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THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL

ITS ORGANIZATION AND CURRICULUM

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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C.

SIR: We are experiencing remarkable success in the United States in bringing larger percentages of children into our secondary schools. A few years ago the statement that we were a nation of sixth graders had justification in fact. At the rate at which pupils are now continuing into and through high school, another generation will make us largely a nation of high-school graduates. The influx of pupils of all degrees of mental ability, the growing complexity of the world of work, and the increasing tendency of the secondary school to reflect the world of work and adapt itself to the individual differences of pupils are rapidly broadening the course offerings in high schools. The demand for a broader program has reached the small high school. Meeting the demand constitutes the most difficult problem now confronting secondary education. Present efforts to meet the demand result in costs such as would be unbearable on a general scale. The Bureau of Education, therefore, is throwing a considerable portion of its own energy and is stimulating other agencies to give of their time in a study of the problems of the small high school. I, therefore, recommend for publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education this manuscript which is expected to be the first of a series devoted to the small high school and its problems.

Respectfully submitted.

JNO. J. TIGERT, *Commissioner.*

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

FOREWORD

This bulletin is the result of cooperative effort of the writer and the Rural Division of the United States Bureau of Education. In conference with specialists of this division the field of the study was defined and the questionnaire which was the principal source of data was drawn up. The Bureau of Education collected the questionnaire returns and made the preliminary tabulations upon which judgment is based. The writer is responsible for the data gathered by visitation of 54 schools in 18 States, for comparative statistics, and for the interpretation and treatment of the facts.

THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL: ITS ORGANIZATION AND CURRICULUM

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The main purpose of the present study is to make an analysis, largely on the basis of statistical material, of the rural high school as to (1) its internal organization; (2) its cooperative relationship with the community through community organizations; (3) the nature and extent of its extraclassroom activities; and (4) the nature and variety of its curriculums. Such other problems are considered as have an important bearing upon these four main questions.

Various interpretations have been given to the term rural high school. By some it has been used to denote a high school situated in the open country, by others to denote a high school in a center under 2,500 population. In New York State any high school situated in a center of less than 4,500 is designated as a rural high school. In the present study, the rural high school is defined as one in which 50 per cent or more of the pupils are from farm homes. This definition has been accepted because it simplifies to some extent the problem, and because the pupil seems to offer the best basis upon which to build a useful definition of the term.

The data for the study were obtained largely from two sources: (1) From the visitation by the writer of 54 rural high schools distributed over 18 States; and (2) from replies to questionnaires received from 231 principals of rural high schools representing 47 States. Additional information was gathered from recent reports and bulletins issued by various State departments of education, from bulletins of the United States Bureau of Education, and from special studies of certain phases of the work of small high schools.

Throughout the study comparisons are made with other small high schools. Particular reference is made to a group of such schools representing 41 different States and enrolling from 10 to 49 per cent of their pupils from farm homes. This latter group of schools will be designated in this report as semirural high schools, in order to distinguish them from the schools enrolling 50 per cent or more of their pupils from farm homes.

Of the 285 rural high schools supplying the principal data for the study, 77 per cent were four-year high schools, 11 per cent offered three years of work, and 12 per cent gave one or two years. Forty-one per cent of the schools were situated in the open country; 22 per cent in hamlets or unincorporated villages; and the location of three per cent was not definitely reported.

The data for the semirural high schools, those enrolling from 10 to 49 per cent of their pupils from farm homes, were obtained from 125 schools distributed over 41 States. Of the semirural schools 88 per cent offered four years of work, 4 per cent gave three years, and 8 per cent gave one or two years of high-school work. Ninety-two per cent of the semirural schools were situated in incorporated villages and 8 per cent in unincorporated hamlets or villages.

The median enrollment for the rural high schools was approximately 45 pupils, with one-fourth of the schools enrolling 25 pupils or fewer, and one-fourth 80 pupils or more. For the semirural schools the median enrollment was approximately 70 pupils, with one-fourth of the schools enrolling 38 or fewer, and one-fourth enrolling 125 or more. The size and range of the schools from which the data were obtained indicate that they are typical of high schools most commonly available to rural pupils. The report of the United States Bureau of Education for 1917–18, on the high schools of the country, gives a fraction over one-half of the schools as enrolling 50 or fewer pupils, with practically one-fourth enrolling 25 or fewer pupils and one-fourth 100 or more. Data available from individual States show similar figures.

As to teaching staff the median rural high school, as indicated by the group studied, has approximately 3½ teachers, with the middle 50 per cent ranging from 2 to 5½. For the group of 125 semirural high schools the median number of high-school instructors per school was 4½, with one-fourth of the schools having 2½ or fewer, and one-fourth having 6½ or more.

The proportion of men to women teachers, including the principal, in the rural high schools was approximately 40 to 60. In the semirural high schools the proportion was 34 to 66. The higher percentage of men in the teaching staff of the rural schools is partially explained by the fact that the principal in both types of schools is usually a man. With a smaller teaching staff in the rural schools, the relative number of men thus automatically becomes greater. In the rural high schools approximately 15 out of each 100 principals were women, while in the semirural high schools reporting 9 out of each 100 were women, showing a somewhat greater proportion of women principals in the rural than in the semirural high schools.

Chapter II

GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL

Organization into elementary grades and high school.—In the majority of States the most common organization of rural schools is that of an eight-year elementary school and a four-year high school. In most of the Southern States the plan of a seven-year elementary school and a four-year high school is followed, although some of the Southern States, such as Alabama and Mississippi, are looking forward to 12 years of elementary-secondary education. As shown by recent State programs of studies and reports of State departments of education on rural high schools, there is a growing tendency toward a different organization for rural elementary and high schools. This tendency is toward a six-year elementary school and a five or six year secondary school, usually a six-year one, beginning with the seventh grade.

In the majority of the States this new type of organization has not yet been effected in any large proportion of the rural communities. In some States, however, it has already made considerable progress.

At one extreme stand such States as New York and Illinois, where practically nothing has been done toward organization of rural secondary education on a six-year basis. At the other extreme are found such States as Vermont and Utah, where the most common type of organization for rural secondary education is a high school beginning with the seventh grade. Other States, such as California, Oregon, Indiana, Ohio, Maine, West Virginia, and Alabama, have given definite encouragement either to the development of junior-senior rural high schools or of a six-year school, and have many such schools in operation. In Iowa about 27 per cent of the consolidated schools are organized with six years of secondary school work beginning with the seventh grade. In New Hampshire 20 per cent of the rural high schools are organized as junior-senior schools.[1]

Of the schools forming the basis of the present study, approximately 66 per cent were organized under the regular 7–4 or 8–4 plan. The remaining 34 per cent had taken steps in the direction of a closer articulation between the upper grades of the elementary school and the high school than has been the case in the past. Slightly over 6 per cent of them reported departmental instruction in the two upper grades of the elementary school. A little over 8 per cent were offering prevocational courses in agriculture and home economics for the seventh and eighth grades. Two per cent reported promotion by subject in the two upper grades. Approximately 9 schools out of 100 reported a junior high school. For the schools reached by

[1] Based on high schools enrolling 50 per cent or more of their pupils from farm homes.

questionnaire the data obtained did not show whether the organization was of the 6–2–4, the 6–3–3, or the 6–6 type.

Of the 54 schools visited by the writer, however, 6 had the 6-year secondary school organization. Of the 6 schools 1 was organized on the 6–2–4, 1 on the 6–3–3, and 4 on the 6–6 plan.

Only an occasional school reported the extension of high-school subjects into the upper grades of the elementary school. The subjects so reported were Latin, physical geography, general science, algebra, and commercial subjects. The data at hand indicate that the small high schools of New York have gone further in this direction than have the rural high schools of any of the other States. In 1920–21, of 405 high schools reporting on the item, over 35 per cent were teaching algebra in the eighth grade, over 10 per cent Latin, and 10 per cent science, usually biology.[3] Because the high-school subjects most frequently introduced into the eighth grade have been those most difficult for first-year high-school pupils, this practice of the New York schools has been of very doubtful value as a means of articulation between the high school and the elementary grades.

The school day.—In the organization of the school day in rural high schools there is remarkable uniformity throughout the country. The data, printed in Table 1, gathered from the rural high schools visited and from the replies to questionnaires from rural and semi-rural high schools, show this uniformity very clearly. All show that the most common organization is a school day of eight instruction periods.

TABLE 1.—*Number of instruction periods in the school day*

Number of periods	285 rural high schools	125 semi-rural high schools	Total	Per cent	401 small high schools, New York	Per cent
5	3	4	7	1.7	2	0.5
6	12	8	20	4.9	5	1.2
7	63	41	104	25.4	127	31.7
8	183	59	242	59.0	245	61.1
9	18	10	28	6.8	17	4.2
10	6	3	9	2.2	5	1.2
Total	285	125	410	100.0	401	99.9

Length of instruction periods.—The data on the length of the recitation period in the rural high schools show considerable diversity in practice. The prevailing period, however, is 40 minutes in length.

[3] Rural school survey of New York State. The rural high school, pp. 46-47.

TABLE 2.—*Length of recitation periods in rural high schools*

Length of periods in minutes	285 rural high schools	125 semi-rural high schools	Total	Per cent	402 small high schools, New York	Per cent
30	3	2	5	1.2	4	1.0
35	2		2	.5	22	5.5
40	158	80	238	58.0	249	61.7
45	99	28	127	31.0	71	17.6
50	2		2	.5		
60	7	6	13	3.2	2	.5
35–40	4	1	5	1.2	16	4.0
40–45	5	4	9	2.2		
40–60	1	1	2	.5	23	5.8
45–60	2		2	.5		
Other types	2	3	5	1.2	15	3.8
Total	285	125	410	100.0	402	99.8

The frequency of the 40-minute period in rural high schools is undoubtedly the result of the requirements of the several States. The majority of the States require that the recitation period in high schools doing accredited work shall contain a minimum of 40 minutes. Ohio recommends a 45-minute period, with 40 minutes in the clear for classroom work. South Carolina recommends an instruction period of 45 minutes, and Indiana requires a 40-minute period but recommends 45 minutes. West Virginia recommends a 45-minute period, for junior high schools, divided into 30 minutes for recitation and 15 minutes for study, and for senior high schools a 60-minute period, divided into 40 minutes for recitation and 20 minutes for study. In its 1923 State course of study for high schools, the Louisiana department of education makes the following statement with regard to the 60-minute period:

> For several reasons it seems now desirable to permit schools to organize all high-school work on the basis of 60-minute periods, except in schools offering agriculture and home economics under the provisions of the Smith-Hughes law.

Laboratory periods.—In general, the organization of the laboratory work in the sciences is on the plan of two double periods a week. The same plan is commonly used for the work in home economics, agriculture, and manual training in the schools offering practical arts or vocational subjects.

The double-period plan prevailingly followed in the rural high schools for laboratory work gives laboratory periods of 80 or 90 minutes. A small number of schools reported periods of more than 90 minutes. Over 3 per cent of the smaller schools reported no laboratory work and over 4 per cent reported laboratory periods only 40 or 45 minutes in length. Approximately 4 out of each 100 schools reported a 60-minute laboratory period. In most instances, these were the same schools that reported a 60-minute instruction period in the general organization of the school's daily program, and this seems to indicate a tendency to put all subjects on the same time basis.

This plan has been growing in city high schools to a considerable extent. It simplifies program making in the rural high school, removing as it does the overlapping of science into a second period. Before this plan could be used very extensively in rural high schools the requirements of most of the States of a double period for laboratory work would necessarily have to be changed.

TABLE 3.—*Organization of laboratory work*

Length of laboratory periods in minutes	285 rural high schools	125 semi-rural high schools	Total	Per cent
No laboratory work	12	2	14	3.4
40	7	5	12	2.9
45	5	2	7	1.7
60	10	7	17	4.1
80	147	76	223	54.4
90	92	26	118	28.8
60 and 90	3	1	4	.9
80 and 90	6	4	10	2.4
Over 90	3	2	5	1.2
Total	285	125	410	99.8

The size of classes.—One of the serious problems of the rural high school, with its small enrollment, is to offer a desirable number and range of subjects and at the same time avoid an undue percentage of exceedingly small classes. Even under the most skillful management and with a limited program the classes will necessarily run smaller than for urban schools with a larger enrollment.

The figures for 1,966 classes in rural high schools indicate that the most frequently occurring or modal class contains from 6 to 10 pupils, while the median class contains approximately 11 pupils. For semirural high schools where the average enrollment is greater the classes run correspondingly larger. The figures for 3,517 classes in semirural schools show a modal class of 11 to 15 pupils, with a median class of approximately 17 pupils. Studies of high-school classes for the States of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New York give similar results for the small high schools.

In Connecticut [3] the modal class for schools with an enrollment under 100 contain 6 to 10 pupils and the median class approximately 10 pupils. For schools with an enrollment of 100 to 299 the modal class had 11 to 15 pupils with a median class of approximately 17 pupils. In Massachusetts [4] the modal class for schools with an enrollment under 200 contained 6 to 10 pupils, as did also the modal class for 184 small high schools selected at random from all types of small high schools of New York.[5] In Massachusetts the median class had 12.5 pupils and in New York State, 10.2 pupils. In New

[3] Organization and administration of high schools in the State of Connecticut. Jesse B. Davis. 1921. pp. 4–5.

[4] Report on high schools for the year 1917, Mass. Board of Educa., Bul., 1918, No. 5.

[5] The rural high school, vol. 7, Rural school survey of New York State. E. N. Ferriss. pp. 44–45.

York the median class in schools with an enrollment under 50 had 6.8 pupils and in schools with an enrollment over 50 but less than 100, 11.6 pupils. All studies indicate that for the typical rural high school, as for other high schools of similar size, the modal class has from 6 to 10 pupils and the median class from 10 to 12 pupils.

TABLE 4.—*Size of classes in rural and other small high schools*

Size of classes	Number of classes					Percentage of classes				
	Rural high schools	Semi-rural high schools	Massachusetts high schools, 1-200 pupils	Connecticut high schools, 1-100 pupils	184 New York small high schools	Per cent, rural	Per cent, semi-rural	Per cent, Massachusetts	Per cent, Connecticut	Per cent, New York
1-5	209	226	588	115	925	13.7	6.4	13.9	22.3	23.2
6-10	592	665	1,019	144	1,051	30.1	18.9	24.1	28.0	26.3
11-15	466	741	1,008	109	651	23.7	21.1	23.9	21.2	16.3
16-20	305	729	794	71	664	15.5	20.7	18.8	13.8	16.6
21-25	172	528	458	28	478	8.7	15.0	10.9	5.4	12.0
26-30	70	346	228	31	----------	3.6	9.8	5.4	6.0	----------
31-35	33	157	91	9	[1] 222	1.7	4.4	2.2	1.7	5.6
36 or over	59	125	34	8	----------	3.0	3.6	0.8	1.6	----------
Total	1,966	3,517	4,220	515	3,991	100.0	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] For New York all classes of 26 pupils or over were placed in one group.

Supervised study.—In the matter of supervised study the majority of the small high schools of the country are using no plan other than that of the general study hall. Different teachers are responsible for keeping the room during the several periods of the day. With the major proportion of the schools organized as they are on the 40 or 45 minute basis, practically no time in single-period subjects is devoted to preparation of work during the recitation period. The bulk of the studying during the school day is done in the general study hall. For the most part the steps taken by rural high-school principals in the direction of supervising study have been in connection with the study-hall plan. Many principals, especially of the semirural high schools, who reported that they were not using any plan of supervised or directed study, stated, at the same time, that there was some supervision of study in the general study room. This apparent inconsistency indicates, it would seem, that in the minds of the principals such oversight was, in no real sense, supervised study.

TABLE 5.—*Organization of supervised study*

Plan of supervision used	285 rural high schools	125 semirural schools	405 small high schools, New York	Per cent, rural high schools	Per cent, semirural high schools	Per cent, small high schools, New York
Not following any definite plan	174	78	270	61.0	62.4	66.6
Some supervision of study in study hall	105	91	----------	36.8	72.8	----------
Divided period	39	26	64	13.7	22.4	15.8
Double period	32	22	23	11.2	17.6	5.7
Conference period	36	41	74	12.6	32.8	18.3
A general supervised study period	58	30	1	20.3	24.0	0.2
Pupils study in classrooms	9	----------	7	3.2	----------	1.7
Other methods	15	3	16	6.3	2.4	3.9

The status of supervised study in 405 small high schools of New York State, in 1920–21, was very similar to that reported by the rural and semirural schools of the present study. In New York, 66.6 per cent reported no plan of supervised study in operation, and the plans most frequently followed were the divided period and the conference period. In contrast with the rural and semirural high schools only one of the New York schools reported a daily program organized with a general study period. (Table 5.)

Other methods of supervising study were reported by an occasional school. One principal had his program arranged so that the first-year pupils had their study periods in charge of the teachers who instructed them in English, algebra, and general science. Four principals reported a teacher employed particularly for supervising the work of the general study hall. One school had a study room fitted up with library tables, chairs, and a reference library with a teacher in charge for each period. Three schools required pupils who were in need of special help in a certain subject to prepare that subject in the classroom of the teacher giving the instruction.

Pupil guidance.—A large proportion of the rural high schools reported something in the way of pupil guidance. Approximately 70 per cent of the rural schools and 80 per cent of the semirural schools were giving some attention to the problem of educational and vocational guidance of high-school pupils. The two plans most often reported were guidance by the principal through conferences, and by an instructor acting as adviser. Approximately 45 per cent of the rural high-school principals were using the former plan and 40 per cent the latter. For the semirural high schools a much larger per cent reported both the conference and the adviser method. For both types of schools practically the same schools reported the use of both the conference by the principal and the instructor acting as an adviser.

Occupational talks were given in almost 28 per cent of the rural high schools and in 41 per cent of the semirural schools. Twenty, or 7 per cent, of the rural and 20, or 16 per cent, of the semirural schools were giving either a course or at least some work in the study of occupations. Observation trips were reported by 24 per cent of the rural high schools and 36 per cent of the semirural schools. Other methods of guidance were used in a few schools. Two principals of rural high schools reported consultations with parents as a phase of their work in guidance. Four were carrying on a study of occupations in connection with the courses in agriculture, and two principals were using civics as the course through which occupations were studied. Two principals were making use of motion pictures in this connection, and three reported that their plan for vocational guidance

was to relate the curriculum of the schools as closely as possible with the needs of the community.

TABLE 6.—*Pupil guidance in the rural high school*

Method employed	Number of schools using—			Percentage of schools		
	Rural high schools	Semi-rural high schools	405 small high schools, New York	Rural high schools	Semi-rural high schools	Small high schools, New York
No plan for guidance	87	25	212	30.5	20.0	52.3
Using some form of guidance	198	100	193	69.5	80.0	47.7
Principal through conference	127	98		44.5	78.4	
Instructor as adviser	115	87	190	40.4	69.6	46.9
Occupational talks	79	51	74	27.7	40.8	18.3
Study of occupations	20	20	13	7.0	16.0	3.2
Observation trips	69	45	39	24.2	36.0	9.6
Other methods	12	10	31	4.2	8.0	7.6

In conclusion, it may be said that while the majority of rural high schools are giving some attention to the problems of pupil guidance, only a relatively small number have any definitely organized system of guidance. Of the 54 schools visited by the writer, only 13 had in operation a guidance program, although practically all the principals felt the need of such a program.

School lunches.—The problem of the school lunch in rural high schools was studied only in connection with the 54 schools visited. As these schools were distributed over 18 States, however, the facts gained may be indicative of what is being done in rural high schools. Of the 54 schools, 31 did not serve lunches to pupils, and 23 served lunches either every day or on certain days of the week. Twenty of the schools served a school lunch every school day; one school served two days a week; and two schools three days a week. Twenty-one of the schools served throughout the school year and two schools only during the winter months.

In 17 schools the instructor in home economics had charge of the school lunches, the preparation and serving being done by girls taking the work in home economics. Two schools employed women from outside the school, and in two schools the parent-teachers association had charge of the work. Two county high schools had regular dining room service in connection with their dormitories.

In most of the schools a small charge was made for each dish served although in two schools the lunch was free, the pupils furnishing their own cups and spoons. In most of the schools the lunch was simple, consisting of dairy dishes or of a soup, hot chocolate, and one additional dish. In four schools the teacher in charge of the lunches was relieved of two periods of teaching. In two schools girls were paid for washing the dishes used in the serving.

Pupil records.—The high school needs for its work a system of records usable and complete. The record of pupils not only as to scholastic work done but with regard to attendance, health, age, schools attended, date of leaving or graduation, participation in school and extra-school activities, interests and aptitudes shown, and vocational and educational plans and ambitions, are indispensable to the principal and teachers in a modern high school. Without such records the principal can not perform his administrative duties efficiently. Without complete pupil records easily accessible, effective work in educational and vocational guidance is impossible. The school also owes it to each pupil to have on file in a permanent form a complete record of his high-school work where he can refer to it when needed. Every rural high school should be supplied with the equipment necessary for a good system of records, and the principal should be given help sufficient to keep it up to date.

The methods of keeping pupil records in rural high schools are shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Method of keeping pupils' records*

Method used	Number of schools using each method			
	Rural high schools		Semirural high schools	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Cumulative card index	142	50	75	60
Loose-leaf book	34	12	11	9
Book register or ledger	64	22	17	14
Monthly or term reports or class record	8	3	3	2
Notebook, examination papers	2	1+		
Record in county superintendent's office	2			
Not reported	33	12−	19	15

Transportation.—The data on transportation and other means used by the rural and semirural high schools to make high-school education available to rural children indicate that much is being done. They also show that the means used are varied.

Of the 54 rural high schools visited, 28 were furnishing transportation for pupils and 26 were not. Of the 28 schools furnishing transportation, 18 owned the conveyances used and 10 contracted with drivers who owned their own trucks or wagons. In 16 of these schools the drivers were adults; in 7, high-school pupils; and in 5, both pupils and adults.

TABLE 8.—*Transportation and other means of making high-school education available to rural children*

Means used	Number of schools using			
	Rural high schools		Semirural high schools	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Transportation by—				
Auto truck	60	32	48	38
School wagon	40	14	21	17
Other paid transportation, such as trolley, or train	31	11	24	19
Dormitories for boys	9	3	3	2
Dormitories for girls	8	3	2	----
Free tuition to nonresident pupils	67	24	56	45
Tuition paid by—				
District board	9	----	9	----
County	4	5	2	2
Schools reporting no means used	64	22	40	32

Buildings and grounds.—The effectiveness of the work of a high school with respect to its organization and instruction is in a large measure determined by the building, grounds, and equipment. Inadequate building and ground facilities and poor arrangement are important factors in hindering the principal and teachers in accomplishing their work. No detailed information from all the schools on this phase of the rural high-school is available for the present study. Certain phases of the problem rather general in nature were studied in connection with the 54 rural high schools visited.

For the 54 schools the range as to the cost of the school plant was from $15,000 to $300,000. The approximate median value was $50,000. As to construction, 35 of the buildings were of brick and wood, 8 of brick, steel, and concrete, and 11 were of wood. Thirteen were heated by stoves, 28 by steam, and 13 by hot air. Thirty-seven of the 54 schools had indoor toilets and 17 outdoor toilets, 8 of which were in bad condition. Earl A. Collins [6] gives the median cost of the township high-school buildings of Illinois as $40,100 and of the community high-school building as $20,300. In both cases, the figure given is in terms of cost and not in terms of present value. Mr. Collins's figures for township and community high schools of Illinois for which data are available are: Heated by steam, 249; by hot air, 58; by stove, 20; and by room heaters, 15.[6]

Thirty-three schools had an auditorium or auditorium and study hall combined; 6 had an auditorium and community room combined; 4 an auditorium and gymnasium combined; 7 had a community room; and 4 had no auditorium facilities. Six schools, in addition to the four previously mentioned, had an indoor gymnasium and 42 had no gymnasium. Of the 54 schools, 45 had one or more science

[6] Earl A. Collins. Survey of the township and community high schools of Illinois. State Teachers' College, Warrensburg, Mo.

laboratories; 13 had a manual training room or rooms; 13 a room or rooms for agriculture; 21 a room or rooms for home economics, and 5 a room or rooms for commercial work. Forty-two schools had a principal's office, 17 a teachers' room, and 4 a nurses' room. Twenty-nine schools had a separate room for the library. In 26 schools no current magazines or newspapers were in the library.

The size of the school grounds ranged from 1 acre to a school farm of 240 acres, the median being approximately 4 acres. Twenty-two of the schools had a football gridiron, 31 a baseball diamond, 32 basketball courts, 13 a track, and 11 had tennis courts. In a considerable number of instances these athletic fields were not on the school grounds.

TABLE 9.—*Provision of the 54 rural high schools for athletics*

Nature of the field	On school grounds	Not on school grounds	No field
Football gridiron	17	5	32
Baseball diamond	25	6	23
Basketball courts	27	5	22
Track	7	6	41
Tennis courts	8	3	43

Mr. Collins, in his study of 212 township and 259 community high schools of Illinois, gives the following figures for schools for which data were available, indicating the facilities for physical education and outdoor athletics in those schools:

TABLE 10.—*Rooms and equipment for physical education*

	Gymnasium in building	Gymnasium outside	None	Complete equipment	Basketball, volley ball	Little or none
Township	87	39	46	43	26	9
Community	77	70	116	26	28	14

TABLE 11.—*Provision for outdoor athletics*

	Township	Community		Township	Community
Baseball	45	60	Tennis	42	44
Football	26	25	Croquet	3	1
Basketball	36	93	Apparatus	3	22
Volley ball	7	18	Athletic field	36	45
Track	40	38	None	4	9

One of the things needed by the high school of to-day, if it is to meet the demands of high-school training, is facilities for its work in physical education. The impression gained from the information at hand is that the rural and semirural high schools, in general, are as yet but poorly equipped for effective work in physical education.

Chapter III

ORGANIZATION OF THE TEACHER'S WORK

Daily teaching load.—Data on the teaching load of instructors in the rural and semirural high schools were obtained from daily programs of 1,161 teachers. The examination of this material showed that the significant differences were not between rural high schools on the one hand and semirural schools on the other, but between schools with teaching staffs of different sizes. The smaller schools for both types were very much alike in their demands upon the teacher. Likewise the larger schools of both groups showed great similarity. Consequently, it seemed most helpful to group the figures reported on the basis of the number of instructors in the school. The data as given are for all teachers whose daily programs were definitely reported and are arranged in two groups; first, for schools with one to four teachers, and, second, for schools with five or more teachers. Teachers giving only part time to high-school teaching, in so far as these could be determined, were excluded from the tabulations.

In both groups of schools a strong tendency is shown to observe the recommendations of the North Central Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges and other similar organizations, and of the departments of education of individual States as to the number of periods a day a high-school teacher should devote to instruction. The North Central Association recommends five periods a day for the high-school instructor, with a possible maximum of six periods for schools holding membership in the association. The following are examples of standards of teaching load, in terms of periods a day, for high-school instructors, suggested by individual States: West Virginia, Virginia, and New Mexico recommend five periods a day as the standard. Indiana, New Jersey, Missouri, Ohio, South Dakota, Idaho, Nevada, Wyoming, and Florida are some of the States recommending six periods as the maximum daily load. Alabama places the maximum for accredited schools at seven periods a day with five periods as the standard to be striven for ultimately.

TABLE 12.—*The teacher's daily teaching load, in terms of number of different subjects taught*

Number of subjects	Number of teachers, 1–4 teacher schools	Number of teachers, 5 or more teacher schools	Per cent of teachers, 1–4 teacher schools	Per cent of teachers, 5 or more teacher schools
1	26	181	6.2	24.4
2	89	252	21.2	34.0
3	148	189	35.3	25.5
4	97	84	23.2	11.3
5 or more	59	36	14.1	4.8
Total	419	742	100.0	100.0
Median	3.0	2.7		

In New York State[7] the median number of different subjects handled by teachers in schools with an enrollment under 50 was 3.8, in schools with 50 to 99 pupils 3.2 subjects, and in schools with an enrollment of 100 or over the median number was 2.7. In Connecticut,[8] in schools with 100 to 299 pupils, 15 per cent of the instructors were teaching more than three subjects, and 41 per cent were teaching more than three subjects in schools enrolling fewer than 100 pupils. A study by P. W. Hutson[9] of 270 science teachers of Minnesota for 1921–22 gives the modal number of different subjects handled by science teachers in high-school departments of State graded schools as four, and in high schools with faculties of 10 or fewer as three. In the former type of schools, over 33 per cent of the teachers were giving instruction in five or more subjects and in the latter type over 8 per cent were teaching five or more subjects. For all high schools of Wisconsin[10] approximately 23 per cent of the instructors in academic subjects were giving instruction in three or more subjects and 9 per cent were teaching four or more subjects daily.

For 396 teachers in rural high schools reports were given as to their major field of preparation for teaching. Sixteen per cent were teaching only the subjects in the field to which they had given the most attention in their work preparatory to teaching. Sixty-eight per cent were giving part of their time to instruction in subjects in their major field, and 16 per cent were giving no instruction in subjects for the teaching of which they had made special preparation. For the semirural schools data were obtained for 612 teachers. Of the 612 reported, 38 per cent were giving all their time to subjects within their major field, 50 per cent were teaching some subjects within the field emphasized in their work preparatory to teaching, and 12 per cent were teaching no subjects within their major field of training.

TABLE 13.—*Major field of training*

Teaching in major field								No teaching in major field			
Full time				Part time							
Rural high schools		Semirural high schools		Rural high schools		Semirural high schools		Rural high schools		Semirural high schools	
Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
64	16	234	38	269	68	310	50	63	16	68	12

[7] The rural high school, p. 40.

[8] Organization and administration of high schools in the State of Connecticut, p. 8.

[9] Hutson, P. W. High-school science teachers. Educa. Admin. and Supervis., vol. 9, pp. 423–438, October, 1923.

[10] Anderson, C. J. The status of teachers in Wisconsin, pp. 145–149.

Data on 1,105 teachers in the small high schools of New York State for the year 1920–21, show that 30.5 per cent were giving full time to the teaching of the subjects representing their major studies in college. A little over 56 per cent were giving part of their time to teaching the subjects in which they had taken their major work, and 13 per cent were giving no instruction in the subjects representing their major field of preparation. In schools with an enrollment of fewer than 50 pupils 14 per cent of the instructors were giving all their time to subjects within their major field, 72 per cent were teaching some subjects representing their major field, and 14 per cent were teaching no subjects representing their major field of training.

Of the teachers in schools of 50 or fewer pupils, over 50 per cent had majored in English, mathematics, and Latin, while only 11 per cent had majored in history and less than 10 per cent in the natural sciences. Only 2.3 and 2.6 per cent respectively had majored in home economics and agricultural subjects. Practically none had majored in social sciences other than history.

Chapter IV

PRINCIPAL'S WORK IN THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL

The principal's position in the rural high school is a complex one with many duties. In addition to the supervisory and administrative duties composing the major items in the work of principal of the urban high school, he has a teaching schedule, clerical work, the direct management of pupil activities, school board meetings, and the educational meetings of the patrons of his school and of the general community. In most instances, also, he is responsible for the management of the elementary grades.

Distribution of the principal's time.—The data from the schools supplying the information for this study show that the principal of the rural or semirural high school is primarily a teacher. For the 54 rural high schools visited the median teaching load of the principal was four 40-minute periods a day, or one-half day on an eight-period schedule. The middle 50 per cent had a daily teaching load of three to five 40-minute periods.

For the 227 rural high schools reporting by questionnaire, the median teaching load of the principal was five periods. The middle 50 per cent were teaching from four to six and one-half periods. Reports from 109 semirural high schools, on this item, showed a median teaching load of four 40-minute periods, with a middle 50 percentile range of approximately two to five periods of teaching daily. The

median for the 390 rural and semirural schools was four and one-half periods, with a middle 50 percentile range of approximately three to six periods.

TABLE 14.—*The principal's teaching load*

Number of minutes a day	54 rural high schools visited	227 rural high schools reporting	109 semi-rural high schools	Total, 390 high schools	385 small high schools, New York
None	4	2	5	11	14
40	0	2	6	8	23
41–80	5	7	13	25	27
81–120	7	19	15	41	26
121–160	12	29	20	61	56
161–200	12	53	22	87	68
201–240	6	44	13	63	60
241–280	6	33	11	50	60
281–320	2	28	3	33	38
Over 320	0	10	1	11	13
Approximate median	160	200	160	180	200
Middle 50 per cent	120–200	160–260	90–200	130–240	120–250

In New York 385 small high schools reporting for the school year 1920–21 gave a median teaching load for the principal of five periods a day, with the middle 50 per cent ranging from three to a trifle over six periods.[11] A study made by Rolland R. John of the principal's load in the high schools of California shows that for 60 high schools enrolling fewer than 150 pupils the median was five 40-minute periods a day, with a middle 50 percentile range of three to five and one-half periods.[12]

The data from the 390 rural and semirural high schools do not show the time given by the principals to preparation for their teaching. Mr. John's study of the high schools of California shows that the middle 50 per cent of principals for schools with enrollments under 150 gave from three to seven periods a week, with a median of five, or an hour a day to preparation for their teaching. The similarity between the amount of teaching done by principals in the small California high schools and those specially considered in the present study would seem to indicate that the median amount of time given by principals of rural high schools to preparation of their teaching materials is probably in excess of an hour a day.

Supervision of study hall.—On the matter of study hall supervision, only 105 of the rural high-school principals gave definite replies. Of those replying, 56 principals, or 53 per cent, were devoting one period a day to supervising the study hall. Twenty-two, or 21 per cent, were giving two periods a day; and 27, or 26 per cent, reported no time given to supervision of the study hall. Of the 22 principals reporting no time devoted to supervision of study hall as such, 9 were

[11] The rural high school, pp. 29–30.
[12] Rolland R. John. The principal's load. School Review, 31: 748–55.

teaching every period in the day. Although the reports are incomplete, they indicate that the average principal in the small high school devotes at least one period a day to supervising the study hall.

Of the 125 principals of semirural schools, only 51 per cent reported definitely with regard to the amount of time given to study hall supervision. Of those reporting, 33 per cent were devoting one period a day and 21 per cent two periods. Forty-six per cent reported no time given to supervision of the study hall. Two per cent were teaching every period of the day.

Supervision of classroom instruction.—In the majority of the rural high schools the principal, in some States called the superintendent, is also principal of the elementary grades. With a high-school force of three or four teachers, including himself, he has ordinarily a teaching staff for the elementary grades of three to six teachers. The time he gives to supervision of instruction is usually divided between the high school and the elementary grades. In some States he depends to a greater or lesser extent upon the county or district superintendent for the elementary school supervision and gives the greater part of his attention to supervision of the work in the high school. In a few of the larger schools he has an assistant principal or head teacher who teaches in the elementary grades and gives some assistance in the supervision of teaching in the elementary grades.

In the larger proportion of the schools, however, the principal divides his time available for classroom supervision about equally between the grades and the high school. Statements from 48 [11] of the 54 principals interviewed as to distribution of time devoted to supervision showed an equal amount of time given to each, or approximately 30 minutes a day. One-fourth of the principals reported 15 minutes or less each to the grades and the high school, and one-fourth reported 40 minutes or more to each. According to replies to a questionnaire, made by 210 principals of rural high schools, the median amount of time given the elementary grades and the high school was approximately 20 minutes a day for each. One-fourth of the principals reported 10 minutes a day or less to supervision of instruction in the elementary grades and the high schools respectively. One-fourth reported 30 minutes or more given to the elementary school and 40 minutes or more to the high school.

Replies from 90 principals of semirural high schools gave a median of 30 minutes a day to supervision of instruction in the grades and 40 minutes to supervision of high-school instruction. One-fourth reported 15 minutes or less to the grades and 20 minutes or less to the high school, and one-fourth reported 55 minutes or more to the grades and 70 minutes or more to the high school.

[11] Six of the principals, in charge of congressional district and county high schools, had no elementary work in connection with their schools.

For the 348 schools, with both the elementary school and the high school, the median amount of time devoted to supervision of instruction in the elementary grades was approximately 20 minutes a day and 25 minutes a day for the high school. One-fourth of the principals reported 10 minutes or less devoted to the grades and 15 minutes or less to the high school, and one-fourth reported 40 minutes or more to the grades and 45 minutes or more to the high school. For supervision of both elementary and high-school instruction the median amount of time given each day by principals of rural and semirural high schools is apparently about one 40 or 45-minute period, with one-fourth giving less than 25 minutes a day, and one-fourth giving two 40-minute periods or more.

Data from 380 small high schools of New York State (1920–21) showed results very similar to those of the present study. The median amount of time reported was 25 minutes a day for supervision of instruction in the elementary grades and 15 minutes for

TABLE 15.—*Time given by principal to supervision of instruction*

Number of minutes a day	264 rural high schools		90 semirural high schools		Total		380 small high schools, New York		60 small high schools, California [1]
	Grades	High schools	Grades	High schools	Grades	High schools	Grades	High schools	
0–20	139	124	36	26	175	150	170	258	----------
21–40	72	81	19	20	91	101	115	70	----------
41–60	21	38	15	16	36	54	42	32	----------
61–80	11	11	6	9	17	20	23	12	----------
81–100	13	6	7	7	20	13	9	7	----------
101–120	2	3	4	9	6	12	7	1	----------
Over 120	0	1	3	3	3	4	5	0	----------
Total	[2]258	264	90	90	348	354	371	390	60
Approximate median	20	20	30	40	20	25	25	15	40
Middle 50 per cent	10–35	12–38	15–55	20–70	10–40	15–45	10–40	10–30	20–65

[1] Rolland R. John. The principal's load. School Review, 31: 748–55.
[2] Six of the schools had no elementary grades in connection with the high school.

the high school. One-fourth gave 10 minutes a day or less to each, and one-fourth gave 40 minutes or more to supervision of instruction in the elementary grades and 30 minutes or more to the high school. [14] The practice of New York principals differed slightly from that of the rural high school principals of the country as a whole, in that they gave somewhat more time to the supervision of the grades than to the high school.

Mr. John's study of the principal's load in California high schools shows that the median amount of time given to supervision of instruction by principals of schools with enrollments of less than 150 pupils was 3¼ hours a week, or approximately 40 minutes a day. The middle 50 per cent ranged from 1¾ hours to 5½ a week,

[14] The rural high school. Rural school survey of New York State, pp. 32–33.

or approximately 20 minutes a day to 65 minutes. All data at hand indicate that the amount of time devoted to supervision of instruction by principals of small high schools is the equivalent of about one 40-minute period a day. Where the principal is in charge of both the elementary grades and the high school, he divides the time fairly evenly between the grades and the high school.

Clerical duties.—A phase of the principal's work in the rural high school, taking a great deal of time and energy, is that required for the performance of clerical duties. The amount of assistance in keeping up necessary correspondence, keeping records and making reports, handling equipment and supplies, and in performing other clerical duties connected with a school system is extremely limited and irregular. Some principals are very successful in distributing a considerable portion of the work involved in keeping pupil records and in making monthly and term reports, in keeping attendance records, etc., among the teachers of the school. Other principals spend the major part of their time, not devoted to teaching, in addition to evenings and Saturdays, in doing clerical work.

The information obtained from principals of 379 rural and semirural high schools as to the amount of time given to clerical work is an indication as to the time given during school hours, and is not a true picture of the total amount of time given to such work. This is evident from the data gained from the 54 principals of schools visited and from statements made by a considerable number of principals as comments on their reports to the questionnaire. In general, these statements were to the effect that most of the clerical work was done outside of school hours, either after school or on Saturday or both. The information at hand indicates that the median amount of time during the school day devoted to clerical work is approximately one hour, with an equal or greater amount of time given outside of school hours.

TABLE 16.—*Time given by principals to clerical work*

Number of minutes a day	54 visited rural high schools		200 rural high schools	125 semi-rural high schools	Total	353 small high schools, New York	60 small high schools, California
	In school hours	Out of school hours					
None	2	2	----	1	3	21	----
1–20	20	----	21	1	42	53	----
21–40	12	16	33	43	88	91	----
41–60	3	19	35	17	55	52	----
61–80	6	3	19	17	42	60	----
81–100	9	6	17	16	43	26	----
101–120	2	4	14	12	28	16	----
Over 120	----	4	16	10	26	44	----
All after school	----	----	16	6	22	----	----
Teach all day	----	----	12	0	12	----	----
Approximate median	30	50	55	55	50	45	70
Middle 50 per cent	10–70	35–80	35–90	35–85	30–85	25–80	35–100

Clerical assistance given the principal.—As stated above, the principal of the rural high school ordinarily has no regular paid office assistant. He usually delegates some of his office work, particularly that of pupil records and reports, to the several teachers of his staff. The other clerical work he does himself.

Of 398 principals of small high schools of New York State, less than 23 per cent had clerical help, and less than 13 per cent had clerical help other than the voluntary, unpaid assistance of high-school teachers. Slightly less than 8 per cent had the assistance of a paid clerk for either all or part-time. All data show that the principals of rural and village high schools receive practically no regular clerical help in the performance of their clerical duties.

TABLE 17.—*Clerical assistance received by the principal*

Amount of assistance a day	54 rural high schools (visited)			231 rural high schools (questionnaire)			125 semirural high schools (questionnaire)		
	Teachers	Pupils	Secretary	Teachers	Pupils	Secretary	Teachers	Pupils	Secretary
Less than 1 hour	2	0	0	8	6	1	11	5	0
1 to 3 hours	4	3	0	3	5	1	4	5	3
A half day	2	1	0	2	0	1	0	3	1
Full time	0	0	2	0	0	3	0	1	2
None		40			202			90	
Per cent receiving help		20			12			28	

Miscellaneous duties of the principal.—The major part of the principal's school day in the small high school is given to teaching. Lesser portions of his time are distributed largely between supervision of instruction and office work. Other demands upon his time are made by teachers, pupils, parents, the community, and miscellaneous administrative duties. These demands have been grouped under the general head of miscellaneous duties. In the smaller schools most of these duties are attended to before and after school hours and on Saturday. In the case of the 54 schools visited a more detailed analysis of such duties has been attempted than was possible for the schools studied by questionnaire.

For the 54 schools the medium amount of time given to the miscellaneous duties during school hours was 40 minutes a day. The range of the middle 50 per cent was approximately 25 to 60 minutes. One hundred and forty rural high schools reported on this item. Of those reporting, 20 principals made definite statements to the effect that most of the time given to such duties was time out of school hours. It is probable also that some of the time given by the other principals reporting included time outside the regular school day. The data given consequently are an approximation of the time devoted to such duties within school hours. The median for the

principals of rural high schools reporting was one hour a day, with a middle 50 percentile range of 40 to 100 minutes a day.

Eighty-nine of the principals for semirural schools reported on this item. The median for such schools was 80 minutes a day, with a middle 50 percentile range of 40 to 105 minutes. The median amount of time devoted to miscellaneous duties for all schools reporting was 1 hour a day with a 50 percentile range of 35 to 95 minutes. These figures are probably somewhat high as an estimate of the time given to these duties during the school day.

Mr. John, in his study of California high schools, gives the time devoted to general administrative duties by principals of small high schools as 6 hours a week for the median, with a middle percentile range of 4 to 9½ hours. Stating these figures in terms of time per day shows a median of approximately 70 minutes, with a range for the middle 50 per cent of 50 to 110 minutes. While the duties included in Mr. John's classification are not identical with those of the present study, they are probably close enough to offer some basis for comparison.

For the 54 rural high schools visited a more detailed analysis was made of the miscellaneous duties, and indicates that they are of the following nature: The principals of these schools gave from 10 to 15 minutes daily to inspection of the building. They devoted 15 to 20 minutes to consultation with teachers, 20 minutes to counseling with pupils, and 5 to 10 minutes to interviews with parents. They averaged from 15 to 30 minutes a day to pupil activities. The above estimates did not include a greater amount of time given to such duties outside of school hours. The majority of the principals, for example, inspected buildings before and after school. They also gave additional time to consultation with teachers and pupils, and particularly to pupil activities and to community interests related to school matters, entirely outside the school day.

In summarizing the principal's load in the rural and semirural high school, it may be definitely stated that his major work is teaching. He is primarily a teacher. The typical principal gives five periods a day to classroom instruction. The middle 50 per cent for teaching ranges approximately from three to six periods a day. The median for time devoted to supervision of instruction is approximately one 40-minute period, ranging for the middle 50 per cent from 25 to 85 minutes. This time is divided between the elementary grades and the high school. It is indicated also by the reports of a considerable number of principals that some of the time given to supervision of classroom instruction is taken from time ordinarily given to study hall. One period is given to office work and other administrative work that must be attended to while school is in session. This takes all the time within the school day. The time outside of school hours

he devotes to consultation with teachers and pupils; to overseeing and directing pupil activities; inspecting the school plant; clerical work; preparation for his teaching; to board, parent, and community meetings; and to such general professional improvement as he is able to find time and energy for.

Principals' problems.—One question asked of all principals of rural and semirural high schools was: What have been your most serious problems as a principal this year? Practically three out of four principals replied to the question. These answers appear valuable in understanding the problems of the small high school; hence those offered most often have been grouped so far as possible under a few headings and are given below.

Problems concerning pupils: Improving attendance; overcoming irregular attendance due to the demands of farm work; keeping pupils, particularly the boys, in school; working out a plan of pupil guidance; raising the standard of high-school work; improving the pupils' attitude toward school work; improving pupils' home work; and meeting the needs of individual pupils. Other problems were: Building up a school spirit among the pupils; developing a respect for school property; maintaining discipline; guiding the social life of pupils; controlling parties for high-school pupils on school nights and counteracting other distracting influences; giving proper encouragement and direction to extra-classroom activities; and organizing and controlling the athletic activities of the school.

Problems concerning the teacher: Building up a professional spirit among the teachers; developing a spirit of cooperation among the teachers; reducing the teaching load to a desirable number of periods a day; training young and inexperienced teachers; getting teachers to take an interest in the community; teaching classes in the study hall; and stimulating teachers to study methods of teaching their subjects.

Curriculum problems: Introduction of vocational work in agriculture and home economics; organizing curriculums suitable for a small high school; reconciling in the curriculums community needs and State requirements; developing curriculums for a school organized on the 6–6 plan.

Problems directly concerning the principal: Working out an effective organization for the school; finding time for anything but classroom instruction and clerical work; finding time for real supervision of classroom instruction; finding time for supervisory and administrative work; distributing the time available so as to get the best results. Other problems of the principal were: Securing good teachers; carrying on the work of the school with inadequate teaching force; improving the methods of instruction; adjusting the work of teachers to the needs of high-school pupils; overcoming the bad effects of the rapid turnover of teachers in the high school; carrying on the work with inadequate funds; working out transportation routes; managing transportation of pupils; becoming acquainted with parents; developing a plan for partial pupil government; organizing the work in an overcrowded building; doing effective work with poorly equipped library and laboratory; getting satisfactory janitor service; and organizing school lunches.

Problems concerning the community: Educating the public to the needs of the school; encouraging harmony on school matters in the community; building up a spirit of cooperation between the patrons and the school; getting the cooperation of the public on moral issues affecting the school; stimulating in the community

a desirable interest in the work of the school; and building up a strong parent-teacher association.

Many other problems were suggested. Those given, however, were the ones most frequently offered by principals and are sufficient to indicate the various angles to the principal's activities.

Chapter V

SUPERVISION AND IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING

Quite generally in the rural high schools of the country the supervision of instruction comes from three sources: (1) The local principal; (2) the county superintendent or corresponding officer; and (3) the State high-school supervisor or inspector. In a few States there is a "supervising principal" for all the schools of a town or township.

Supervision by the State supervisor or his assistants is always infrequent, consisting in the majority of States of not more than one visit to the school during a school year. Because of its infrequency it can not be much more than inspection and of relatively little direct value as a means of improving instruction in the school. In many of the larger rural high schools of the several States, where work in vocational agriculture and homemaking has been established, special supervisors follow up the teaching in those subjects. Supervision of such work is thus more frequent than is possible for the academic subjects.

In some States, as Ohio for example, where the county has been well developed both as an administrative and supervisory unit, the county superintendent, or his assistants, supervises more or less closely the work of the rural high schools. This is particularly true for the smaller schools. In the larger rural high schools the local principal is primarily responsible for the supervision of the instruction in his school.

In New York, the district superintendent, of whom there are usually two or more in a county, exercises supervision over the rural high schools of his district. The reports on supervision of their schools by the principals of the schools included in the present study indicate, however, that in the majority of States the supervisory visits of the county supervisory officers are not more frequent than three to six visits a year.

In many of the States the practice seems to be for the county or district supervisor to give his attention, when he makes supervisory visits, to the work of the elementary school and to depend largely upon the local principal or superintendent for the supervision of high-school instruction. Because of the relative infrequency of

supervision, both by State and county supervisors, the main responsibility for supervision and the improvement of instruction, both in the elementary grades and in the high school, rests upon the local principal or superintendent. He must, if the work of his school is to improve, have time for supervisory work.

The analysis of the distribution of the principal's time in the rural high school indicates that the median principal has available for both grades and high school approximately one 40-minute period a day. It seems probable, also, from comments made by many principals, that this period while nominally free for supervision is often broken into by study hall duties, by preparation for teaching, and other responsibilities that crowd upon a principal. It is likewise significant that one-fourth of the rural high-school principals report 20 minutes or less a day available for supervision of teaching.

With a teaching force of three in the high school and four in the elementary grades and with 40 minutes available each day for supervision, the principal has an opportunity to give each teacher on his force a maximum of approximately 80 minutes of supervision a month. This leaves him six 40-minute periods a month to be used in analyzing the material gained during his observation of classroom work and for planning his conferences with the teachers. With teachers of the training and experience usually found in rural high schools, this is not time enough for supervision of the type making for good teaching and unity and coordination in the work of the school.

It would seem that a principal, with a teaching staff for the elementary school and high school of seven to nine instructors, should have at least two 40-minute periods a day for supervision of instruction and the analysis of results. This time he could distribute as needed among the different teachers and the several phases of supervisory work. It would make it possible for him to observe the work of a teacher throughout an entire recitation when necessary or to direct the giving of tests and other exercises for checking up on the work of his school. It would also make it possible for him to give special attention to the teaching problems of the inexperienced or poorly trained teachers in his school and help them avoid the mistakes that make for inefficiency.

If the responsibility for supervision and the improvement of instruction is to rest upon the local principal of the small high school, it is evident that he must, in a large percentage of such schools, have more time for supervision. It is also clear that more time for supervisory work would but partially solve the problem. The principal needs training in supervision. While no specific data can be cited on this point, the analysis of the work of the principals of rural and

semirural high schools from other angles and interviews with principals touching upon the problems of supervision indicate that, in general, the aims and technique of supervision of instruction in these schools tend to be vague and indefinite. Only a relatively small number of the principals have had training in supervision. It would seem that one of the needs of rural and semirural high schools is principals trained in the purposes and methods of classroom supervision. Opportunity for such training should be offered in teacher-training institutions preparing persons for administrative positions in small high schools.

Teachers' meetings.—One means of improving instruction, building up unity of effort and harmony, and promoting the growth of professional interest is the teachers' meeting. The data from 285 rural high-school principals indicate that approximately 78 per cent of them hold teachers' meetings and that 22 per cent do not. For the semirural schools 90 per cent of the principals reported teachers' meetings and 10 per cent reported no meetings. An examination of the data shows that it is usually the smaller schools that do not have teachers' meetings. The principals of the smaller schools, probably because of the small number of teachers in the school, seem to rely upon individual conferences to take the place of general conferences.

TABLE 18.—*Schools having teachers' meetings*

	Rural high schools	Semirural high schools
No report		5
Have meetings	221	103
Do not have meetings	64	12

No data were gathered from all the schools to show either the time of teachers' meetings or the nature of the discussions in such meetings. More detailed information was obtained from the principals of the 54 schools visited. In 40 of the schools the principals had no regular time set for the meetings, but called them at irregular times as they deemed desirable. In 14 schools there was a regular time set. In only a few of the schools was any definite program for the term or year planned in advance. Problems of method, discipline, attendance, scholarship, etc., were taken up and discussed as the work of the school offered them. In two counties all the teachers of the county were called together once a month by the county superintendent for a general meeting in the forenoon. In the afternoon the elementary teachers and the high-school instructors in separate groups took up for discussion topics pertaining to their particular fields of work.

One principal had built his year's program for the elementary teachers' meetings about the problems of the curriculum for the grades, and for his high-school teachers about a study of achievement and intelligence tests for high-school pupils. Another principal had a teachers' meeting once a month in the evening, to which he invited former students of the teacher-training department who were teaching in neighboring rural schools. Problems of teaching and school management were taken up and discussed, after which there was a social hour. Another principal followed the plan of inviting teachers to read certain articles or books related to their work, or of the school in general, and to lead in the discussion of the more important topics. One principal had a meeting once a month of the teachers and the school board, at which the problems of the school were discussed in an informal manner.

Frequency of teachers' meetings.—For the rural high schools the modal frequency of teachers' meetings as reported was four a month, although almost as many schools had one and two meetings respectively. In the semirural schools the practice tended strongly toward two meetings a month, with a considerable number meeting once a month and approximately the same number having meetings weekly. Of 360 small high schools of New York, for 1920–21, approximately 21 per cent reported no teachers' meetings and 44 per cent reported one a month.

TABLE 19.—*Frequency of teachers' meetings*

Number a month	In 285 rural high schools	In 125 semi-rural-high schools	In 360 small high schools, New York [1]
None	41	12	78
1	80	24	160
2	71	48	59
3	13	16	20
4 or more	80	25	43

[1] Rural school survey of New York State. The rural high school, pp. 52–53.

Individual conferences.—Practically 9 out of 10 of the rural high-school principals used the plan of individual conferences with their teachers as a method of keeping in touch with the work and of helping the teachers with their teaching problems. Almost the same proportion of the principals of small high schools for New York reported the use of individual conferences. A slightly larger per cent of the principals of semirural high schools reported the plan of individual conferences. The number of conferences per teacher a month ranged for both types of schools from one to more than eight. Some of the principals of the smaller schools reported that they planned to talk daily with each teacher in regard to his work.

TABLE 20.—*Number of individual conferences with teachers concerning their work each month*

Number of conferences	In 285 rural high schools	In 125 semi-rural high schools	In 296 small high schools, New York [1]
None	46	14	30
Indefinite	19	4	
1	11	3	37
2	28	15	39
3	11	7	25
4	59	17	62
5 or more	111	65	103

[1] Rural school survey of New York State. The rural high school, pp. 52-53.

Teachers' reading circles.—In only a small percentage of either the rural or semirural high schools did the teachers have reading circles for professional study. Eighty-one per cent of the rural high schools and 71 per cent of the semirural schools reported none. In New York State, for 1920–21, only 23 small high schools out of 348 reported reading circles. Of the 44 reading circles reported for rural high schools, 25 met once a month and 19 twice a month. Of the 36 in semirural schools, 14 reported one meeting a month, and 22 reported two or more a month. In 10 of the rural and 4 of the semirural schools, the teachers belonged to county circles which met usually once each month during the school year.

TABLE 21.—*Teachers' reading circles*

Number of meetings a month	In 285 rural high schools	In 125 semirural high schools
No meetings	231	89
One	35	20
Two or more	19	16
County circle	10	4

Professional reading.—With regard to the reading of professional magazines and journals by rural high-school principals and teachers 28 per cent of the principals reported none. The remaining 72 per cent reported from one to eight professional journals and magazines. Approximately 18 per cent of the principals of the semirural schools reported no reading of professional magazines.

The journals most frequently mentioned were the various State teacher association journals, the Normal Instructor, and the Journal of the National Education Association. Other publications frequently mentioned were: School Review, American School Board Journal, Primary Plans, Popular Educator, School Science and Mathematics, the Elementary School Journal, the Educational Review, the Journal of Education, and the English Journal. Among

other publications reported were: Industrial Arts Magazine, Vocational Education Magazine, Journal of Rural Education, School Life, Journal of Educational Research, Primary Education, Teachers College Record, Journal of Educational Method, Classical Journal, Current History, School and Society, Education, School Administration and Supervision, and American Educational Digest.

A number of principals reported that they and their teachers read from two to six professional journals but did not specify the ones taken. Two principals reported that each teacher took one professional magazine which was made available to all teachers for one month through the principal's office. One principal reported that he took a number of professional publications and that he turned over for reading to the different teachers the articles bearing either upon their particular work or upon some special problem of the school.

Approximately 10 per cent of the principals of both rural and semirural schools reported the reading of books on professional topics as a means of professional improvement in their schools. Six principals reported a professional library in the school of which their teachers were encouraged to make use. In Oregon each teacher is required to read at least one professional book a year. One county superintendent required all the teachers in his county to read three professional books a year.

The data on the reading of professional magazines and books indicate that principals and teachers of the rural high schools devote a comparatively small amount of time to this means of professional improvement. On the other hand, the principals and teachers in some of the rural high schools do a surprisingly large amount of professional reading. It seems that principals in the rural and semirural high schools could not do one thing of more value than that of getting their school boards to appropriate a small sum of money each year for building up a professional library of books and magazines for the use of their teachers. In a few years the principal would have at hand an important aid in carrying on his work as a supervisor and trainer of teachers in service.

Other methods of professional improvement.—Other means of improving the work of instruction in the school as reported by principals were: Attendance at summer schools, State and county teachers' conventions and institutes, extension courses for teachers, correspondence study courses, discussions in the meetings of the parent-teacher association, and school visiting. The last two means mentioned are as yet apparently not developed to the extent to which they may well be as means of professional improvement. Only four principals of rural high schools and three of semirural schools mentioned the parent-teacher association in this connection.

Nineteen of the rural high-school principals gave school visiting by the teachers as a method of improving instruction in their schools. In eight instances the visiting was done in the home school and in 11 in other schools.

TABLE 22.—*Other means of professional improvement of teachers*[1]

Means of improvement	Rural high schools	Semirural high schools
None	141	49
Summer schools	27	15
Extension courses	15	14
Correspondence courses	1	6
State conventions	40	14
County institutes	10	6
Parent-teacher meetings	4	3
Professional books	31	11
School visiting:		
In home school	8	
In other schools	11	2

[1] Reported by principals of rural and semirural high schools

In the rural high school the teacher has little opportunity to observe others teaching his subjects. He has almost no chance to discuss his peculiar problems with other teachers doing a similar type of work. One way of overcoming this difficulty, partially at least, is the observation of teaching by successful teachers in other school systems. Such observation may be especially helpful to the relatively inexperienced teacher. It also has value for the teacher of experience who has perhaps developed his methods of instruction largely by himself and has as a result often fallen into certain stereotyped points of view and practices. Observation of teaching in other schools might well be more used in rural high schools than it is at the present time and with good results. The principal likewise would often gain much by studying the organization and administration of systems other than his own. Two or three days a year spent in observing the work, studying the organization of other schools, and talking over with the principals their problems and plans could not help but be of great value to him in his own work as a principal.

Summary.—The study of supervision of instruction in rural and semirural high schools leads inevitably to the conclusion that it is inadequate. The local principal's time is so completely taken up with teaching, clerical work, and general administrative duties that he has little time left for classroom supervision. The visits of county and State supervisors are usually so infrequent as to make them ineffective from the standpoint of improvement of instruction. What little the local principal is able to do is necessarily of the pop-in-and-out variety, following ordinarily no very definite plan either as to objective or procedure. It affords, as a result, no adequate

basis for making an analysis of the work of any teacher or of the school as a whole. It is probably the best that can be done as the schools are now organized.

It would seem to be poor economy for principals to be compelled to spend so much time, as at present, in clerical work. It would undoubtedly be cheaper, from the standpoint of the effectiveness of their schools, for school boards to provide the principal of the rural high school with at least a half-time clerk, and thus make available for him at least two periods a day for classroom supervision and checking up on the work of the school. For the smaller schools, one supervisor for a group of four or five neighboring schools might be more practicable if the school communities concerned could cooperate in the employment of a person trained in supervisory work. Under either plan more adequate training of principals for supervisory work seems essential, if effective supervision is to be done.

For rural and semirural high-school teachers, as a rule, there is insufficient encouragement of, and opportunity for, professional growth. The high-school teacher in urban centers can not easily escape, if he would, opportunities for professional improvement. In addition to frequent general teachers' meetings, there are special meetings for teachers of the different subjects offered in the high-school program. Here the teacher has a chance to talk with others teaching the same subjects about the problems common to teachers of those subjects. There is also the stimulation that comes from competition. Sources for professional reading are usually close at hand.

The rural high-school teacher is more or less isolated professionally. Often he has little or no opportunity to observe the work of other teachers in his field or to talk over with them their peculiar problems. Often, too, the number of teachers in the school is too small to make teachers' meetings as vital and interesting as they are in urban schools where a large number of teachers with common interests get together. Yet the need of such meetings is greater. They are valuable for stimulating the professional interests of teachers, for making careful studies of problems of teaching arising in the local or similar schools, for keeping abreast of progress in secondary education, and for bringing harmony and unity among the various phases of school work.

For rural high schools increased inspiration and enthusiasm might well result from frequent meetings of all the rural high-school teachers of a county. At least, the teachers of such groups of schools as distance and means of transportation make practicable would find such meetings worth while. The meetings in the local school could then take up the problems of that school as they appeared. For the county or group meetings a program could be prepared in advance

for the year dealing with some phase of secondary education and with reference to books and educational journals affording reading material on the topics chosen. Counties or groups of schools following such a plan have found it valuable in building up a professional interest among teachers and in developing a better understanding of the problems and aims of high-school work.

Chapter VI

THE SCHOOL AND THE COMMUNITY

In theory the high school is a social institution which is established, maintained, and in a large measure controlled by a community for the education of its youth. It is open to all who have completed the work of the elementary school. It must, if its work is to be done effectively, be adapted to the needs of its pupils and the educational demands of the community. It is supported in major part by funds supplied by the community which it serves. It is, with the elementary school, the community's one great cooperative enterprise. If it succeeds, it must have the confidence and faith of those who support it.

A study of the rural high schools of the country indicates that neither the community nor those who have the responsibility for their administration and direction have grasped in their fullness the implications of the preceding statements. In some instances, the principal alone seemed to be assuming the responsibility for the success of the school. In other cummunities the principal and his board were attempting to carry through a very commendable educational program, with little or no cooperation from either patrons or teachers, and occasionally with the opposition of one or both. In other communities, too few in number, school board, principal, teachers, pupils, and the people of the community as a whole seemed to be actively and wholeheartedly endeavoring to make of their school a genuine community enterprise. Only where all are interested in the school, and this should include all the people of the community, and are active in the promotion of its endeavors, can it perform its work and make the progress that it should.

One of the problems of principals most often mentioned was that of winning the support and cooperation of the public. Notwithstanding this fact, many principals had no definite plan for selling education to their community. Some were opposed to the use of the newspaper and other agencies for keeping the public informed, because such a course might be interpreted as an attempt to advertise themselves. A few took the position that education

should succeed because of its important place in a democratic form of society and hence should not need to display its wares to gain support. The majority of the principals were, however, convinced of the desirability of keeping the work and needs of the school at all times before the public, although they were often at a loss as to the means to be employed.

It seems sound to start with the principle that people will not support permanently or well any project the aims or values of which they do not know. They will not adequately support any enterprise except as they are satisfied that the returns are worth while. The rural high-school principal, by virtue of his position as the head of the community's school, must accept the responsibility of educational leadership in the community. He must use every legitimate means of educating his public by placing before it the policies of the school, and acquainting it with the service the school is endeavoring to render. He must explain the conditions under which the work is being carried on, pointing out the needs of the school if progress is to be expected.

Many principals make the mistake, apparently, of attempting to carry on the work of publicity single handed rather than by availing themselves of the cooperation possible from their board, teachers, pupils, and the various community organizations. The cooperative method has several advantages, one being that it operates in the direction of developing other leaders capable of doing their part in the task of informing the public with regard to the school and in gradually building up a favorable public opinion. The principal's success in carrying through a desirable program will depend usually upon the number of active lieutenants he has. People are interested in the success of an enterprise when they are doing something to make it a success.

The principal of the rural high school needs to come in touch with the various economic and social organizations of the community. Through such organizations he can spread information as to the needs and services of the school. In the various community organizations, also, he is given the opportunity of forming the acquaintance of the leading people of the community and can at appropriate times discuss the different phases of the school's work. These contacts are especially valuable where the principal and his board are contemplating an extension of the school's program. Vocational departments, in particular, have frequently failed after a year or two because of lack of understanding and, consequently, of support on the part of the school patrons as to the values of such departments. They may be good for the community but must be prepared for in most cases through a carefully planned and executed program of education. They succeed best where a legitimate desire for them

has first been aroused through public realization of their values in supplying an educational need in the community.

Present status of community cooperation with the rural high school.—One important index of the extent to which the rural high school is a community enterprise is the active interest taken by the organizations of the community in promoting its work. These organizations may be classified roughly into two groups. The first group is composed of those organizations established definitely to aid in carrying on and promoting improvement in the school. They may be local or State wide, such as the Cooperative Education Association of Virginia. Other examples of this group are the Parent-Teacher Association, the School Improvement League, the Home and School Club, the Women's Cooperative Club, and the Community Playground Association.

The second group is made up of those organizations in the community the primary aims of which are the promotion of activities other than those of the school but which give more or less attention to certain types of school problems. Examples of this second group are the grange, the farm and home bureaus, the business men's associations, and the community church. All these organizations are agencies through which the principal of the rural high school may legitimately promote the interests of the school by winning their assistance in the solution of problems facing him and by using them as centers from which to carry on a continuous program of educating the community as a whole to the needs of the school. In these various organizations the principal, his board, and his teachers have at hand the most effective agencies of publicity. In them, as the educational leader of the community, he should discover and develop leaders ready and able to assist the school authorities in their program of school improvement.

One of the principal's important responsibilities is the guidance and direction of the activities of the various organizations as these concern the school. He must, if he is to utilize most effectively their services, be ready at all times with suggestions both as to the problems in the solution of which they can be helpful and as to ways in which such assistance may best be rendered.

The data gathered on community cooperation through the different organizations indicate that approximately one-third of the rural high schools have parent-teacher associations, school improvement associations, or other similar organizations, where the school and the patrons are cooperating primarily to promote the work of the school. In the semirural high schools the percentage having such cooperating organizations is somewhat larger. Of the latter group of schools 44 out of a hundred reported parent-teacher associations or similar organizations.

Of the organizations belonging to the second group, those organized with aims but indirectly related to the school, the grange is apparently most active in its cooperation with the school. For both rural and semirural high schools approximately 6 per cent of the principals reported an interest in the schools on the part of the grange. In New York State, 14 per cent of the principals of small high schools, reporting for 1920–21, mentioned the grange as actively cooperating in promoting the school. Other organizations, such as the farm and home bureaus, were reported as active in a small percentage of both rural and semirural schools.

Various women's clubs, cooperating with the school, were mentioned by between 3 and 4 per cent of the rural high-school principals and by approximately 7 per cent of the principals of semirural schools. Approximately 2 per cent of the principals of rural high schools and 6 per cent of the principals of semirural schools reported, as actively cooperating organizations, the chamber of commerce, the business men's association, the marketing association, the Rotary Club, etc. The community civic club was given by 5 per cent of the principals of semirural schools and the community church by two of the principals of rural high schools. Other organizations reported by a small number of principals of both rural and semirural high schools were the Red Cross, community playground association, and the high-school alumni association.

TABLE 23.—*Community organizations cooperating with the school*

Name of the organization	285 rural high schools	125 semi-rural high schools	392 small high schools, New York
School Improvement Association, Patron's League, and Community Club, Council, or League	20	7	20
Parent-Teacher Association	86	48	76
Farm Bureau	10	2	
Grange	16	7	55
Home Bureau	5	2	11
Mothers' Club, Women's Club, Ladies' Circle, D. A. R., Guild, W. C. T. U.	10	9	21
Men's Club, Chamber of Commerce, Business Men's Association, Marketing Association, Rotary Club	6	7	
Ladies' Literary Club, Dramatic Club, Study Club		4	
Civic Club		6	
Community Nurse and Red Cross	5	3	3
Community Playground Association	2	2	
High-School Alumni Association	3	2	4
Community Church	2		
Other organizations	7	3	5

Nature of cooperation.—The ways in which the community organizations are helpful in promoting the work of the school are numerous and varied. As the parent-teacher association is found in a larger percentage of rural high schools than any other cooperating organization, the nature of its work is indicated separately from the others. As estimated by the frequency with which it is mentioned by princi-

pals, its most useful function is in keeping the school and its needs before the community. In other words, it is recognized by principals as an agent especially helpful in educating the public with respect to the program of the school and in winning support for that program. Another function frequently mentioned was the development of better understanding between teachers and parents, and cooperation in their common task of furthering the education of the children of the community.

Some of the other ways in which parent-teacher associations have been helpful in rural communities as reported are: Leading in the campaign for improving school sanitation, maintaining health clinics, promoting better school attendance, beautification of school grounds and classrooms, providing playground equipment, providing laboratory equipment and books for the library, taking charge of school lunches, equipping the school with first-aid supplies, visiting the schools, helping to build a community school spirit, managing a lyceum course, promoting school activities, assisting in the management and direction of the social life of the school, and furnishing chaperonage for pupils' social affairs, leading in the campaign for removing distracting influences from pupils during the school week, and in finding suitable rooms and boarding places for the teachers. In these and other ways the parent-teacher associations have been of much help to the principals of the rural and semirural high schools in solving the problems that beset them.

The other community organizations cooperating with the high schools have also been helpful in many ways. The following are some concrete examples of their assistance: Improving the school playgrounds and providing equipment for them, supplying the school with equipment for athletics, purchasing an athletic field, giving prizes for school exhibits and school fairs, furnishing equipment for the work in agriculture and household arts, maintaining winter courses in agriculture and homemaking, establishing school health examinations and maintaining a school nurse, giving programs and entertainments for pupils and teachers, supplying the school with first-aid equipment, endowing the school library, providing scholarships, improving school grounds, taking charge of school lunches, furnishing school lunches, giving free trips to the State fair, purchasing pictures for classrooms and auditorium, managing and financing lyceum courses, and furnishing a free hall for school and community meetings.

In many rural high schools the results of cooperation between the school and the community through one or more organizations are very evident. These results are to be seen in various forms of material equipment, in school spirit, in the enthusiasm and loyalty of the teachers, and in the sympathetic understanding existing between teachers and parents. The disappointing feature is the compara-

tively small percentage of rural and semirural high schools enjoying such cooperation. There would seem to be here an opportunity which many principals to a large degree have neglected. Many principals, in fact, are opposed particularly to parent-teacher associations in their schools, looking at them askance as sources of trouble. Of the 54 principals interviewed 14 were opposed to the organization of a parent-teacher association.

Undoubtedly such an organization does demand of a principal time, thought, and energy. If he has plans for his school definitely formulated and knows the problems he must face in carrying them through, however, he can make of the parent-teacher association and other community organizations valuable allies.

A principal of a small high school in New York State, who has had a parent-teacher association for three years, has found it of great assistance in building up his school. This association has a program committee of three, one of whom is always the principal or a teacher of the school. At the beginning of each year this committee meets and makes out its program for the year, utilizing as far as possible suggestions obtained from its members. Its topics for study are such as concern the school and its community. In the main, the discussions are led by members of the association. Occasionally the association invites in a speaker from the outside to discuss a special topic. In the three years it has brought about cooperation between the school and the home in matters of health, attendance, and home study. It has taken over the guidance and chaperonage of social functions for high-school pupils; it has done much to build up a community school spirit; and has assumed responsibility largely for the management and financial support of a school fair at which all phases of the school's work are exhibited. One of its important functions has been the promotion of a better understanding on the part of school patrons of modern methods of teaching reading, arithmetic, construction work, etc., in the elementary grades as these have been presented by teachers and discussed in the association meetings.

In a new consolidated school in Mississippi, enrolling 250 pupils, 75 of them being in the high school, the principal, who is also the teacher of vocational agriculture, has found his parent-teacher association of great help. He has brought about in his community, through the parent-teacher association, cooperation among the school board, the teachers, the patrons, the county agent, and the county nurse. Through the association, with the help of the county nurse, he has carried on a 'community health campaign.' This campaign was begun by talks with the individual teachers, then in teachers' meetings and parent-teacher meetings where the desirability of good health as a prerequisite of good school work was stressed.

As a result of this preliminary campaign all children were given a health examination and the results were reported to the parents. During the summer of 1922 practically all the children were vaccinated. During the school year of 1922–23 a health campaign, focused upon defective teeth, ears, nose, and throat, was carried on. In July, 1923, a specialist from Jackson, assisted by the county nurse, operated upon 100 children at an average cost of about $10 a child. The parents of the community were thoroughly back of the health work for the children. The children were given definite instruction in health in the school and were stimulated in the forming of health habits by health buttons, banners, etc., for health records. As a result of the work in the schools not only the children but the teachers and community were encouraged to give attention to matters of health.

The two examples given might be multiplied many times but will suffice to show what a principal can do with the help of community organizations in promoting progress in his school.

Publicity.—The preceding discussion has indicated some of the ways in which principals of rural and semirural high schools are using community organizations as agencies through which to interpret education to the community. A better understanding of the school and its work necessarily follows such cooperation, even though the principal may not consciously set up publicity as one of the ends to be attained.

The replies of 285 principals of rural high schools and of 125 principals of semirural schools gave some information as to the means they use to place before the public the work of the school. These replies also indicated to some degree the comparatively small amount done in the direction of publicity. According to the reports received the three agencies most commonly used for purposes of publicity are the local newspaper, school bulletin, and school programs and entertainments. The second group in the order of frequency are school exhibits, public meetings, and community gatherings at the school, athletics, and patrons' days.

Of the principals of rural high schools, 44 per cent gave the local newspaper as compared with 78 per cent for the semirural schools. Fifteen per cent of the rural high school principals and 14 per cent of the principals of semirural schools mentioned the school bulletin. School programs and entertainments open to the public were reported by 11 per cent of the rural high schools and by 8 per cent of the semirural schools. While these represent the three most commonly used means of publicity, excepting the local paper, they are apparently employed by only a relatively small number of principals.

Exhibits of the work of the school, one of the most easily managed as well as one of the most effective ways of advertising the work of

the school, was mentioned by but 5 per cent of the rural high school principals and by but 2 per cent of the principals of semirural high schools. Public meetings and community gatherings at the school were reported by 4 per cent of the rural high schools and by 6 per cent of the semirural schools; athletics by 4 and 2 per cent, respectively; and patrons' days by 4 per cent of the rural high schools.

Other means of publicity of great potential value but apparently but little used are: Circular letters, parent-teacher associations, a school bulletin board at some community center, school fairs, the high-school alumni association, and talks by the principal to parents and children of the rural elementary schools on the educational opportunities offered by the local high school.

To conclude, the study of all available data on community cooperation and publicity, in connection with high schools serving rural communities, indicates that both are as yet comparatively undeveloped. Not nearly enough attention has been given by principals and their boards to building up in their communities an understanding and appreciation of the work of the school and to enlisting the active cooperation of the community in furthering education in the community. Certain rural high schools are doing much, but such schools are still too few in number. Apparently a large per cent of the principals have not realized as yet the practical importance of a well-formulated plan of publicity. Very little has been done in most of the rural and semirural high schools in building for the future by definitely educating the present high-school population as to the importance and values of high-school training in a democracy. Some headway has been made through the study of the school and its place in American life in connection with community civics. This, however, is only a beginning and represents only one of the many possible means at hand.

TABLE 24.—*Publicity in the rural high school*

Means of publicity	285 rural high schools	125 semirural high schools
Local paper	139	98
School bulletin or school catalogue	44	29
School programs and entertainments	31	10
Public gatherings	13	7
School exhibits	14	3
Circular letters	12	4
Athletics	10	2
Patrons' days	10	0
Bulletin board, notices, and posters in post office, etc.	7	3
Parent-teacher associations	7	2
School fairs and plays	8	2
Community clubs	5	3
School paper	5	2
Social activities	4	2
County tournaments	4	3
Moving pictures	5	4
Lyceum courses	4	3
Talks to pupils of rural schools	3	0
School annual	2	1
School alumni	2	1
Town report	1	1
Other means	14	2

Chapter VII

EXTRACLASSROOM ACTIVITIES IN THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL

One of the significant developments in secondary education, particularly during the last few years, has been the encouragement, organization, and control of extraclassroom activities. Generally speaking, the administrators and teachers of high schools have come to recognize the educational value of such activities. In the large urban high schools definite steps have been taken in the organization of the school to give their pupils opportunity to participate in various extraclassroom activities. Many urban high schools, especially junior high schools, require each pupil to be a member of at least one group organized for activities of such nature. They have formulated definite plans for the organization and control of these pupil organizations through pupil boards, pupil councils, and systems of faculty advisers. Such organizations are regarded as integral parts of the regular activities of the school and their guidance as one phase of the high-school teachers' work.

In rural high schools not so much has been accomplished in the way of encouraging and controlling extraclassroom activities. Because of the limited number of pupils enrolled, the limited number of teachers, etc., the problems of providing appropriate pupil activities and of directing them when organized have been more difficult than have been those in the large urban high schools. A few rural high-school principals and teachers still oppose such activities, on the ground that they take time and energy which the pupil might better devote to his regular program of studies.

Any careful analysis of the functions of the modern high school and of the characteristics of boys and girls of high-school age should give convincing evidence of the necessity of encouraging and developing this phase of the rural high school. High-school pupils have strong tendencies toward group activity which can only partially be satisfied in the activities of the classroom. One of the phases of training for citizenship is that of developing habits, attitudes, and ideals of cooperative effort in pupils. This training is especially important in rural communities where the opportunities for cooperation, both in play and work, are comparatively limited. Extraclassroom activities afford opportunities for promoting the development of such habits, attitudes, and ideals in a more vital way and of a broader nature than does the classroom work.

Through the work of organizing, managing, and contributing to such activities the pupil is participating in the activities of school citizenship. If the responsibility for the character and success of

these activities is placed largely upon the pupil, under the counsel and guidance of members of the faculty, the pupil has real opportunity for exercising initiative. He is, at the same time, receiving training in accepting responsibility for the success or failure of undertakings in the planning and execution of which he has had a share. Through participation in extraclassroom activities, where he cooperates with other pupils as groups, he is encouraged in the development of leadership and followership. If the range of activities offered is sufficiently broad, the rural high school has therein a valuable means of giving its pupils training in avocational pursuits, many of which are practically impossible through the regular program of the school.

A well-organized and directed program of extraclassroom activities affords the small high school one of its most effective ways of building up a desirable, healthy school spirit. It helps to make the school the real center of the pupil's interest and develops loyalty. As a result, it operates directly toward solving many of the most serious problems of discipline.

Present status of extraclassroom activities in rural high schools.—The data on extraclassroom activities in rural and semirural high schools indicate: (1) That they are given a comparatively small amount of attention; (2) that for the average school they are very limited in range, and (3) that the methods of control are very indefinite and varied.

The reports from 125 semirural high schools, representing somewhat larger schools than those classed as rural, showed a larger percentage having extraclassroom activities.

Of 405 small high schools of New York reporting on extraclassroom activities for 1920–21, 180 had none or none other than athletics, Boy Scouts, and Girl Scouts or Campfire Girls. Those activities, reported by a considerable number of the schools, were, in order of frequency, athletics, Boy Scouts, school paper, orchestra, and Campfire Girls.[15]

A study of the township and community high schools of Illinois, by Earl A. Collins, shows that the extraclassroom activities most often found in those schools were, in order of frequency, athletics, literary clubs, musical organizations, and dramatics. He concludes that the typical township or community high school of Illinois encourages three types of extraclassroom activities, namely, athletics, musical clubs, and literary clubs.[16] If space in a local newspaper were excluded from the list, this conclusion would apply equally well to the rural high schools of the country as a whole.

[15] Rural school survey of New York State, The rural high school, pp. 65–69.

[16] Survey of the township and community high schools of Illinois, by Earl A. Collins, State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Mo. Master's Thesis, 1923, George Peabody College for Teachers, p. 59.

TABLE 25.—*Extraclassroom activities in rural high schools*

Type of activity	54 rural high schools (visited)		285 rural high schools		125 semirural high schools	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
Literary club	[1] 27	50.0	81	28.4	59	47.2
Debating club	8	14.8	44	15.4	37	29.6
Athletic association	50	92.6	116	40.7	104	83.2
Football	24					
Baseball	34					
Basket ball	43					
Girls' basket ball	10					
Tennis	11					
Track	13					
Girls' track	2					
School paper or space in local paper	[2] 21	38.8	81	28.4	72	57.6
Boy Scouts	3	5.5	23	8.0	41	32.8
Girl Scouts or Campfire Girls	4	7.4	21	7.3	40	32.0
Glee club	[3] 29	53.7	48	16.8	63	50.4
Orchestra	13	24.2	35	12.3	55	44.0
Band	2	3.7	1	.3	3	2.4
Dramatic club	4	7.4	5	1.8	6	4.8
Science club	2	3.7	8	2.8	13	10.4
School annual	3	5.5	4	1.4	6	4.8
Student council	2	3.7	3	1.0	7	5.6
None	6	11.1	56	19.5	5	4.0

[1] Seven schools had two clubs each.
[2] Five schools had a school paper.
[3] Seven schools had separate boys' and girls' glee clubs.

NOTE.—Other clubs, mentioned by one or more schools each, were: Junior county league, home economics, sewing, and canning clubs, Hi. Y., Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., music study club, French club, Latin club, agricultural club, outing club, hiking club, bird club, oratorical club, health club, radio club, and Girl Reserves.

Time of meeting.—The reports as to the time of meeting of extraclassroom organizations show that they most commonly meet out of school hours.

A survey of the figures shows that a much larger percentage of the rural high schools than of the semirural schools have the meetings of extraclassroom organizations within school hours. This difference in practice is probably to be explained in part by the comparatively larger number of consolidated schools among the rural high schools. As soon as the school day of the consolidated school is over, the pupil must take the school bus. If schools of this type are to offer high-school pupils opportunity for participation in extraclassroom activities, such activities must necessarily be given a place in the regular school program.

TABLE 26.—*Time of meeting of extraclassroom activities*

Schools	None	Out of school hours	Part during, part after school hours	During school hours	Not reported
285 rural high schools	56	92	87	32	18
125 semirural high schools	5	68	37	9	6
405 small high schools, New York (1920–21)	[1] 182	158	6	8	51

[1] None or none except athletics, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts or Campfire Girls.

The following are some interesting comments from principals of rural high schools in regard to extraclassroom organizations: "We have largely eliminated extraclassroom activities because of lack of time." "We have a lyceum course managed each year by the senior class." "Six high schools in our county have a declamatory and oratorical league." "Our athletics are controlled by a council of six composed of three pupils, the principal, one member of the board of education, and one member from the community at large." "Space in the local paper is in charge of the principal; pupils furnish most of the material." "The English teacher has charge of the school paper; main staff chosen from the seniors by teacher and principal. Each class elects its class editor." "Principal appoints editor in chief of the paper; each class elects its class editor." "For the school paper representatives from each class are elected by the class, subject to the approval of faculty sponsor." "Our band and orchestra are directed by a village musician, who is paid for his services by the school board." "We give the last period of the day to meetings of extraclassroom organizations."

School assemblies.—Information was obtained from 88 per cent of the rural high schools in regard to school assemblies. As to frequency of assembly the most striking difference between the two groups of schools is that 11 per cent more of the semirural than of the rural high schools hold weekly assemblies.

The data indicate that the main difference between the two types of schools in regard to length of assemblies is that a considerably larger per cent of the semirural schools hold assemblies extending over a regular 40 or 45 minute school period.

TABLE 27.—*Assemblies in rural high-school (frequency of meeting)*

Type of school	Daily	Two or three a week	Weekly	Biweekly	Monthly	Irregular	None	Not reported
283 rural high schools	97	46	68	15	3	10	10	34
Per cent	34.3	16.3	24.0	5.3	1.1	3.5	3.5	12.0
125 semirural high schools	39	18	44	5	2	3	3	11
Per cent	31.2	14.4	35.2	4.0	1.6	2.4	2.4	8.8
387 small high schools, New York (1920-21)	138	130	92	1	2	.....	24	.....
Per cent	35.7	33.6	23.7	0.3	0.5	.....	6.2	.....

TABLE 28.—*Length of assembly, in minutes*

Type of school	10	15–20	25–30	40–45	55–60	Over 60
239 rural high schools	23	109	59	42	3	3
Per cent	9.6	45.6	24.7	17.6	1.2	1.2
111 semirural high schools	12	41	27	28	3	.....
Per cent	10.8	36.9	24.3	25.2	2.7	.....
364 small high schools, New York	52	243	61	8	.....	.....
Per cent	14.3	66.8	16.7	2.2	.....	.....

The exercises of the assemblies are varied in character, but certain features stand out as predominant. The most common feature is singing by the school. Second in frequency are exercises of a literary character given by pupils, such as speaking, readings, debates, etc. Instrumental music by pupils or by persons from outside the school is a feature of the assembly program mentioned by a large number of principals. A considerable proportion of the schools devote a part of the program to devotional exercises, such as Scripture reading, prayer, and the singing of hymns. Some schools give one period a week to devotional exercises.

Other features of assembly programs frequently reported are: Talks by the principal and teachers, talks by speakers from outside, discussion of current topics, patriotic exercises, athletic rallies, and dramatics. Features less frequently reported are: Parliamentary practice, physical exercises, pupil business meetings, spelling contests, and programs by the faculty. Practically all assemblies are used by principals and teachers for the making of announcements.

Definite information as to the manner of control of assemblies is available only for the 54 schools visited. A few of the schools reached by the questionnaire supplied some information. A number reported that the different classes had charge of the assembly programs, and a few others that pupils had charge of the exercises. Of the schools visited, 6 held no assemblies as a part of their school program. In the 48 schools holding assemblies, the principal had charge in 13 schools, principal and teachers in 9, teachers and pupils in 24, and the pupils in 3 schools.

TABLE 29.—*Character of assembly exercises*

Type of school	Devotional.	Singing.	Instrumental music.	Current topics.	Talks by principal and teachers	Outside speakers	Pupil programs	Dramatics	Patriotic exercises	Physical exercises	General	Advertise school activities	Parliamentary practice
Rural high schools	85	118	92	43	49	53	97	9	11	4	30	13	6
Semirural high schools	32	41	31	9	23	17	39	7	6	4	15	5	1
Small high schools, New York	214	326	10	18	51	----	214	5	----	----	----	----	----

The following are, in substance, statements made concerning assemblies by principals interviewed: Music and class meetings two days a week; a series of talks on banking by a local banker; the four high-school classes in succession put on a program on Friday. The assembly programs are planned by the student council. Each class is responsible for an assembly a week and the teachers for one. Our two literary societies alternate in a 40-minute program each

week, each society being under the direction of a teacher adviser. Different classes are responsible for assembly programs. The class in civics, for example, puts on a mock trial, the history class prepares and presents an historical sketch, the classes in English dramatize and present a literary selection, etc. Each class, beginning with the eighth grade, is in turn responsible for an assembly program. Pupils put on programs and furnish Bible quotations. Each class is responsible for a program a month. We have devotional exercises on Wednesday of each week, conducted in turn by the four pastors of the village. On Thursday each teacher of the school is in turn responsible for a program supplied by her pupils. The pupils give special assemblies. The pupils select the music occasionally. The senior class conducts the assembly occasionally.

Social life of pupils.—Information as to the extent to which the rural high school encourages and directs the social life of its pupils is largely limited to the 54 schools visited by the writer. The practice of those schools is probably indicative of what the rural high schools of the country do. Of the 54 schools, 11 gave no attention to the social life of their pupils other than through the extraclassroom activities. The remaining 43 schools gave more or less attention to the direction and control of the social activities of their pupils. The number of social affairs varied in the different schools from 1 to 12 a year, with four to eight representing the common practice.

The nature of the social activities is indicated by the following: School parties under the advisership and chaperonage of teachers; school play, followed by a social hour; social meetings under the direction of the Parent-Teacher Association; holiday programs; presentation of an operetta; class parties; school and class picnics; school banquet; junior hike; school entertainments to raise money for school equipment; promenade the evening following commencement; an evening assembly; and games and dancing following a school supper.

A number of principals explained their policy with regard to pupil social affairs as follows:

"We have none; I object to them."

"A junior-senior club has charge of all general social school events; it has dishes, a serving room, and a kitchen."

"Each class gives a party a semester; all school functions are given on Friday and Saturday evenings."

"Each class may have not to exceed two social functions a semester; the principal schedules all social affairs."

"The school has done but little in this direction."

"Several social affairs each year, but the principal has taken no oversight or direction of them."

"We have one social gathering a month."

"We have one school mixer a semester."

Prof. A. W. Hayes, of Tulane University, who made a study of 144 consolidated rural schools of Louisiana, Alabama, and Mississippi for the school year of 1920–21, gives some interesting data on the extraclassroom and general social activities of those schools.[17] The writer quotes in part Professor Hayes's data on events held at the consolidated rural schools of the three States mentioned.

TABLE 30.—*Events held at the consolidated rural school during year 1920–21*

Nature of the event [1]	Louisiana			Alabama			Mississippi		
	Number of schools	Per cent	Number of events	Number of schools	Per cent	Number of events	Number of schools	Per cent	Number of events
Fairs	6	10.3	6	11	23.9	11	9	22.5	10
Boys' and girls' clubs	16	27.6	165	23	50.0	188	15	37.5	94
Community dances	10	17.2	25	5	10.9	24	1	2.5	4
Athletics, games	23	39.7	230	19	41.3	90	16	40.0	64
Literary society	19	32.7	237	16	34.3	124	15	37.5	159
Box suppers, etc	13	22.4	32	21	45.5	35	14	35.0	37
Lyceum courses	8	13.7	26				3	7.5	8
School plays and entertainments	14	24.1	42	15	32.6	29	6	12.5	16
Boy Scouts	2	3.4	33						
Pageants	1	1.7	1						
Moving pictures	3	5.1	26						
Church	2	3.4	18	3	6.5	28	1	2.5	30
Sunday school	2	3.4	18	1	2.2	25			
Singing and public lectures							5	12.5	13

[1] Events given by Professor Hayes not directly pertaining to pupils have been omitted from the table.

The study of pupil social activities in the rural high school indicates that, in general, this represents a phase of school work which as yet has received comparatively little attention. In a large percentage of the schools very little guidance is given to or control exercised over the social life of the pupils. In many rural high schools practically no attempt is made to give pupils training for social life. In a small percentage of the schools a great deal is being accomplished and fairly definite steps have been taken to organize and direct such activities.

If the rural high school is to meet its responsibilities fully and effectively, it would seem that it must accept more responsibility for the encouragement and supervision of pupils' social affairs. The Parent-Teachers Association of the school might perform a valuable service by accepting the responsibility for the chaperonage of such functions and in part, at least, for their direction and control.

[17] Hayes, A. W. The community value of the consolidated rural school. Tulane University, Research Bull. No. 2, February, 1923, pp. 37–38.

Chapter VIII

THE CURRICULUM

The data on the curriculum offerings of the rural high schools of the various States show remarkable uniformity in the subjects occupying a prominent place in the programs of studies. There are interesting minor differences between individual States in the extent to which certain of the newer subjects such as general science, agriculture, home economics, sociology, and economics, have found entrance into the programs of rural and semirural high schools.

In general, it may be said that the subjects offered by the majority of the rural and semirural high schools are those in English, mathematics, foreign language, history and civics, natural science, and home economics. For 283 rural high schools 50 per cent or more offered 16 different subjects, counting each year of English as a subject. Practically every school offered a year of English for each year of work done. Approximately all gave elementary algebra and plane geometry. Nearly all schools giving three and four year courses offered American history. Seventy-one per cent of the schools offered ancient history and 12 per cent general or world history; 71 per cent gave a course in medieval and modern history; 64 per cent reported civics as a separate course for either one semester or for a year.

Other subjects, given by 50 per cent or more of the rural high schools, were, in order of frequency: Latin 1 and general science offered by 70 per cent of the schools; physics by 66 per cent; Latin 2 by 65 per cent; home economics by 62 per cent; and intermediate or advanced algebra by 55 per cent.

The subjects offered by 25 to 49 per cent of the rural high schools, in general, fall in the same subject fields as those offered by 50 per cent or more. They represent mainly additional units of work in foreign language, mathematics, natural science, and social science. In this second group of subjects, offered by 25 but less than 50 per cent of the schools, in foreign language are: French 1 and French 2 given in 31 and 30 per cent of the schools respectively. In mathematics are arithmetic and commercial arithmetic given by 48 per cent, and solid geometry by 36 per cent. In natural science are chemistry given by 48 per cent, biology by 44 per cent, physiology by 30 per cent, and physical geography by 25 per cent of the rural high schools. The social sciences represented in this group are economics, offered by 44 per cent of the schools; community civics by 38 per cent; and sociology or social problems given by 30 per cent. Subjects not included in the subject matter fields, offered by 50 per cent or more of the rural high schools, are agriculture given

by 44 per cent, bookkeeping by 38 per cent, vocal music by 37 per cent, and manual training by 32 per cent.

The data for all rural high schools, with regard to agriculture and home economics, do not show what proportion of those offering such subjects were giving vocational courses. In the 54 rural high schools visited, 50 per cent of the schools were giving work in agriculture; exactly one-half of the schools offering such work had vocational courses. Sixty-three per cent of the schools were giving courses in home economics, and approximately one-fourth of those offering such courses were giving work in vocational home making.

Other subjects offered by less than 25 per cent but more than 5 per cent of the rural high schools were, in order of frequency: Typewriting, botany, Latin 3, shorthand, instrumental music, drawing, English history, Latin 4, general history, hygiene and sanitation, trigonometry, psychology, general mathematics, Spanish 1, Spanish 2, commercial geography, principles of teaching, zoology, mechanical drawing, commercial law, and modern history.

A comparison of the rural high schools, those having 50 per cent or more of their pupils from farm homes, with the semirural schools, those having less than 50 per cent of the pupils from farm homes, show very few differences either in the nature or range of subjects offered. There are some important differences, however, in the proportion of schools offering certain subjects. A larger proportion of the semirural schools offer foreign languages, advanced mathematics, and some of the sciences, such as chemistry and biology. In the social sciences, economics is much more often given in the semirural schools than in the rural high schools, likewise community civics. The commercial subjects, bookkeeping, typewriting, and shorthand, are more commonly offered in the semirural schools than in the rural.

While the differences between the rural high schools and the semirural schools in the percentage offering the first two years of Latin is not striking, it is much more pronounced in the case of third and fourth year Latin. Only 19 per cent of the rural high schools offer Latin 3, as compared with 53 per cent of the semirural schools, and only 12 per cent Latin 4 as compared with 47 per cent of the semirural high schools. Similar differences exist in the case of French. Of the rural schools, 31 and 30 per cent offer French 1 and French 2, respectively, as compared with 55 and 53 per cent for the semirural schools. Almost 20 per cent more of the semirural high schools than of the rural give advanced algebra; 24 per cent more give solid geometry, and the percentage offering trigonometry is over twice that for the rural high schools. In social science the newer subjects, economics and community civics, are offered, respectively, by 57 and 55 per cent of the semirural schools

as compared with 44 and 38 per cent of the rural schools. While bookkeeping is given in only 9 per cent more of the semirural schools than rural high schools, typewriting and shorthand were reported by approximately twice as many semirural schools in each one hundred as by the rural high schools.

There are a few subjects offered by a significantly larger percentage of the rural high schools than of the semirural schools. Agriculture is given by 44 per cent of the rural high schools but by only 26 per cent of the semirural schools. General science, which was reported by 70 per cent of the rural schools, was reported by only 43 per cent of the semirural high schools. All other subjects offered in any considerable number of schools are strikingly similar in the percentage in each group of schools offering them.

The percentages in the following table are computed in each case on the basis of the total number of schools represented. This gives the percentage of communities in which the different subjects are available to pupils. Attention should be called to the fact, however, that the basis used does not show the actual percentage of three and four year schools offering those subjects ordinarily given in the third and fourth years. The percentage of three and four year schools, particularly for the group of rural high schools, offering such subjects as American history, civics, French 1 and 2, physics, intermediate and advanced algebra, chemistry, solid geometry, economics, etc., would in each case be somewhat larger than the table shows.

TABLE 31.—*Percentage of schools offering certain high-school subjects*

Subjects	283 rural high schools	121 semirural high schools	609 small high schools, New York (1919–20)	[3] 143 high schools, North Dakota (1920–21)	460 township and community high schools, Illinois (1922–23) [1]
English 1	100	100	100	100	100
English 2	97	98	98	98	100
English 3	89	91	90	68	100
English 4	78	85	83	61	100
Elementary algebra	97	100	99	98	100
Plane geometry	94	95	88	87	95
American history	85	86	76	83	98
Ancient history	71	81	78	[4] 84	89
Medieval and modern history	71	69	----------	[4] 80	91
Latin 1	70	86	95	94	85
General science	70	43	3	46	66
Physics	66	71	69	35	81
Latin 2	65	83	93	52	83
Civics	64	63	89	86	93
Home economics and home making	62	55	[4] 11	69	58
Intermediate and advanced algebra	55	74	76	19	73
Chemistry	48	59	24	38	42
Arithmetic and commercial arithmetic	48	45	25	62	64
Agriculture and vocational agriculture	44	26	[4] 8	24	26
Biology	44	50	91	----------	17

[1] Computed from figures given by Earl A. Collins, "A survey of the township and community high schools of Illinois, 1923."

[2] North Dakota gives these subjects as general history 1 and general history 2.

[3] For New York the percentages of home making and agriculture are for vocational home making and vocational agriculture only.

TABLE 31.—*Percentage of schools offering certain high-school subjects*—Continued

Subjects	283 rural high schools	121 semi-rural high schools	609 small high schools, New York (1919–20)	143 high schools, North Dakota (1920–21)	460 township and community high schools, Illinois (1922–23)
Economics	44	57	3	62	41
Community civics	38	55			
Bookkeeping	38	47	26	41	58
Solid geometry	36	60	21	13	57
Manual training	32	38	.5	61	31
French 1	31	55	75	38	32
French 2	30	53	69	26	32
Vocal music	37	36	24	28	17
Sociology	30	28		86	9
Physiology	30	22	6	24	50
Physical geography	25	21	17	25	43
Typewriting	22	41	16	36	41
Botany	22	22	5	38	48
Latin 3	19	53	56	10	55
Shorthand	19	40	24	24	37
Instrumental music	18	21			
Drawing	16	11	85	18	10
English history	14	22	36	5	16
Latin 4	12	47	34	6	89
General history	12	7		(6)	2
Hygiene and sanitation	11	17			
Commercial geography	11	6	24	27	41
Trigonometry	10	22	10	2	7
Psychology	10	17		70	
General mathematics	10	16			
Spanish 1	9	7	11	7	7
Spanish 2	9	7	8	3	7
Principles of teaching	8	13		7 70	10
Zoology	7	10	2	16	32
Mechanical drawing	6	6	20	29	15
Commercial law	6	4	3	26	34
Modern history	6		8		63
Norse 1				7	
Norse 2				5	

[4] This subject is called social problems in the Fourteenth Report of the High-School Inspector of North Dakota. The number of schools offering the subject increased from 5 in 1919-20 to 123 in 1920-21, due to the passage of a State law requiring it for graduation from high school.

[5] The percentages given are estimates, as three different courses in drawing are offered in many of the small high schools of New York.

[6] See figures for ancient and medieval and modern history for North Dakota.

[7] In North Dakota this is given as a course in school management.

The year in which subjects are offered.—As to the year of the course in which particular subjects are offered, there is very little difference between the two groups of schools. The important differences in this regard are rather in programs of individual schools. There is one noticeable difference, however, between rural and semirural high schools as to the years in which the foreign languages are taught. In the semirural schools Latin is begun quite generally in the first year and French in the first or second. In the rural high schools a considerable number do not offer either Latin or French until the second or third year of the program. In the rural high schools, also, over 10 per cent delay elementary algebra until the second year, offering for the first year either general mathematics or arithmetic.

In both the rural and the semirural high schools there is much variation as to the year in which certain subjects are offered. Physical geography and community civics are found in every year of the four. Biology is found in every year of the course in rural high

as compared with 44 and 38 per cent of the rural schools. While bookkeeping is given in only 9 per cent more of the semirural schools than rural high schools, typewriting and shorthand were reported by approximately twice as many semirural schools in each one hundred as by the rural high schools.

There are a few subjects offered by a significantly larger percentage of the rural high schools than of the semirural schools. Agriculture is given by 44 per cent of the rural high schools but by only 26 per cent of the semirural schools. General science, which was reported by 70 per cent of the rural schools, was reported by only 43 per cent of the semirural high schools. All other subjects offered in any considerable number of schools are strikingly similar in the percentage in each group of schools offering them.

The percentages in the following table are computed in each case on the basis of the total number of schools represented. This gives the percentage of communities in which the different subjects are available to pupils. Attention should be called to the fact, however, that the basis used does not show the actual percentage of three and four year schools offering those subjects ordinarily given in the third and fourth years. The percentage of three and four year schools, particularly for the group of rural high schools, offering such subjects as American history, civics, French 1 and 2, physics, intermediate and advanced algebra, chemistry, solid geometry, economics, etc., would in each case be somewhat larger than the table shows.

TABLE 31.—*Percentage of schools offering certain high-school subjects*

Subjects	283 rural high schools	121 semi-rural high schools	669 small high schools, New York (1919–20)	143 high schools, North Dakota (1920–21)	460 township and community high schools, Illinois (1922–23)[1]
English 1	100	100	100	100	100
English 2	97	98	98	98	100
English 3	89	91	90	68	100
English 4	78	85	83	61	100
Elementary algebra	97	100	99	98	100
Plane geometry	94	95	88	87	95
American history	87	88	76	83	98
Ancient history	71	81	78	[2]84	89
Medieval and modern history	71	69	----------	[2]60	91
Latin 1	70	86	95	64	85
General science	70	43	3	46	60
Physics	66	71	69	35	81
Latin 2	65	83	93	52	88
Civics	64	63	89	50	93
Home economics and home making	62	55	[3]11	59	58
Intermediate and advanced algebra	55	74	76	19	73
Chemistry	48	59	24	38	42
Arithmetic and commercial arithmetic	48	45	25	62	64
Agriculture and vocational agriculture	44	26	[3]8	24	26
Biology	44	56	91	----------	17

[1] Computed from figures given by Earl A. Collins, "A survey of the township and community high schools of Illinois, 1923."

[2] North Dakota gives these subjects as general history 1 and general history 2.

[3] For New York the percentages of home making and agriculture are for vocational home making and vocational agriculture only.

TABLE 31.—*Percentage of schools offering certain high-school subjects*—Continued

Subjects	283 rural high schools	121 semi-rural high schools	609 small high schools, New York (1919–20)	143 high schools, North Dakota, (1920–21)	460 township and community high schools, Illinois (1922–23)
Economics	44	57	3	89	41
Community civics	38	55			
Bookkeeping	38	47	26	41	58
Solid geometry	36	60	21	13	57
Manual training	32	38	.5	61	31
French 1	31	55	75	38	32
French 2	30	53	69	26	32
Vocal music	37	36	24	25	17
Sociology	30	28		[4] 86	9
Physiology	30	22	6	24	50
Physical geography	25	21	17	25	43
Typewriting	22	41	16	36	41
Botany	22	22	5	38	48
Latin 3	19	53	56	10	55
Shorthand	19	40	24	24	37
Instrumental music	18	21			
Drawing	16	11	[5] 85	18	10
English history	14	22	35	5	16
Latin 4	12	47	34	6	39
General history	12	7		(6)	2
Hygiene and sanitation	11	17			
Commercial geography	11	6	24	27	41
Trigonometry	10	22	10	2	7
Psychology	10	17		76	
General mathematics	10	16			
Spanish 1	9	7	11	7	7
Spanish 2	9	7	8	3	7
Principles of teaching	8	13		[7] 70	10
Zoology	7	10	2	16	62
Mechanical drawing	6	6	20	29	15
Commercial law	6	4	2	29	34
Modern history	6		8		68
Norse 1				7	
Norse 2				5	

[4] This subject is called social problems in the Fourteenth Report of the High-School Inspector of North Dakota. The number of schools offering the subject increased from 5 in 1919–20 to 123 in 1920–21, due to the passage of a State law requiring it for graduation from high school.

[5] The percentages given are estimates, as three different courses in drawing are offered in many of the small high schools of New York.

[6] See figures for ancient and medieval and modern history for North Dakota.

[7] In North Dakota this is given as a course in school management.

The year in which subjects are offered.—As to the year of the course in which particular subjects are offered, there is very little difference between the two groups of schools. The important differences in this regard are rather in programs of individual schools. There is one noticeable difference, however, between rural and semirural high schools as to the years in which the foreign languages are taught. In the semirural schools Latin is begun quite generally in the first year and French in the first or second. In the rural high schools a considerable number do not offer either Latin or French until the second or third year of the program. In the rural high schools, also, over 10 per cent delay elementary algebra until the second year, offering for the first year either general mathematics or arithmetic.

In both the rural and the semirural high schools there is much variation as to the year in which certain subjects are offered. Physical geography and community civics are found in every year of the four. Biology is found in every year of the course in rural high

schools and in each of the first three years for semirural schools. Medieval and modern history occurs in each year for the rural and in each of the last three for the semirural high schools. Botany is offered in each year in the semirural schools and in each of the first three years of the rural high school course. Other subjects, distributed over three or four years, are physiology, English history, commercial geography, arithmetic, and commercial arithmetic.

TABLE 32.—*Subjects offered by 283 rural high schools distributed over 47 States*

First year		Second year		Third year		Fourth year	
Subjects	Number of schools	Subjects	Number of schools	Subjects	Number of schools	Subjects	Number of schools
English 1	283	English 2	274	English 3	252	English 4	222
Latin 1	142	Public speaking	4	Public speaking	5	Public speaking	11
French 1	13	Latin 1	20	Latin 1	36	Latin 2	24
Spanish 1	12	Latin 2	141	Latin 2	19	Latin 4	24
General mathematics	21	French 1	28	Latin 3	53	French 2	45
Arithmetic or commercial arithmetic	35	French 2	13	French 1	48	French 3	8
Elementary algebra	243	Spanish 2	12	French 2	27	Spanish 2	13
Ancient history	133	General mathematics	5	French 3	6	Norwegian 2	1
General history	12	Elementary algebra	32	Spanish 1	13	Spanish 4	1
Medieval and modern history	4	Arithmetic	51	Spanish 3	3	German 2	1
Civics	8	Intermediate or advanced algebra (1)	48	German 1	1	Arithmetic	34
Community civics	77	Plane geometry	189	Arithmetic	17	Intermediate or advanced algebra	15
Citizenship	9	Ancient history	54	Intermediate or advanced algebra	94	Solid geometry	66
Vocational civics	3	General history	21	Plane geometry	78	Trigonometry	28
Occupations	7	Medieval and modern history	136	Solid geometry	37	General mathematics	2
General science	178	English history	7	Ancient history	14	Medieval and modern history	9
Physiology	27	Modern history	11	Medieval and modern history	52	English history	6
Physical geography	26	Community civics	4	English history	28	American history	161
Biology	9	Economics	3	Modern history	7	Civics	137
Botany	15	General science	11	American history	85	Community civics	11
Zoology	4	Physiology	24	Civics	35	Economics	110
Hygiene and sanitation	15	Physical geography	26	Economics	12	Sociology	68
Agriculture	87	Biology	88	Sociology	19	Physiology	11
Home economics	161	Botany	33	General science	6	Biology	9
Manual training	87	Hygiene and sanitation	14	Physiology	22	Physical geography	7
Drawing	43	Agriculture	91	Biology	20	Hygiene and sanitation	7
Mechanical drawing	7	Home economics	133	Botany	14	Physics	91
Mechanical arts	1	Manual training	78	Zoology	15	Chemistry	86
Commercial geography	15	Drawing	41	Physical geography	12	Psychology	29
Bookkeeping	30	Mechanical drawing	5	Hygiene and sanitation	9	Principles of teaching	24
Typewriting	7	Mechanical arts	1	Physics	97	School methods and management	4
Penmanship	11	Commercial geography	2	Chemistry	51	Agriculture	57
Spelling	7	Bookkeeping	49	Agriculture	78	Home economics	47
Vocal music	101	Typewriting	10	Home economics	59	Manual training	13
Instrumental music	41	Penmanship	3	Manual training	36	Drawing	27
		Spelling	4	Drawing	37	Mechanical arts	1
		Vocal music	101	Mechanical arts	1	Commercial geography	7
		Instrumental music	40	Commercial geography	8	Bookkeeping	23
				Commercial law	16	Shorthand	10
				Bookkeeping	34	Business methods	3
				Typewriting	56	Business English	4
				Shorthand	43	Spelling	3
				Vocal music	94	Vocal music	90
				Instrumental music	37	Instrumental music	33

[1] The terms intermediate and advanced algebra are both used in different States to designate the second year's work in algebra.

TABLE 33.—*Subjects offered by 181 semirural high schools distributed over 41 States*

First year		Second year		Third year		Fourth year	
Subjects	Number of schools	Subjects	Number of schools	Subjects	Number of schools	Subjects	Number of schools
English 1	121	English 2	119	English 3	111	English 4	103
Latin 1	96	Latin 1	4	Latin 1	4	Public speaking	9
French 1	25	Latin 2	95	Latin 2	3	Latin 2	3
General mathematics	11	French 1	27	Latin 3	64	Latin 4	57
Elementary algebra	115	French 2	24	French 1	15	French 2	15
Arithmetic or commercial arithmetic	15	General mathematics	5	French 2	25	French 3	14
Ancient history	61	Elementary algebra	6	French 3	14	French 4	2
General history	4	Intermediate or advanced algebra	30	Spanish 1	9	Spanish 2	9
Civics	3	Plane geometry	78	German 1	1	German 2	1
Community civics	49	Arithmetic or commercial arithmetic	16	Intermediate or advanced algebra	35	General mathematics	3
General science	47	Ancient history	37	Plane geometry	37	Advanced algebra	24
Biology	4	General history	4	Solid geometry	35	Solid geometry	38
Botany	6	Medieval and modern history	53	Arithmetic or commercial arithmetic	9	Trigonometry	27
Hygiene and sanitation	9	English history	13	Medieval or modern history	40	Arithmetic or commercial arithmetic	15
Physiology	14	American history	2	English history	14	American history	78
Physical geography	17	Civics	1	American history	25	Civics	49
Agriculture	23	Economics	1	Civics	23	Community civics	12
Home economics	48	General science	5	Community civics	6	Economics	30
Manual training	31	Biology	57	Economics	29	Sociology	34
Drawing	9	Botany	11	Biology	7	Botany	3
Mechanical drawing	3	Zoology	3	Botany	7	Hygiene and sanitation	4
Bookkeeping	9	Hygiene and sanitation	5	Zoology	9	Physical geography	2
Typewriting	9	Physiology	4	Hygiene and sanitation	4	Physics	25
Vocal music	43	Physical geography	4	Physiology	9	Chemistry	59
Instrumental music	25	Agriculture	24	Physical geography	3	Psychology	21
		Home economics	41	Physics	61	Principles of teaching	16
		Manual training	25	Chemistry	12	School management	3
		Drawing	11	Agriculture	19	Agriculture	10
		Mechanical drawing	2	Home economics	21	Home economics	15
		Industrial arts	2	Manual training	13	Manual training	3
		Dramatic art	1	Drawing	6	Drawing	4
		Bookkeeping	32	Mechanical drawing	1	Mechanical drawing	3
		Typewriting	15	Commercial geography	7	Bookkeeping	14
		Penmanship	8	Commercial law	5	Shorthand	9
		Vocal music	43	Bookkeeping	6	Business English	4
		Instrumental music	24	Shorthand	40	Office practice	3
				Typewriting	30		
				Vocal music	42		
				Instrumental music	24		

The range of the program of studies.—As stated earlier in the discussion, if only those subjects offered by 50 per cent or more of the schools are considered, the program of studies of the rural high school contains 16 subjects. On the same basis the program of the semirural high school contains 23 subjects, an addition of 7 subjects. In the latter schools general science is eliminated, and chemistry, biology, economics, community civics, solid geometry, French 1, French 2, and Latin 3 are gained.

If the program of studies is determined on the basis of the subjects offered by 25 per cent or more of the schools, the program of the rural high school is increased by 15 subjects and that of the semirural high school by 10, making a total for the former of 30 and for the

latter of 33 subjects. On this basis the rural high school gains chemistry, biology, physiology, physical geography, arithmetic and commercial arithmetic, solid geometry, economics, community civics, sociology, agriculture, bookkeeping, manual training, French 1, French 2, and vocal music. The semirural high school gains general science, arithmetic and commercial arithmetic, sociology, agriculture, bookkeeping, typewriting, shorthand, manual training, Latin 4, and vocal music.

Tendencies in the program of studies.—The data on the programs of the schools studied indicate some interesting tendencies in the curriculum offerings of the two groups of schools. In the natural sciences 70 per cent of the rural high schools and 43 per cent of the semirural high schools have adopted general science as the first-year science, and biology as predominantly the second-year offering. Hygiene and sanitation has found a place throughout the four years of a small percentage of the schools of both groups. In the social science groups of subjects, courses in economics have been introduced into the two upper years of 44 per cent of the rural high schools and in 57 per cent of the semirural high schools, while community civics is found in the programs of 38 per cent of the rural and 55 per cent of the semirural high schools. Sociology, under such titles as sociology, rural sociology, problems of democracy, and social problems, is offered in 30 per cent of the rural and in 28 per cent of the semirural high schools. This indication of the growth of the last two subjects, comparatively new in high-school programs, is further substantiated by the findings of a study as to the status of the social sciences in the high schools of the North Central Association.[18] This investigation included 475 high schools, 122 of which had enrollments under 150 pupils each. This latter group of schools is fairly comparable with the schools represented in the present study. Of the 122 schools, 54 per cent offered economics, 31 per cent community civics, and 61 per cent sociology.

Other subjects which occupy prominent positions in the programs of the rural and semirural high schools are home economics, offered in 62 per cent of the former and 55 per cent of the latter, and agriculture, offered by 44 per cent of the rural and by 26 per cent of the semirural high schools. General mathematics has also gained a foothold as a subject in both groups of schools, being given by 10 per cent of the rural and by 16 per cent of the semirural high schools. Certain commercial subjects, such as typewriting, bookkeeping, and shorthand, are found in varying but significant percentages of both groups of schools.

[18] The status of the social sciences in the high schools of the North Central Association. By Walter S. Monroe and I. O. Foster. Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois. Bulletin 13, 1922.

While the subjects in the majority of rural and semirural high-school programs of studies are in a large degree the more or less traditional subjects required for entrance by the higher institutions of learning, there is a refreshing tendency, particularly noticeable in the larger schools, to depart from the notion that the same training is best for all pupils, and to meet in their program the needs of the large proportion of high-school pupils whose formal education closes with the high school. This attempt to adjust the work of the rural and semirural high schools to the needs of the pupil, the community, and the demands of modern life is indicated by the entrance into their curriculums of agriculture, home economics, sociology, hygiene and sanitation, and the commercial subjects.

Curriculums offered.—The reports of rural and semirural high schools as to the curriculums offered show clearly that the smaller schools are restricted largely to the standard or traditional curriculum organization. Of the 89 curriculums reported for rural high schools, with one to four teachers, 75, or approximately 84 per cent, were of the standard academic type, such as general, Latin, classical, college preparatory, scientific, and academic. Of the 76 curriculums reported for one to four teacher semirural high schools, 59, or 78 per cent, were of the academic type. Of the 80 curriculums reported by rural high schools with five or more teachers, 43, or 54 per cent, were of the academic type, and of the 127 reported for semirural schools, with five or more teachers, 76, or approximately 60 per cent, were of the academic type.

TABLE 34.—*Curriculums offered in rural and semirural high schools*

Type of curriculum offered	Schools with one to four teachers			Schools with five or more teachers			Grand total
	Rural	Semi-rural	Total	Rural	Semi-rural	Total	
General	24	17	41	14	23	37	78
Latin	20	18	38	6	12	18	56
Classical	6	4	10	4	7	11	21
Academic	2	5	7	6	5	11	18
College preparatory	10	4	14	4	14	18	32
Scientific	13	11	24	9	15	24	48
Commercial	1	4	5	13	21	34	39
Home economics	7	11	18	11	12	23	41
Agricultural	4	1	5	4	12	16	21
Vocational	1	1	2	3	6	9	11
Industrial arts				3		3	3
Practical arts				2		2	2
Domestic arts	1		1	1		1	2
Number of academic	75	59	134	43	76	119	253
Number of nonacademic	14	17	31	37	51	88	119
Total	89	76	165	80	127	207	372

The data in the foregoing table indicate that the high school with one to four teachers, offers but little work beyond the academic in nature. This is significant, since over one-half of the rural high

schools have a teaching force of less than four teachers. On the other hand, a much larger proportion of the schools with five or more teachers have in their programs curriculums organized to give training for commercial work, home economics, agriculture, and other training of a practical nature.

All data on rural and semirural high schools with regard to their programs of studies, curriculums, and subject matter, emphasize the need of well-defined objectives. While there is evident a tendency to introduce into the curriculums of such schools by local and State action certain new subjects, the ends which these subjects should serve are in general vague. There is no definite notion as to what the small high school should accomplish. The traditional idea of a general high-school training with no direct bearing upon the demands of to-day as made upon the average person is still prevalent.

The urgent need of the rural and semirural high schools, at the present time, is the determination of the educational objectives that should guide them in their work. Without such objectives the content and organization of their curriculums will necessarily continue to be, more or less, artificial and haphazard. For urban high schools much has and is being done in the way of setting up the objectives in the direction of which their work should function. In the rural and semirural communities almost nothing has as yet been accomplished. Principals and teachers of local schools can do a great deal in the more favored communities to improve the effectiveness of the training received in their schools through a study particularly of local needs. This is only a partial solution. In many cases, principals are greatly hampered in their work of adapting the high school to the needs of the community and present-day life by State requirements of a traditional type.

There is great need for scientific study by States of the problems of rural secondary education to the end of setting up objectives of secondary education, particularly for rural communities, based upon the actual needs of modern life. The education offered by the small high school is necessarily limited in range and variety. It is highly essential, if the small high school is to fill its place as it should, that its work should be of such a nature as to meet, in the most adequate manner possible, the various educational needs of the largest number of children of high school age.

Requirements for accrediting high schools.—The requirements of State departments of education and State universities of the several States for accredited high schools [19] show that these requirements are in terms of English, mathematics, foreign language, the natural sciences, and the social sciences. Five States—Connecticut, New

[19] Zook, George F. Accredited secondary schools in the United States. Bureau of Education, Bul., 1922, No. 11.

Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, and Rhode Island—make no definite requirements in terms of subjects. Massachusetts prescribes only 3 units of English and permits limited election with respect to the other 12 units. Iowa, Nevada, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin have a partial group elective system requiring definitely, with the exception of Iowa, which requires 1 unit of social science, only English and mathematics. Thirty-nine of the States require 3 units of English, 3 require 4 units, and 3 require only 2 units. The requirements in mathematics range from no requirement to 3 units. One State requires no mathematics; 2 States, 1 unit; 23 States, 2 units; 12 States, 2½ units; and 4 States, 3 units. Thirteen States require no foreign language; 21 States, 2 units; 2 States, 3 units; and 5 States either require or recommend from 4 to 5 units of foreign language. In natural science, 22 States make no requirements, 16 States require 1 unit, and 3 States 3 units. In social science 14 States make no definite requirements and 19 States require 1 unit. Eight States require 2 units or more of social science. Roughly stated, the requirements of the several States are 3 units of English, 2 units of mathematics, 2 units of foreign language, and 1 unit of social science. Natural science is not definitely required by the majority of States.

TABLE 35.—*Number of States making definite requirements in certain subjects*

Number of units required	English	Mathematics	Foreign language	Natural science	Social science
0	0	1	13	22	14
1	0	2	0	16	19
2	3	23	21	3	7
2½	0	12	0	0	0
3	39	4	2	0	1
4	3	0	3	0	0
5	0	0	2	0	0

States making no definite requirements in terms of subjects are Connecticut, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, and Rhode Island; group election, Massachusetts; partial group election, Iowa, Nevada, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.

TABLE 36.—*Number of units of free electives in 41 different States*

	Units of free electives														
	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6	6½	7	7½	8	9	10	11
Number of States permitting...	1	1	1	5	3	8	2	4	4	2	2	2	2	2	2

Subjects required for graduation by rural high schools.—The data from rural high schools on subjects required of pupils for graduation show remarkable similarity to the requirements for accrediting

high schools set up by the several States. All the schools reporting by questionnaire required at least three years of English, and 85 per cent of them required four years. Eighty-five per cent required elementary algebra and 15 per cent general mathematics; 87 per cent required plane geometry, 21 per cent intermediate algebra, and 26 per cent arithmetic. Ninety-four per cent required American history and 40 per cent civics; 30 per cent required ancient history and a like per cent medieval and modern history. Twenty-seven per cent required community civics. In natural science the most commonly required subjects were general science, physics, and biology, 42 per cent of the schools requiring general science, 40 per cent physics, and 33 per cent biology. Twenty-seven per cent of the schools required Latin 1, and 26 per cent Latin 2. Twenty-seven per cent required home economics for girls and 21 per cent agriculture for boys. Other subjects required for graduation by from 10 to 20 per cent of the rural high schools were economics, sociology, manual training, general history, French 1, French 2, hygiene and sanitation, and drawing.

The subjects required for graduation reported by questionnaire for 175 rural high schools agree, with minor variations as to percentage of schools requiring certain subjects, with the data obtained from 54 rural high schools visited. They also agree closely with the requirements as reported by 84 semirural high schools. All the data indicate that, in the main, the requirements for graduation from rural and semirural high schools are in terms of subjects required for entrance to higher institutions of learning rather than in terms of subjects offering the type of training meeting the needs of the several types of pupils enrolled in such high schools.

Conditions very similar to those reported in the present study are also reported in two recent State surveys. With regard to the curriculums in the rural high schools of Oklahoma, the following statement is made: "Curricula being administered in the rural high schools of Oklahoma are poorly adapted to the needs of the students. The favorite subjects are Latin, ancient history, medieval and modern history, English, and mathematics." [20]

Likewise, pertinent to the discussion is the summary of the Indiana Educational Commission on the requirements of the high schools of Indiana:

> In most schools English is required in all four years of the course, though there is a distinct tendency in large schools to require only three units. American history is almost universally required in the third or fourth years, while civics is seldom found except as a part of American history; other forms of history are commonly offered and required in the second and third years. General science or botany is common in the first year and physics in the fourth year. In the practical arts, home economics is required in the first year by 23 per cent, agri-

[20] Public education in Oklahoma, Bureau of Education, 1922, p. 259.

culture in the first year by 9 per cent, and manual training in the first year by 14 per cent of all high schools.

Most significant, however, are the requirements as to algebra in the first and second years, geometry in the second and third years, and foreign language in the first and second years. Algebra is required during the first year by 93 per cent, during the second year by 56 per cent, and during the third year by 7 per cent of all high schools. Geometry is required during the second year by 66 per cent of all high schools and during the third by 57 per cent. Foreign-language study occupies an equally favored position. It is required during the first year by 71 per cent, during the second year by 72 per cent, and during the third year by 16 per cent of all high schools. In small high schools the foreign language offered and required is all but universally Latin—less than 5 per cent of these schools offering any other foreign language.[31]

All data on the programs of studies offered and the requirements for graduation from the rural high school indicate, in general, that in practice at least, if not in theory, it is still a selective institution rather than an institution serving equally the educational needs of all the children of high-school age. The bulk of its curriculum offerings and its requirements are based upon the needs of a special group of pupils. In a large measure it is attempting to fit all pupils to the same educational mold.

TABLE 37.—*Subjects required for graduation in rural high schools, semirural high schools, and small high schools in New York*

Subjects [1]	54 rural high schools (visited) [1]		178 rural high schools (questionnaire) [2]		84 semirural high schools (questionnaire) [1]		385 small high schools, New York (1920–21)	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
English (4 years)	48	89	149	85	76	90	385	100
English (3 years)	6	11	26	15	8	10		
Elementary algebra	52	96	149	85	80	95	377	98
General mathematics	2	4	26	15	4	5		
Plane geometry	51	94	152	87	64	76	361	94
Intermediate algebra	30	55	37	21	21	25	51	13
American history	51	94	165	94	76	90	353	92
Civics	39	72	71	40	52	62	366	96
Ancient history	29	54	53	30	40	48	212	55
Medieval and modern history	28	52	53	30	36	43	62	[3]16
Community civics	8	15	47	27	24	29		
Latin 1	20	37	47	27	21	25	141	37
Latin 2	20	37	45	26	20	24	132	34
General science	34	63	74	42	42	50		
Biology	15	28	58	33	6	10	364	95
Physics	28	52	71	40	38	45	224	58
Arithmetic	11	20	45	26	21	25		
Agriculture (boys)	13	24	37	21	8	10		
Home economics (girls)	15	28	47	27	12	14		

[1] Subjects required by less than 20 per cent of the rural high schools reporting are not included.
[2] Ferriss, E. N., The rural high school. Rural school survey of New York State, pp. 150–151.
[3] In New York State this course included only modern history.

Alternation of subjects.—One of the serious problems in the administration of the program of studies of the small high school is that of offering a desirable range and number of subjects without an unduly large number of small classes and without burdening the teacher with an unreasonable number of teaching periods. Under the most skillful management this problem is perplexing. The smaller the school

[31] Public education in Indiana, General Education Board, 1923, pp. 10–56.

the more difficult is its solution. Many principals are solving it in part by the alternation of subjects and by combining grades for certain subjects. Not nearly so much has been done in this direction, however, as might well be. The following table shows the alternations and combinations most frequently reported.

TABLE 38.—*Alternation of subjects or combination of grades in subjects most often reported*

Subjects	Number of schools reporting	
	Schools with 1 to 4 teachers	Schools with 5 or more teachers
English 3 and 4	39	20
Physics and chemistry	28	33
Ancient and medieval and modern or modern history	18	7
History 3 and 4	8	3
American history and economics or economics and sociology	8	5
American history and modern history	5	0
United States history and civics	5	0
Latin 3 and 4	10	21
General science and biology	4	3
Solid geometry and trigonometry	1	6
Advanced algebra and solid geometry	1	5
Agriculture 1 and 2	10	11
Agriculture 3 and 4	6	9
Home economics 1 and 2	3	4
Home economics 3 and 4	8	3
Sociology and economics	3	6
Biology and physics	1	3
Algebra and plane geometry	3	1

EXAMPLES OF CURRICULUM OFFERINGS OF RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS

I. A County High School in Tennessee

First year:	*Second year:*	*Third year:*	*Fourth year:*
Required—	Required—	Required—	Required—
English	English	English	English
Arithmetic and algebra	Algebra	Plane geometry	American history and civics
Biology and physiology			
Electives—	Electives—	Electives—	Electives—
Agriculture	Agriculture	Latin	Latin
Manual training	Manual training	Medieval and modern history	Chemistry
Home economics	Home economics	Physics	Solid geometry
English history	Physiology		
Latin	Latin		
	Ancient history		

II. A Large Rural High School of Kansas

First year:	*Second year:*	*Third year:*	*Fourth year:*
Required—	Required—	Required—	Required—
English	English	English	American history
Algebra	Geometry	Civics (N)	Methods (N)
Music	Agriculture (N)	Physiology (N)	Grammar (N)
Latin (C)	Caesar (C)		Physiology (N)
			Reading (N)
			Geography (N)
			Arithmetic (N)
Electives—	Electives—	Electives—	Electives—
Ancient history	Modern history	Physics	English
General science	Manual training	Chemistry	Virgil
Physical geography	Home economics	Cicero	Economics-sociology
Manual training	Chorus	Advanced algebra	Chorus
Home economics		Solid geometry	
		Chorus	

NOTE.—C—Required of pupils pursuing college preparatory curriculum; N—required in normal training course.

III. A Large Consolidated School of Iowa Organized on 6–6 Plan

First year (grade 7):
- Required—
  - English
  - Elementary science
  - Geography-history
  - Industrial arts or home economics
  - Music
- Electives—
  - Home economics, extra credit
  - Manual training, extra credit
  - Physical education

Second year (grade 8):
- Required—
  - English
  - American history-civics
  - Mathematics
  - Music
- Electives—
  - Elementary science
  - Manual training
  - Home economics
  - Farm shop
  - Physical education

Third year (grade 9):
- Required—
  - English
  - American history and civics
  - Music
- Electives—
  - General science
  - Algebra
  - Industrial arts
  - Home economics
  - Vocational agriculture
  - Farm shop
  - Physical education

Fourth year (grade 10):
- Required—
  - English
  - European history
  - Algebra–plane geometry
  - Music
- Electives—
  - Vocational agriculture
  - Farm shop
  - Home economics
  - Manual training
  - Physical education

Fifth year (grade 11):
- Required—
  - English literature
  - American history
  - Plane geometry, one-half
  - Music
- Electives—
  - Vocational agriculture
  - Solid geometry, one-half
  - Commercial arithmetic
  - Latin
  - Farm shop
  - Manual training
  - Physical education

Sixth year (grade 12):
- Required—
  - American literature
  - Physics
  - Economics-sociology
- Electives—
  - Vocational agriculture
  - Farm shop
  - Home economics
  - Manual training
  - Latin
  - Physical geography
  - Physical education

IV. A Large Consolidated High School in Iowa, Organized on 6–6 Plan

First year (grade 7):
- Required—
  - English
  - Mathematics
  - Science
  - History
  - Music
  - Drawing
  - Physical education
- Electives—
  - None

Second year (grade 8):
- Required—
  - English
  - Mathematics
  - Science
  - History
  - Music
  - Drawing
  - Physical education
- Electives—
  - None

Third year (grade 9):
- Required—
  - English
  - Algebra
  - Home economics or manual training
- Electives—
  - Physiology-biology
  - Latin
  - General science, one-half

Fourth year (grade 10):
- Required—
  - English
  - Plane geometry
  - Agriculture, one-half
- Electives—
  - Medieval and modern history
  - Caesar
  - Botany, one-half
  - Agriculture, one-half

Fifth year (grade 11):
- Required—
  - English
  - Arithmetic, one-half
  - Home economics or manual training
  - Physical education
- Electives—
  - Advanced algebra, one-half
  - Solid geometry
  - Rural education

Sixth year (grade 12):
- Required—
  - Physics
  - American history
  - Economics-civics
  - Physical education
- Electives—
  - School management-methods
  - Solid geometry, one-half

V. A Rural High School of Wisconsin, 85 Pupils Enrolled

Ninth grade:	*Tenth grade:*	*Eleventh grade:*	*Twelfth grade:*
Required—	Required—	Required—	Required—
English	English	English	English
Algebra	Geometry	Modern history	American history
Elementary science, one-half	Citizenship, one-half	Biology	Physics
Citizenship, one-half	Physiology, one-half	Physical education	Physical education
Physical education	Physical education		
Electives—	Electives—	Electives—	Electives—
Latin	Latin	Latin	Latin
Commercial geography, one-half	Ancient history, one-half	General geography, one-half	Economics, one-half
Commercial arithmetic, one-half	Medieval history, one-half	Advanced algebra, one-half	Social problems, one-half

VI. A Large Township High School of Illinois

First year:	*Second year:*	*Third year:*	*Fourth year:*
Required—	Required—	Required—	Required—
English	English	English	English
Algebra	Plane geometry		American history, one-half
			American Government, one-half
Electives—	Electives—	Electives—	Electives—
Latin	Latin	Latin	Latin
Physiography, one-half	Zoology, one-half	French	French
Physiology, one-half	Botany, one-half	Advanced algebra, one-half	Physics
Farm crops	Civics, one-half	Solid geometry, one-half	Stenography
Cooking	Ancient history, one-half	Chemistry	Typewriting
Mechanical drawing	Agricultural zoology, one-half	Modern history	
Woodworking	Agricultural botany, one-half	Animal husbandry	
Commercial geography	Sewing	Advanced home economics	
	Cabinet making	Bookkeeping	
	Commercial geography, one-half	Stenography	
	Commercial arithmetic	Typewriting	

VII. A Rural High School of New Hampshire [1]

First year:	*Second year:*	*Third year:*	*Fourth year:*
English	English	English	English
Latin	Latin	Latin	Latin
History of civilization	French	French	French
Household appliances	Modern European history	Geometry	U. S. constitutional history
Algebra	Physics	Biology	Commercial law, one-half
		Commercial geography, one-half	Economics, one-half
		Physical geography, one-half	

[1] The year in which some of the subjects were offered was not definitely given.

Chapter IX

IMPORTANT PROBLEMS OF RURAL SECONDARY EDUCATION, WITH SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT

One of the most important developments in American education, particularly during the last two or three decades, has been what may be called the popularization of secondary education. Practically every State has worked toward the end of a high school accessible to every boy and girl of high-school age. The result has been that the high-school enrollment of the country grew from less than 400,000, in 1889–90, to over 2,000,000, in 1921–22, or from a fraction over one for each 200 of population to approximately two for each 100 of population.

One of the significant phases of this development has been the growth of high schools in rural and semirural communities. To place a high school within reach of every child in such communities has necessarily meant the establishment of large numbers of small high schools with small staffs of instruction. The most pressing problems facing these rural and semirural high schools, within the scope of the present study, as indicated by the data gathered, seem to be:

(1) To keep the teacher's load in number of instruction periods and number of different subjects handled within reasonable bounds.

(2) To make possible for the principal a desirable distribution of time for the performance of his various duties.

(3) To give teachers adequate supervision and encouragement toward professional growth.

(4) To give pupils adequate educational and vocational guidance.

(5) To organize, direct, and control extraclassroom activities.

(6) To develop and retain community and school cooperation.

(7) To offer a program of studies of desirable breadth and variety.

(8) To organize curriculums to meet most effectively the educational needs of the pupil, the community, and the Nation.

(9) To set up requirements for graduation that will ensure each pupil contact with the essentials of education in a democracy; and, at the same time, permit of sufficient flexibility to meet the individual needs of the pupil.

Practically all of these problems spring entirely or in part from one source; namely, the smallness of the rural and semirural high schools. Approximately one-half of such schools have a high-school enrollment of 50 or fewer pupils. They have teaching staffs of three to four teachers including the principal. To offer four years of high-school work under these conditions, even with the best organization possible, results in a heavy teaching load, if the school offers any subjects other than those ordinarily required for graduation. The smaller the school the more serious the problems become.

As to the teacher's load there are several ways of making it lighter. One of the means most often used is that of alternation of subjects. In this direction much more may be done in the small high school than is at the present time. It requires careful planning of the program of studies over a period of years. It should ordinarily be accomplished through the alternation of subjects in the first two years as one cycle, and the alternation of third and fourth year subjects as the second cycle. The two most carefully worked out programs of alternation are perhaps those of Ohio and Indiana. The alternations suggested are as follows:

TABLE 39.—*Teachers' programs (45-minute periods in a three-teacher high school)*[1]

Programs	1922-23 to 1928-29	1923-24 to 1929-30	
Teacher A			
Foreign language 1	5		Every other year only.
Foreign language 2		5	Do.
Algebra		5	Do.
Geometry	5		Do.
General mathematics	5	5	Every year.
General history	5	5	Do.
American history	5		Every other year only.
Economics and government		5	Do.
Civics	5	5	Every year.
Teacher B			
Home economics 1	7		Every other year only.
Home economics 2		7	Do.
Home economics 3	7		Do.
Home economics 4		7	Do.
English 1	5	5	Every year.
English 2	5	5	Do.
English 3	5		Every other year only.
English 4		5	Do.
Teacher C			
Agriculture 1	7		Every other year only.
Agriculture 2		7	Do.
Agriculture 3	7		Do.
Agriculture 4		7	Do.
General science	5	5	Every year.
Biology	7		Every other year only.
Physics		7	Do.

[1] Plans for obtaining higher efficiency and lower cost of maintenance of small high schools, State of Indiana, Dept. of Instruc., Bull. No. 56, 1922, p. 6.

Total number of teaching periods per week: Teacher A—30; Teacher B—29; Teacher C—26.

Curriculum with practical arts courses in a high school with three teachers[1]

Offerings for odd years

Freshman year

1. English 1, R.
2. General science, R.
3. Manual arts (boys), E.
4. Home economics—Sewing and cooking (girls), E.
5. Algebra, E.
6. Agriculture, E.
7. Latin 1, E.

Offerings for even years

Freshman year

1. English 1, R.
2. Occupations, ½ (boys), R.
3. Home science (sanitation and hygiene), ½ (girls), R.

2s. Community civics, ½, R.

4. Biology, E.
5. Latin 1, E.
6. Commercial geography and commercial arithmetic, E., or bookkeeping, E.

[1] Ohio high-school standards, 1923, revision, pp. 89-90.

Offerings for odd years	Offerings for even years
Sophomore year	*Sophomore year*
8. English 2, R.	7. English 2, R.
2c. General science, R.	2c. Occupations, ½ (boys), R.
3c. Manual arts (boys), E.	3c. Home science (sanitation and hygiene), ½ (girls), R.
4c. Home economics—Sewing and cooking (girls), E.	2sc. Community civics, ½, R.
5c. Algebra, E.	4c. Biology, E.
6c. Agriculture, E.	8. Latin 2, E.
9. Latin 2, E.	6c. Commercial geography and commercial arithmetic or bookkeeping, E.
10. Ancient and early European history (to end of 17th century), E.	9. Plane geometry, E.
	10. Advanced home economics, E.
	11. Ancient and early European history, E.
Junior year	*Junior year*
11. English 3, R.	12. English 4, R.
12. American history, ½, R.	13. Modern European history, R.
12s. Problems of American democracy, or Civics, ½, R.	9c. Plane geometry, E.
13. Physics, E.	10c. Advanced home economics, E.
14. Advanced agriculture, E.	14. Chemistry, E.
15. Advanced manual arts, E.	15. Foreign language, E.
16. Foreign language 1, E.	16. Commercial law, ½, E., or commerce and industry or history of commerce, ½, E.
17. Advanced algebra, ½, E.	17. Economics or American democracy, ½ or 1, E.
17s. Solid geometry, ½, E.	17s. Social problems, ½, E.
Senior year	*Senior year*
11c. English 3, R.	12c. English 4, R.
12c. American history, ½, R.	13c. Modern European history, R.
12sc. Problems of American democracy, or Civics, ½, R.	14c. Chemistry, E.
13c. Physics, E.	16c. Commercial subjects, E. (*see* Junior Year).
14c. Advanced agriculture, E.	17c. Economics or American democracy, ½ or 1, E.
15c. Advanced manual arts, E.	17sc. Social problems, ½, E.
17c. Advanced algebra, ½, E.	18. Foreign language, E.
17sc. Solid geometry, ½, E.	
18. Foreign language 2, E.	

NOTE.—The letter "c" indicates a subject in which a class is combined with the preceding class which bears the same number, as 2c with 2, etc. Subjects marked 2 and 2s, for instance, are subjects which extend only over a semester and can both be taught by the same teacher, since one follows the other.

A second means of reducing the teaching load, particularly with regard to the number of subject-matter fields in which the teacher gives instruction, is the six-six plan of elementary and secondary school organization. By placing the two upper grades in the high school at least one teacher is added to the high-school staff and more

opportunity afforded for reducing the number of subject-matter fields in which each instructor is required to teach.

A third and more fundamental means of reducing the teaching load in rural and semirural high schools would be through a greater centralization of such schools. At the present time all over the country there are many small, struggling high schools within a few miles of each other, all attempting to give a full high-school course, often with only two teachers. A large percentage of these schools have very inadequate equipment in the way of buildings, laboratories, and libraries. In fact, many of them are lacking in all things essential for giving a high-school training of reasonable standard. The work, inadequate as it is, is done at a high-per-pupil cost. Many of these schools should offer only three or four years of work, beginning with the sixth or seventh grade, and the older pupils should be transported to central schools for the last two or three years of their high-school course where adequate facilities for such work can be made available, and where the number of pupils will make possible a relatively large teaching staff, each member of which is specially trained in a particular field of instruction. To give high-school advantages of sufficient range and quality to meet the demands of the present day and the widely varying needs of the pupils attending high schools requires greater centralization of high schools in rural and semirural communities. Such centralization, where possible, would do much toward solving the problem of the teaching load as well as that of the desirable distribution of the principal's time. Such partial centralization or coordination of the high schools of a county or group of high-school districts as suggested would require a larger unit of administration and support than is at present common in most States. All the high schools of a coordinating group would necessarily compose a unit for purposes of general administration and financial support. The transportation of the pupils from the smaller schools offering but part of the high-school course to the central high school for the last two or three years of their work would need to be provided for at the expense of the cooperating districts or by the county. Otherwise many pupils in the smaller schools, for one cause or another, would be unable to complete their high-school course.

A study of the effect of distance from high school upon attendance for certain counties in New York State showed the importance of transportation facilities for country children, especially from the standpoint of high-school education. It also showed that distance was decidedly a factor in determining whether or not boys would attend high school. To quote:

> It is evident that in the zone in which pupils live and maintain daily contacts with their homes, the proportion of boys is approximately the same as that of

girls. In the zone outside of this, however, the percentage of boys is relatively small.

From these data the following conclusions may be drawn:

(1) That the high schools do not attract the boys to as great an extent as the girls, in the zone within which pupils may travel back and forth daily, as is shown by the fact that the number of boys living in those zones and not attending high school is appreciably greater than is the case with the girls.

(2) That the number of boys and girls attending high school from within the 4-mile radius is approximately the same. The variation is not great enough to be significant.

(3) When the distance is greater than 4 miles, the decline in the proportion of boys is so marked as to be significant. * * *

It is evident that if young people from the farms are generally to receive high-school education it must be reasonably accessible. This apparently means that the high schools should be near enough at hand so that most young people may live at home and attend them.[72]

The conclusions of the foregoing study would indicate the necessity of providing transportation facilities for all pupils attending the central high school from the coordinating schools.

The problem of making possible for the principal a better distribution of time for the performance of his various duties can be solved through the means suggested for the improvement of the teaching load. In addition, the principal should be relieved of some of his teaching load and a major part of the clerical work he now does. From the standpoint of the efficiency of the school system the principal should have a clerk for at least half time. This should result in better administration and also in more adequate school records, a pressing need in a large percentage of the rural and semirural high schools.

The problem of adequate supervision and encouragement of professional growth of high-school teachers in the small high schools is a serious one. It would be solved in part by relieving the principal of a large part of his clerical work, thus giving him more time for supervision and the analysis of the work of his school. More adequate training of principals in supervision is also desirable. In some sections of the country better supervision would be made possible by the centralization of high-school work, resulting in larger high schools and a better differentiation in the work of the principal.

Where centralization is not feasible, a supervising principal for a group of neighboring small high schools could be employed. He should do little or no teaching, should act as principal of one of the larger schools, and be responsible for the supervision of instruction in the other schools of the group. Where the county is the school unit, a supervisor of high-school teaching might serve a county. In

[72] The rural school survey of New York State. Administration and supervision. By C. H. Judd and others. Part VI. The Community Unit, by George A. Works. pp. 556-559.

schools where none of the plans suggested above are practicable, the amount of teaching done by the principal should be limited to such number of periods as will give him a definite amount of time for supervisory work.

As an additional means of encouraging the professional growth of teachers there should be meetings of the high-school teachers of a county or such grouping of high schools as means of transportation and distance make practicable. Such meetings should be devoted to the consideration of the problems of high-school teaching and of secondary education. They should encourage the study of such problems through reports by teachers, and through reading and discussions stimulate each teacher to professional improvement. In some States it would seem that such meetings might well take the place in part of the general teachers' institutes.

There is need in the small high schools of educational and vocational guidance of pupils. While this is a problem as yet largely unsolved in all high schools, much can be done. In the rural and semirural high schools a course in occupations might well be offered in the beginning year and bulletins and books on vocations made available to pupils in the school library. The occupations represented in the community and neighboring communities could be made familiar to the pupils through observational trips. Vocational bearings of many of the subjects in the program of studies could be pointed out to pupils throughout the year. One teacher might act as counselor for the boys and another for the girls of the school. These counselors should have on file the announcements and catalogues of the colleges and universities attended by graduates from the school, and pupils planning to continue their education should be encouraged and guided in planning their high-school work with reference to their plans for the future. Parents should also be consulted and records made of the pupil in high school, his interests, abilities, etc. In fact, all possible data on the pupil should be made use of by the adviser.

In many schools but little attention is given to extra classroom activities. It is quite generally agreed by authorities on secondary education that such activities are essential in high schools. Among other uses, they are a valuable means of vitalizing high-school work and of improving the spirit of the school. They have distinct guidance values. They afford direct training in citizenship and in avocational pursuits such as can not be obtained in the regular curriculums of the small high schools.

Two types of extra classroom activities are desirable in high schools: (1) Those combining educational and social aims, with the educational predominant, such as literary societies, dramatic clubs, debating societies or forums, glee clubs, orchestras, school paper,

science clubs, agricultural clubs, etc.; (2) those mainly social, such as school and class parties.

1. In general, each teacher should be responsible for the oversight and direction of at least one extra classroom activity.

2. All pupil organizations should be open to all pupils (with the exception of positions on the staff of the school paper, class organizations, and honor society).

3. Each pupil should be encouraged to identify himself with at least one regular activity.

4. Membership in such organizations should automatically cease when school membership ceases.

5. Where possible, the meetings of such organizations should be in the school building and during the regular school day. (Athletics and social functions are exceptions which should ordinarily come out of school hours and on Friday or Saturday.)

6. No pupil who is not doing satisfactory work in at least 12 periods a week should be eligible to hold office in a pupil organization or participate in interschool athletic contests.

7. No pupil should be eligible as president of more than one organization at one time.

8. Every organization, whether regular or special, should have a faculty adviser who should be present at all meetings of the club and of its executive committee.

9. The executive committee of each club may be composed of its president, secretary, treasurer, and one member elected at large.

10. The president of each organization may by virtue of his office become a member of the principal's council.

The points suggested above indicate in general an organization of the classroom activities in a high school. The local principal should use such a set of regulations and rules as best suit the conditions of his school. Some principals make much use of the student council, as suggested above, for general control of the extra classroom activities and as his lieutenants in promoting the work of the school. The important thing about pupil activities is that the pupils be responsible for them but always under the counsel and guidance of a member of the faculty.

The small high school with three teachers, one being the principal, can offer during any one year 16 units of work. A school with four teachers can offer 22 units. In each case this estimate is based on the assumption that the principal teaches four periods a day and the assistants each six. By a system of alternation of subjects, the offering of the three-teacher school may be increased to 22 or 24 units a year and that of the four-teacher school ordinarily to 28 or 30. The larger the school the less is the possibility of alternation. Under the most ideal conditions with regard to program organization

each instructor would be required to teach the subjects in at least two major subject-matter fields. Organized on a 60-minute period with supervised study, especially desirable for rural high schools where facilities and time for home study on the part of many pupils are limited, the smaller school could offer from 14 to 20 units and the larger school from 18 to 26 units.

If such schools, representative as they seem to be of rural and semirural high schools giving four years of high-school work, are to meet the varying needs of the pupils enrolled in the average high school, the selection of subjects and the organization of curriculums must be carefully planned. The most common practice to-day, according to all data at hand, is to make the college entrance subjects the core of the work given in the small high school. This has been done in the face of the fact that only about 35 to 40 per cent of those who enter the high school are graduated and that only 17 to 20 per cent enter higher institutions of learning of any description. A phase of this practice of making the college preparatory subjects the constants in the work of the small high school is the placing of these required subjects, such as mathematics, foreign language, ancient and medieval history, mainly in the first two years of the course. The result has been that the subjects required of the many have been those particularly suited to the needs of the few, and the subjects available to the few in the last two years have been those of most value in meeting the needs of the many.

That there is a growing consciousness on the part of principals of a need for a different organization of curriculums to meet more adequately the ever-widening demands of the increasing numbers of high-school pupils and modern life is evidenced in certain subjects now being offered in the early years of the rural and semirural high-school curriculums. That State departments of education are also aware of this need is indicated by such statements as the following:

"The purpose of this department is to encourage and make possible a high school in every community, with a course of study which has the highest degree of flexibility and adaptation to local needs and conditions." (Course of Study, Missouri High Schools, 1919, p. 3.)

"The primary purpose of the high school is to provide for the educational needs of the community in which it is located." (Mississippi High Schools, 1922, p. 11.)

"The high school has ceased to be as pronounced a selective institution as formerly. The tendency is to make the high school a school for the children of all the people. * * * We are not seeking to develop an intellectual aristocracy but an intellectual democracy.

"Allied with this change has arisen the necessity for the high schools to accept the function of providing for the needs of the constantly increasing numbers of pupils who do not finish the high-school course. * * * Finally, in deciding upon the legitimate content of a secondary curriculum, it is considered the high school's first duty to provide training in fields of knowledge or skill which are

directly valuable for all or for a majority of individuals." (Ohio High School Standards, 1923, Revision, pp. 9–10.)

"The high school course of study should be in vital contact with the environment and life interests of boys and girls." (Approved Graded and High Schools, The State of Iowa, 1921, p. 41.)

"The high school must cease to attempt to mold all pupils after one pattern." (Utah Course of Study for the Secondary Schools, 1918, p. 63.)

While such statements of theory as the foregoing give a hopeful coloring to the future they can not ever, perhaps, be fully realized in small rural and semirural high schools and especially under the existing practices of determining the constant or required subjects. The adoption of such a core of subjects for small high schools has been defended as a means of standardization which can only be gained it would seem, by setting up the same standards for teachers, equipment, and supervision for the small high school as exist for the large urban high schools. From the standpoint of equal educational opportunities for rural pupils, it has likewise been worse than futile, since it has resulted in giving all the same opportunities, a thing which has made them as unequal as it was possible to make them. The work of the small high school needs to be organized in the light of better defined educational objectives than it is at the present time.

To some degree the curriculum offerings of the small high school may be improved by alternation of subjects in so far as this increases the number and variety of subjects in the school's program. They may be improved in a more fundamental way by organizing the school on the six-six plan or some modification of that plan. By the six-six plan the first three years can be arranged as a cycle of work, with no regard to college entrance requirements, and with much attention to guidance and breadth of educational contacts through subjects largely required but with some opportunity for exploration and prevocational work, and with subject matter intimately related to present-day life, particularly the life of the community. The second cycle, or the last three years of work, can then be organized with as many curriculums as the size of the school and its teaching staff will permit. One of these curriculums can be organized to meet the needs of those planning to continue their education, and the others to meet the demands of those not going beyond the high school.

A third plan for improving the offerings of the rural and semirural high schools of a county or practicable school unit requires the cooperation of a group of neighboring high schools. According to this plan each school would emphasize in its program a curriculum not given in the programs of the other schools, at least for all four years, and pupils desiring a particular type of high school training would be sent for the last two or three years to the school offering the training desired. Thus one school of the group might feature the college preparatory curriculum, a second school vocational agriculture, a

third commercial work, etc. By this plan of cooperation the high-school opportunities of the district included would be materially increased.

Without doubt the policy of making a high-school accessible to every boy and girl of high-school age should be continued. The improvement of roads and means of transportation, however, has made it possible for pupils, particularly the older pupils, to travel greater distances to attend high school, provided adequate transportation facilities are supplied, and provided by doing so they may enjoy better educational advantages. It seems probable that too many extremely small, weak high schools have been stimulated to offer three or four years of high-school work where the most they could do effectively would be three or four years beginning with the seventh grade. It would seem to be more economical both for the pupil and the community concerned, at least in many sections of the country, to develop a number of three or four year junior high schools, with a centrally located high school giving a complete high-school course. This would make possible for such a district a strong high school with facilities for doing high-school work of a superior quality and varied in nature. Such a plan would require a larger unit of high-school support and in many cases a larger proportion of State aid, both long needed. It would also require adequate transportation facilities for pupils attending the central high school from the outlying schools. Some rural communities have already been organized after this fashion, specific examples being the Mount Vernon Union High School, at Mount Vernon, Wash., with 492 high-school pupils; and the Shawnee-Mission High School, of Kansas, which is a centralization of six different high-school districts.

One or more of the plans suggested, if put into operation, would improve the curriculum offerings by an expansion of the program, by better instruction, or both. They are all necessary if opportunities for training in rural and semirural schools are even to approach those afforded urban boys and girls by their large high schools with the many and varied curriculums offered. They are but administrative devices, however, and are not fundamental as means of curriculum improvement. A genuine improvement in the curriculums of the rural and semirural high school can come only as a result of a different curriculum organization than that existing at the present time in the majority of such schools. This organization must be made in the light of well-defined educational objectives.

It is, perhaps, impossible at the present stage in curriculum building to make any definite statements as to what the curriculums of the rural and semirural school should contain. It does seem safe to assume, however, that the content of such curriculums should be

constantly changing as the demands of life change and as the science of curriculum building is gradually perfected. It seems sound, also, to start with the principle that the rural high school is a social institution maintained and supported in large part to meet the educational needs of the community. Its ultimate objectives should be those of all high schools whether rural or urban. Many of its specific objectives, on the other hand, should undoubtedly be determined through an analysis of the lack of certain educational factors in the environment of the community and through the study of the experience background and vocational activities peculiar to the community.

The curriculum should meet the needs of the pupil, the community, and the Nation. These needs should be determined on the basis of the demands upon the individual in his participation in the activities of modern life, with reference to the habits, abilities, knowledge, attitudes, and ideals required. Briefly stated, these demands are probably to be found in an analysis of the health, economic, vocational, civic, social, intellectual, recreational, and esthetic activities of to-day with the moral-ethical habits, attitudes, and ideals considered as desirable in connection with them. To meet these demands in its educational activities the small high school, it would seem, should orientate its work in the direction of such objectives as the following:

1. Promotion of normal physical development.
2. Guidance toward a worthy life work and selection of high-school work in harmony with choice made.
3. Vocational training for those not going beyond the high school.
4. The development in each pupil of a sense of responsibility as a member of society and of a democracy.
5. Training in intelligent participation in promoting the welfare of society (service).
6. Training in desirable forms of avocational and recreational pursuits.
7. The development of some permanent interests, appreciations, habits, and desires for continued growth.
8. The development of a rational attitude toward life's problems.
9. Training, in so far as the age of secondary pupils makes desirable, to meet intelligently the responsibilities of home life and parenthood.
10. Training in relation to all the work of the school in moral-ethical habits, attitudes, and ideals.
11. Preparation of those pupils who so desire to enter higher institutions of learning.

A change in the constants in the curriculums of rural and semirural high schools is to be desired. The constants should not be those subjects ordinarily required for college entrance, but rather those subjects possessing greatest values for the citizen of a community in the United States. They should be those subjects, or, speaking more accurately, that subject matter of greatest value to all, as shown by an analysis of the demands made upon the individual by the everyday activities of present-day life.

On this basis the constant subjects, those required of all pupils of a four-year high school, would be some such group as the following: English, community civics, general science, American history and government, economics and sociology, physical education and health, and extraclassroom activities.

The Indiana Educational Commission has suggested as the required subjects for the high schools of Indiana the following:

"First year—English, civics, general science, and physical education; second year—English, general history, and physical education; third year—English, American history, and physical education; Fourth year—English, economics, government, and physical education." [24]

With a reorganization of constants on the basis suggested, rural and semirural high schools would have an opportunity to develop two or more curriculums to meet the needs of the major groups of pupils enrolled. These curriculums should be developed in accord with the principles that (*a*) the public high school, in so far as size of teaching staff and resources make possible, should meet the dominant educational needs of the community; (*b*) it should offer opportunity for the development of the major interests and the promotion of the life purposes, vocational, etc., of each pupil; and (*c*) it should give each pupil training in certain constant studies, considered as being of such value to the American citizen as to justify their requirement of each pupil doing high-school work.

The two curriculums following are suggested as examples for a four-year high school of an organization such as outlined:

[24] Public Education in Indiana, p. 107.

I. Curriculum with Major Interest in Science

	Constants	Core subjects in science	Electives
First year.	English. Community civics and occupations. General science. Physical education and health. Extraclass activities.	Algebra or General mathematics.	Foreign language. Shop work or manual arts. Freehand drawing. Home economics. Agriculture.
Second year.	English. Physical education and health. Extraclass activities.	Biology. Algebra or Plane geometry.	Foreign language. World history or modern European history. Agriculture. Home economics.
Third year.	English. American history and government. Physical education. Extraclass activities.	Physics or Chemistry.	Foreign language. Arithmetic or advanced mathematics. Commercial subject.
Fourth year.	Economics and sociology. Physical education.	Chemistry or Physics.	English. Commercial and industrial geography. Foreign language. Advanced mathematics. Commercial subject.

Note.—At least three units of science will be required of pupils pursuing the work of this curriculum.

II. Curriculum with Major Interest in Vocational Subjects

	Constants	Core in vocational subjects	Electives
First year.	Same as in I.	Agriculture or Home economics.	Freehand drawing. General mathematics.
Second year.	Same as in I.	Agriculture or Home economics.	Biology. Freehand drawing. General mathematics or algebra. Modern European history. Foreign language.
Third year.	Same as in I.	Agriculture or Home economics.	Physics or chemistry. Plane geometry or arithmetic. World history. Foreign language.
Fourth year.	Same as in I.	Agriculture or Home economics.	Physics or chemistry. Commercial and industrial geography. Advanced mathematics. Commercial subject. Foreign language. English.

Note.—At least three units in vocational work will be required of pupils pursuing the curriculum in vocational subjects. A pupil planning to enter an agricultural college or school of home making should choose his electives with the requirements of those institutions in mind.

In schools where facilities are not such as to make possible differentiated curriculums, each pupil may be permitted to make his own curriculum within the limits of the school's program. On this basis any pupil who has done the required work in the constant subjects, and in addition three units of work in one subject-matter field, such as science, or language, and two units in a second, and has enough electives to make the 15 or 16 units required, should be graduated.

Such a plan would give the maximum of flexibility in the work of the small high school and would at the same time insure sufficient breadth in the training of each pupil. It is important that all curriculums offered in a high school should have equal dignity. A certain standard of work in one curriculum should carry as much honor as a similar standard of work maintained in any other curriculum in the school.