislators leave to the proper school authorities the matter of adjusting the desired new subject in the course of study. Another example of statutes omitting time limits is a 1921 act of California, which provides for instruction in the public schools in the causes and dangers of fires and means of fire prevention. This act directs school authorities to provide such a course and makes it the duty of each public-school teacher to devote "a reasonable time in each month" to instruction in the subject. In contrast with the principle of administration followed in the California and Mississippi acts, an act of another State requires that at least 30 minutes each week be devoted to instruction in kindness to animals.

AMERICANIZATION.

As early as 1919 the New York Legislature passed an act providing for the instruction of illiterates and non-English-speaking persons over 16 years of age. This act authorized the State commissioner of education to divide the State into zones and to appoint directors, teachers, and other necessary employees. It also authorized any city, county, or town to appropriate money for such instruction. By 1920 the movement for Americanization had gained momentum and two acts were passed on the subject in this State. One of these authorized the commissioner of education to provide courses for foreign-born and native persons over 16 and directed that these courses include English, history, civics, and other subjects promoting good citizenship; the other act directed the commissioner to provide in the normal schools courses for training teachers of Americanization subjects. An act of 1921, which comes within the period under review here, repeals the provisions of the act of 1919, authorizing the commissioner to divide the State into zones, and permits city boards of education and district trustees (as well as the State commissioner) to establish and maintain "courses of instruction or study and schools in connection with factories, places of employment, or in such other places as he or they may deem advisable" for the purpose of pro-

viding instruction for persons over 16 years of age. This act authorizes the apportionment of State funds to teachers in these courses as to the regular public-school teachers. State appropriations are made for Americanization.

An older act of the New York Legislature, passed in 1918, requires minors between 16 and 21 years of age who do not possess the ability to read, speak, and write the English language which is required for completion of the fifth grade of the public schools to attend a day or evening school. In this State the regular compulsory attendance law applies to children up to the age of 16, unless in lawful employment between the ages of 14 and 16, and employed children between these ages must attend continuation school. It is seen, therefore, that New York State has several laws designed to remove illiteracy or Americanize the foreign born, and these would seem to be of such character as to prove reasonably effective.

KINDERGARTENS.

A Wisconsin act of 1921 is selected for notice here. It provides that the school board of any school district, other than a union high-school district, shall establish and maintain a kindergarten in charge of a legally qualified teacher when petitioned so to do by the parents or guardians of 25 or more children between the ages of 4 and 6 years. In case the district maintains two or more school buildings, the petitioners must reside within 1 mile of the building in which it is proposed to establish the kindergarten. The act declares that when a kindergarten is established, it shall be a part of the common-school system of the district, and shall be supported by taxation as other schools are supported. Under existing Wisconsin law, the lower limit of the legal school age is 4 years; the kindergarten is therefore on equal footing with other public schools, subject, of course, to the legal provision relating to petitions. The type of law to which the new Wisconsin act belongs is widely known as the "mandatory-on-petition" type, and is urged by many as suitable for present-day conditions in the average State. Other mandatory-on-petition laws are found in Arizona, California, Kansas, North Dakota, and Texas.

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION.

By act of June 2, 1920, Congress provided for the "promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment." This act followed the same lines in general as the Smith-Hughes act providing for the promotion of vocational education in that it provided for cooperation between the Federal Government and the States, required the States

in order to share its benefits to assent to its provisions and match the Federal moneys dollar for dollar, and outlined a plan of administration similar to that provided for vocational education.

At the close of the fiscal year ended June 30, 1922, 34 of the States had accepted the provisions of the Federal act. These States were Alabama, Arizona, California, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

An Illinois act of 1921 is a representative State enactment on the subject. It accepts the provisions of the Federal act and designates the State board of vocational education as the board for carrying out its provisions. The Illinois act prescribes the duties of the State board as follows: (*a*) To cooperate with the Federal board, (*b*) to prescribe necessary courses, (*c*) to formulate a plan of cooperation with the State industrial commission, (*d*) to make and submit required reports and plans, and (*e*) to report annually to the governor. The State board is authorized to appoint needed technical and clerical assistants and to accept gifts and donations. A biennial appropriation of $125,000 is made, and the State treasurer is designated custodian of funds.

PRIVATE AND PAROCHIAL SCHOOLS.

The law of Nebraska, as amended by chapter 53 of the acts of 1921, embodies some noteworthy features relating to private and parochial schools. This act includes the compulsory attendance law of the State, and the regulation of schools other than public is related to compulsory attendance. The act contains three requirements which would seem to exemplify present-day tendency with respect to the regulation of private-school instruction. These requirements are, (1) that persons in charge of such schools submit to the public-school authorities reports of enrollment and attendance, (2) that teachers in these schools be holders of certificates as required of public-school teachers, and (3) that these schools be inspected by the proper public authorities. Under the act, reports must be made to the county superintendent of schools, or in case of a metropolitan city or city of the first class, to the city superintendent. With respect to certification, the act provides that the teacher in a private, denominational, or parochial school must hold a "certificate entitling such teacher to teach corresponding courses or classes in the public schools." Inspection is made by the county or city superintendent,

as the case requires, and the State superintendent is directed to require these local officers to make inspection at least twice each year. In case the private-school authorities fail or refuse to conform to the provisions of this act, no teacher can be lawfully licensed to teach in the school, and the attendance of pupils therein will not be accepted in lieu of public-school attendance. These provisions would seem to afford all the regulation necessary to bring private-school instruction up to the standards set by the State, at the same time leaving to such a school a measure of freedom of action consistent with American free institutions. It may be recalled here that the Ohio compulsory attendance law does not go so much into detail as the Nebraska law in the regulation of the private school. On the other hand, Michigan and Alabama have made detailed requirements similar to those of Nebraska.

INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING.

That a State tax should be levied especially for the support of State educational institutions is urged by many students of college and university administration, and there would seem to be some tendency toward the passage of laws providing special taxes for this purpose. The State of Washington, by act of 1921, provided mill-tax rates for the support of several of its educational institutions, as follows: For the university, 1.1 mills; State college (agricultural), 0.67 mill; Bellingham Normal School, 0.2 mill; Cheney Normal School, 0.159 mill; Ellensburg Normal School, 0.12 mill. The rates fixed in this act represent increases over those provided for in an older law. It is made the duty of the "joint board of higher curricula" to recommend to the legislature of 1925 any changes in these rates which it may deem necessary. Fourteen States now provide for all or a part of the maintenance of their State educational institutions by means of a mill-tax levy.

Another Washington act of 1921 relates to admission to the State university. It provides that "the University of Washington shall begin its courses of study in liberal arts and sciences at the points where the same are completed in the public high schools of the State, as far as practicable." The act provides that no student with qualifications less than graduation from a four-year accredited high school shall be admitted to the university, except that persons over 21 years of age and those registering in extension work, short courses, and summer sessions may be admitted. Admission is upon examination or upon certificate from a public high school or other educational institution whose course of study is approved by the university authorities.

AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES.

Two Utah acts of 1921 represent efforts to correlate the work of State universities and agricultural colleges. One of these acts outlines courses to be provided at the agricultural college, and the other, courses at the university. The act relating to the former institution directs that its curricula comprise agriculture, horticulture, forestry, animal industry, veterinary science, domestic science and art, elementary commerce, elementary surveying, instruction in irrigation for agricultural purposes, military science, history, language, mathematics, physical and natural science, mechanic arts, and pedagogy with special reference to industry. The college is not permitted to offer courses in liberal arts or the professions of law, medicine, and engineering, except agricultural engineering. It may confer no degree in education or pedagogy.

The act relating to the university declares this institution to be the "highest branch of the system of public education," and directs that its courses be arranged as far as practicable to supplement the instruction in the subordinate branches, "with a view to afford a thorough education to students of both sexes in the arts, sciences, literature, and the civil professions, including engineering." The university, however, must not include in its courses agriculture, except elementary agriculture in the normal course, horticulture, animal industry, veterinary science, or instruction in irrigation for agricultural purposes. No degree in domestic science and art may be awarded by the university.

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