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CONSTRUCTIVE TENDENCIES IN RURAL EDUCATION

By

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[Advance sheets from the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1922–1924]

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CONSTRUCTIVE TENDENCIES IN RURAL EDUCATION

By KATHERINE M. COOK,

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INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

The most conspicuous and pertinent tendency in rural education in the biennium is that toward better understanding of and intelligent accomplishment in the direction of more equitable distribution of school opportunities and school expense burdens. Rural education is still the weak spot in the American educational system. Equality of educational opportunity has in the past been the principle about which lay the most of discussion and the least of action. Ideals are ever in advance of accomplishment. It is therefore notable that the passing of this biennium marks a decided tendency toward complete emergence of rural education from the realm of sentimental oratory and general promotion to that of statesmanship and professional achievement.

Professional achievement is manifest in the growing number of research studies in rural-school administration and practice and conditions concerned with rural children. Among the important investigations made during the biennium worthy of special mention are the State survey of Texas; a state-wide study of conditions and needs in Pennsylvania, including rural-teacher training, rural high schools, etc., undertaken by specialists within and without the State, and contemplating changes in school legislation; an investigation of public education in Missouri; a study of the measurement of educational need as a basis of distributing State aid in New York; a number of research studies of conditions of children in two rural townships in Iowa, conducted by the University of Iowa; and an investigation for the formulation of a State elementary course of study now in progress in California, financed in part by the Commonwealth fund. These examples indicate a new professional attitude affecting rural schools in an increasing number of States. State-

wide testing programs through the use of intelligence and standard achievement tests are reported from Nevada, Maryland, Connecticut, Louisiana, and Montana under the direction of State departments.

A full discussion of the question of the equable distribution of school facilities in the United States would involve a lengthy treatment of many phases of the subject. This chapter can give but a brief résumé of tendencies in rural education. Details of accomplishment in 48 States, if attempt were made to enumerate them, would confuse rather than enlighten. For this reason it is believed that to select from among the accumulation of testimony certain outstanding and representative lines of achievement as indicative of the trend of accomplishment, rather than to attempt a complete account for each State, will be as enlightening as possible, with the time and space limitations necessary. A brief résumé of the most important movements in certain arbitrarily selected but significant fields of rural education follows.

TENDENCIES TO EQUITABLE SCHOOL SUPPORT

Among the factors upon which equalization of opportunity is based financial support looms large. We are committed to a program of full elementary and secondary education as the minimum to be offered to all children regardless of place of living. Basic to the carrying out of this conception is an equitable distribution among taxing units of school-tax burdens according to ability and of educational facilities for children within the responsible unit, namely, the State. Upon recognition of these truths rests the fate of rural education. The biennium has added to the general knowledge of the inadequacy of present sources of support and of inequitable methods of distribution. Several important studies of educational conditions State-wide in scope, as in Texas, Missouri, and West Virginia; county and township surveys, as in Michigan and South Carolina, have been made or are in progress, which have emphasized weaknesses in the financing systems of the States concerned and have called general attention to them in others. Several volumes have been added to the series of studies presented by the educational finance inquiry commission, and other important studies of State-school financing of major interest have been made during the period. These are among the factors which have resulted in an increased realization of the inadequacy of present sources for securing money for the support of schools and of the unsatisfactory methods still prevalent in the distribution of funds, leading to renewed serious and widespread efforts on the part of several States to replace them. Marked effort to discover sources of income not yet tapped for school support has been made as it became more fully realized that property tax is neither adequate nor reasonable as the sole source of support.

In all such efforts the rural schools are those in which the greatest need exists, and therefore the chief beneficiaries from careful and serious study and consideration.

Two distinct tendencies are apparent, the first toward increasing school revenues from new and old State sources; the second toward better methods in the distribution of State funds designed primarily to equalize tax burdens and educational opportunity, and at the same time encourage local effort and initiative. In some States in which increased revenue has been secured new sources of income, such as adoption of a severance tax, as in Arkansas, have been found, and the amount so raised distributed either on the regular basis in vogue or a new and more nearly equalizing one. In other cases some form of equalization fund has been secured from old sources increased in amount and distributed among units within the State on the basis of need. In others, increased State contributions or subventions to aid specific school functions or activities or school buildings or equipment have been provided.

In most cases States which succeed in securing increased funds inaugurate at the same time better methods of distribution. Indeed, an equalizing fund is not properly so named unless the appropriation secured is properly distributed. States which contribute from State sources a large percentage of the total support generally purpose and necessarily achieve some approach to equalization, though unwise methods of distribution of State moneys tend to nullify that purpose. In some States securing increased funds has been possible without at the same time securing scientific methods of distribution, generally due to difficulty in changing constitutional provisions. The tendency, however, has been to secure both. Illinois is an example. During the year 1923 the State appropriation for schools was increased very considerably. At the same time a law was passed discontinuing the per capita method of distribution and apportioning funds on a more nearly equalizing basis. Certain questions concerning the constitutionality of this act delayed putting the improved method of distribution into effect until 1924. The full purpose of the new law was not, therefore, realized until that year.

In Massachusetts and Maryland increased funds were appropriated from State sources and scientific methods of distribution adopted during the biennial periods. A brief description of the plans followed in each of them is given as illustrative of good practice. Until about 1919 Massachusetts depended almost wholly on local funds for the support of her schools. Since then the State has contributed increasing amounts year by year. Data for 1924, as reported from this State, show the equalizing effect of a relatively small percentage of total expenditure from State funds if distribution is made on a scientific basis. The Massachusetts general school

fund law was designed to equalize local school expenditures between larger and smaller towns and to increase teachers' salaries, thereby encouraging the employment of trained teachers. This fund is distributed to towns whose valuation is less than a fixed minimum and whose expenditure exceeds a fixed tax rate. The amount varies directly as the local tax and inversely as the valuation. According to a statement from a State department of education, the amount of this appropriation so distributed in 1923 was $4,782,644, exceeding that of 1922 by about $45,000, the total amount averaging approximately 10 per cent of the total school expenditure of the towns to which it was distributed. The percentage of this State fund varies among towns from 8 to 30 per cent of the total per capita expenditure. The local per capita tax revenue without equalization varies from $57 to $74 (in round numbers); the amount of State aid per capita from $6.47 to $24.50, while the total expenditure varies among these towns from $74 to $81 (in round numbers) per capita. The State, by paying an average of 9.8 per cent of the total per capita expenditure, reduces a discrepancy among towns from approximately $17 as between those of lowest and highest valuation groups without supplementation by State funds, to $7.93 so supplemented, with the poorest towns in the highest expenditure group.

STATE PROGRAM IN MARYLAND

During the biennial period just closed Maryland has put into operation a system of State financial participation in school support, the chief characteristics of which are: (1) Increased State school budget; (2) provision of equalizing fund and its distribution on a scientific basis. Provisions of distribution of the fund are: (*a*) Basis of need, thereby supplying sufficient State funds to 15 counties to enable them to maintain standards; (*b*) State assumes two-thirds of the cost of state-wide plan of supervision; (*c*) State pays one full-time attendance officer in each county; (3) increased State subventions mainly for the purpose of providing special aid to high schools, for training teachers in service, and for free textbooks.

Maryland's budget for school purposes for 1923 represented an increase of approximately 26 per cent over that provided for the preceding year. Of this increase the largest item was that providing for an equalizing fund. This was distributed to 15 counties, which, having levied the regular 67 cent county tax rate prescribed by statute, were still unable to carry out standards set by the State for higher salaries and better prepared teachers. This type of equalization is augmented in its results by another State subsidy providing for the payment from State funds of two-thirds of the salaries of officers for supervising instruction in all counties. For this purpose

a new salary schedule increasing the minimum salaries was provided by legislative action in 1922. Besides paying two-thirds of the salaries of supervisors, the State pays the entire salary up to $1,200 of one attendance officer in each county. These three provisions are all equalizing measures in their nature and effect.

The State school budget provided also a fund of $12,000 for training teachers in service in their home communities. State aid to approved high schools was increased 50 per cent, and State appropriations for free textbooks 33⅓ per cent at the same legislative session.

COURT DECISION AFFECTING EQUALIZATION FUND IN OKLAHOMA

An unusual and significant opinion was handed down by the Supreme Court of Oklahoma on September 9, 1924, upholding the validity of an act appropriating an equalization fund of $650,000 designed to aid in paying teachers' salaries in districts which, having levied the constitutional limit of local school tax, could not maintain school for an eight months' term. The constitution of Oklahoma limits the local district tax for school purposes to 15 mills. Many districts with low assessed valuation are unable, with the maximum of levy and the apportionment from State sources, to support a term of eight or nine months of school. The appropriation was made to assist such districts. In handing down its decision the court held that the burden of education rests on the State, and that an appropriation of the kind indicated is part of the fulfillment of the State's obligation to maintain a system of public schools; that responsibility for a State system implies some degree of uniformity and equality of opportunity. A special session of the legislature in Oklahoma, held in 1923, provided for a State fund amounting to $15 per capita for children of school age. This act was, however, declared unconstitutional.

PROGRESS OF CERTAIN STATES IN SCHOOL SUPPORT

The following is a brief summary of achievements in the direction of more State support or better methods of distribution of State funds:

Arkansas.—Trebled State support through income, severance, cigarette tax laws, and pistol regulation law, effective 1924.

Delaware.—Special State aid granted for paying all transportation charges; $100,000 for 1923, and $105,000 for 1924. Supplementary law permits all districts to bond themselves.

Florida.—Change in constitution which has resulted in substantial increase for a large number of rural schools through State, county, and local funds.

Illinois.—In 1923 eliminated apportionment of State school funds on census basis. Provided for apportionment which considers "teacher-school-day"; pupil attendance; assessed valuation of property; bonus for teachers in one-room schools. Also increased fund.

Indiana.—State tax, 7 cents on every $100 and 50 cents poll tax for common-school fund; 70 per cent of this fund for teachers' salaries; 30 per cent becomes a relief fund for maintaining elementary schools for term of eight months and for certified or commissioned high schools for minimum required term. This is apportioned to counties which levy a tax of $1 on $100 taxable property and 25 cents poll tax and still have not enough money to run the schools for the required length of term. It may be used either for payment of salaries of teachers or for current operating expenses necessary to lengthen the term.

Kentucky.—A number of counties increased their levy to reach the maximum, i. e., 50 cents on $100. Legislature authorized presentation of State bond issue of seventy-five millions, of which five millions were designed for rural schools. Defeated by popular vote.

Maine.—During the biennium a State school fund to aid rural schools has been placed in operation. Used at the discretion of the State superintendent as an equalizing fund to aid in teachers' salaries, buildings and equipment, and consolidation, as well as to stimulate special progressive educational movements.

Maryland.—First distribution of State equalization fund to counties unable to meet standards, with county school tax levy of 67 cents. Amount was $234,733 in 1923 and $255,447 in 1924. State aid toward salaries of administrative and supervisory officers and high-school aid increased about 50 per cent over that of 1922. County superintendents' salaries increased materially during the biennium.

Massachusetts.—About $70,300 added to State fund distributed in biennium over that of 1921 and 1922. This amount to approximate 10 per cent of total expenditure distributed on inverse ratio to tax valuation.

Michigan.—State aid of $200 to each school maintaining nine months' term when cost of seven months' schools is $12 or more per thousand of assessed valuation.

Oklahoma—Equalizing fund provided to pay teachers in certain poor districts.

Pennsylvania.—Legislation of 1923 increased State aid for teachers' salaries to districts of low valuation, and for transportation.

Rhode Island.—Aid for high school increased $10 per pupil. Maximum State support for supervision increased from $750 to $1,000 per district. Equalizing fund apportioned at discretion of State board of education and State aid distributed on equalizing basis.

South Carolina.—Increase in county and State support for schools, $2,000,000. Guarantees seven months' school by supplying State funds when deficiency occurs after fixed tax rate is reached by counties and districts.

Tennessee.—State aid to standard and consolidated schools increased in amount.

Virginia.—In year ending 1923, one-third total number of counties assessed the maximum rate. Year ending 1924, one-half the counties assessed maximum rate. State aid to rural school libraries increased. One thousand aided.

Wyoming.—State oil royalty for schools. Distribution considers among other things length of term and aid to transportation.

Indiana, West Virginia, Mississippi, Texas, Tennessee, Wisconsin, and Missouri are among the States whose State departments of education have promoted large State legislative programs involving State support in some measure during the biennial period. In a few of these States recent educational surveys are made the basis of the program. As an illustration of the type of activities or provisions promulgated in these programs the following from the educational program of Texas and from the State superintendent's program from Tennessee are presented:

The Texas educational program advocates 15 points, of which the most important are those providing for a nonpartisan State board of education which shall appoint the State superintendent, enacting a modified county unit law providing for the employment of the county superintendent by the county board, providing for a county tax, amending the teacher certification law, increasing State school funds, amending the attendance law, and providing for a minimum term of six months.

The Tennessee educational program includes 11 points, not all of which require legislative action. The most important are as follows: Improved county administration; a minimum eight months' school term; revision of the elementary course of study; changes in the requirements for licensing county superintendents and teachers, salary scale to be included; equality of educational opportunity for all children, including State equalization funds; and a State school architect.

AN IMPORTANT EQUALIZING TENDENCY—IMPROVEMENT OF THE TEACHING STAFF

Progress toward improvement in rural teaching service during the biennium has been characterized chiefly by two definitely constructive achievements: (1) Substantial rise in minimum qualifications demanded for teaching certificates; and (2) increased and

improved facilities for training rural teachers through the establishment of departments of rural education or the offering of special courses for rural teachers in teacher-preparing institutions, particularly State normal schools and teachers colleges. This has been accompanied by the introduction of special courses for rural administrators and supervisors in these and other higher institutions of learning. There has been wider recognition of the necessity of setting up state-wide, reasonable minimum standards for certificates acceptable in any type of school, even the lowest as to salary and other standards, and of the fact that different standards for teachers in urban and rural schools are unjustifiable as a permanent policy and indefensible except as a temporary expedient to tide over an interval until equivalent standards can be put into operation.

LEGAL PROVISIONS FOR CERTIFICATING TEACHERS

The result of these measures is that certification laws are being revised or replaced by new and improved provisions Among the replacing provisions, the following tendencies are noticeable: (*a*) Toward complete centralization of the certificating authority in the State department of education. (*b*) Raising standards gradually to prevent radical shortage of teachers, to give teachers in service the opportunity to prepare for higher certificates without abandoning their teaching positions, and to sound by a time limitation sufficient warning to prospective candidates for teaching certificates to make the necessary preparation. (*c*) Setting up minimum standards or prerequisites for the lowest grade certificate and requiring gradually increasing amounts of professional training—each year more nearly approximating the goal usually set forth in the law itself or State department regulations of graduation from a standard normal school as a minimum prerequisite. (*d*) Elimination of one or two classes of low-grade certificates. (*e*) Ultimate elimination of examination as a basis for issuing teaching certificates.

Leading the procession in the effort to establish minimum credentials equivalent to graduation from a State normal school are Washington and Connecticut which, during the biennial period just passed, enacted laws providing for the accomplishment of that goal in 1927; Pennsylvania, which had previously set the same year for the accomplishing of the same standard; and California which, according to reports from the State department, has established the requirement of two and one-half years beyond high-school graduation and has set the standard of three years to be reached gradually but at no definitely stated date.[2]

[2] California still issues county certificates on examination. The percentage granted on examination is small.

Following the principle enunciated in the laws and practices in the foregoing States are the States in another group which have now attained a standard of one year (36 weeks) of professional training above high school, but have set no definite date for attainment of the higher standard, though the apparent hope of officials in charge is that they shall later do so. Indiana is an example. The law passed in 1923 raised qualifications for certificates of all kinds and set up as a minimum prerequisite for the lowest grade of certificate high-school graduation and 36 weeks of professional training in addition, the latter to be obtained in a standard or approved normal-school course. To procure the rural teachers' license a candidate must also have specialized in the work of the one-teacher school. Other States which report having reached an equivalent standard of attainment or have laws setting a definite date for attaining it are: Michigan, to be attained in September, 1925; New Hampshire, effective July, 1923; Oregon, effective January, 1925; Utah, effective July, 1924. In Utah the law also provides that the one year above high-school training required shall include specified educational subjects.

As a means of raising standards a few States abandoned the practice of issuing lower (usually third grade) certificates. Among these are New Mexico, which reports having raised requirements for all certificates, increased salaries, and abolished the third-grade certificate through the law passed in 1923; Kansas, Virginia, and Tennessee, all of which have abolished their lowest grade of certificate during the biennial period. Maryland is raising standards by a salary scale which offers increases in salaries of teachers holding a second-grade certificate (representing high-school graduation and six weeks of professional training in addition), and those of higher grades, but providing no increase for teachers with third-grade certificates. In addition, renewals are difficult to obtain. Thus, continuation of teaching on third-grade certificates is penalized.

Alabama reports the basis of certification changed from examination to professional training. Kentucky reports "a new certification law looking toward the issue of certificates on credentials only." Several States report that the number of certificates issued on examination is decreasing. Washington, for example, reports a decrease in the number of such certificates of 44 per cent in 10 years. Several other States, notably New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Maryland, and Michigan, report decreases in the number of low-grade certificates issued.

Other States reporting increased requirements during the biennium are: Minnesota increased minimum prerequisite, effective Septem-

ber, 1924, to four years of high-school training; Montana the same prerequisite, effective the same date. Nebraska, in 1923, enacted a law raising the requirements to completion of the eleventh grade as prerequisite for the lowest grade of certificate, effective September, 1924; and completion of the twelfth grade as a minimum for the lowest grade certificate, effective September, 1925. Vermont reports a minimum of completion of four years of high school, effective September, 1924. In Rhode Island the State board is systematically raising the minimum requirements for teaching certificates. Florida reports increased requirements without definite statement as to the exact prerequisite. Arkansas and Utah have recently enacted laws requiring higher qualifications, including special training in administration and supervision for county and other rural-school superintendents and supervisors. Practically all new laws center responsibility for certificates in the State department or with State officials, thus abandoning the policy of county or local control.

The importance to the cause of rural education of prerequisites for teaching certificates which include minimum standards for academic and professional training should not be overlooked. Excellent as is the practice of raising the standards for certificates of higher grades and of giving more and more consideration to professional training and to specialization in training courses, attainments of this character do not reach the crux of the situation, namely, the prevalence of unqualified teachers in the small, one-room rural schools. These schools can be reached only when the State actually enforces as a minimum prerequisite standards equivalent to high-school graduation and some professional preparation of higher grade. Urban communities whose schools are in charge of professional superintendents have formed the practice of looking about and bidding for teachers professionally qualified. Rural school board members, mainly responsible for the employment of rural teachers, have the layman's point of view and too often fail to discriminate among the different grades of certificates and as to the educational attainments to which they testify. In the large, the best safeguard for rural children is a State law exacting as a minimum for any certificate high-school graduation and additional professional training two years in duration. This standard may be approached gradually. The experience of several States indicates that this method of dealing with the problem of raising certification requirements does not result in a shortage of teachers nor impose an undue hardship upon the teaching staff.

Centralizing the certificating authority in the State department of education is of equal importance to the efficiency of rural schools.

It assists in preventing inbreeding of ideas and dominance of local considerations in the employment of teachers. The examination method, while it exists, will continue to be the short cut to teaching positions used by those who have not the inclination or the ability to take the more arduous and expensive course of securing professional training in higher institutions of learning and securing certificates through credentials rather than by examination.

THE PREPARATION OF RURAL TEACHERS

States raising the requirements for teaching certificates to the extent of demanding professional training must logically accompany the demand with the provision of adequate facilities for offering training courses either in State teacher-preparing institutions of higher grade or those connected with secondary schools, as in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Ohio. The movement for offering specialized courses or establishing special departments for training rural teachers is growing, paralleling a movement for specialized training for other groups, such as kindergarten-primary, elementary, intermediate, junior high school, and the like. It is becoming more and more recognized that the special problems involved in the administration, supervision, and teaching of rural schools demand similar specialization. Certification laws demanding higher qualifications and specialized courses for rural teachers, supervisors, and administrators have led also to higher entrance requirements to rural curricula. Such requirements are now well established in all but a few of the teacher-preparing institutions of higher grade. Rural teacher curricula have been organized and placed on the professional level, requiring for completion from one to five years above high-school graduation. Departments of rural education,[8] meaning generally those having one or more full professors devoting full time to this field, have been established in nearly 40 teacher-preparing institutions. Differentiated curricula for teachers specializing as rural teachers are offered in a constantly increasing number of institutions, and special certificates for rural teachers are required or recognized in several States.

One hundred and twenty-two State normal schools and teachers colleges now offer 257 courses in rural education. Practically all teacher-preparing institutions assist in supplying the demand for rural teachers through their regularly established courses. Many institutions supplement the regular courses with rural sociology,

[8] No uniform definition of this term is established. The terminology used in announcements or catalogs is accepted in this chapter.

rural economics, and other courses pertaining to rural life, thus offering partially differentiated preparation for teaching in rural communities. A few institutions have established the practice of requiring as a constant from all students at least one general course in rural education.

Among the problems that teacher-training institutions must meet in preparing teachers for rural schools, provision for observation and practice looms large. A number of institutions have affiliated groups of one-teacher rural schools, often in several counties adjacent to the institution, as well as one or more consolidated schools which are used for the purpose indicated. Critic teachers, and in most cases administrative officers in charge, are regular members of the faculty of the institution, receiving salaries equivalent to those paid the other members. Courses are generally so arranged that students in the rural department are enabled to spend full time at their schools during the observation and practice period.

The enrollment of rural teachers has been no small factor in the remarkable growth in attendance in summer schools and extension courses. A few States which have passed certification laws, in which higher qualifications are made effective gradually, depend on summer schools, especially those on the quarter basis, as a means of enabling teachers in service to reach the advanced standards. The form of in-service preparation is supplemented in some States by reading and correspondence courses conducted by State departments of education. Alabama reports 86 per cent of the teachers in the State doing professional study during 1923–24; 40 per cent of these receive State credit for their work. Wyoming reports 50 per cent of her teachers in summer school attendance last year; Arkansas an 80 per cent increase in such attendance last year; and Pennsylvania a 133 per cent increase in the past three years.

Normal training courses of secondary grade or in connection with secondary schools are maintained in 23 States. Three States—Maryland, Nevada, and Virginia—have recently discontinued the plan. Oregon expects to discontinue it after this year. Two other States report the expectation of eliminating teacher-training work in high schools at an early date. Another reports that such secondary courses are not receiving encouragement in that State because the State normal schools are rapidly taking over the task of supplying the demand for prepared teachers. Five States—Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, and Vermont—maintain the work on a postgraduate basis; that is, high-school graduation is required for entrance to the course. Another State, North Carolina, plans to place the work on a postgraduate basis beginning in 1925. According to

Minnesota's experience, the raising of entrance requirements for these courses has increased instead of depleted the enrollment. The number of high schools giving teacher-training work has increased in two States, Michigan and Wyoming.

Only a few new normal schools have been reported to the bureau as established during the biennial period. A number have been enlarged. During 1923, State normal schools were opened at Glassboro, Newark, and Paterson, N. J., and at Morehead and Murray, Ky. State normal schools have been voted but not as yet opened for students at Salisbury, Md., Kingsville, Tex., and Centralia, Wash. Mississippi expects to establish another State normal school at an early date. Colorado provided for the establishment of the Adams State normal school to devote itself chiefly to the preparation of rural teachers, but made no appropriation for its maintenance.

Progress in providing proper facilities for the training of rural teachers and in securing and holding adequately prepared teachers in one-teacher schools has not been adequate nor country wide in extent. In a number of States the teacher staff is far below the approved standard. There is still a decided shortage of teachers in service, and an insufficient number to fill annual replacements if the standard is set, as it should be, at graduation from a standard normal school. Even fixing the standard at one year beyond high-school graduation, reports from various States indicate a decided shortage. Encouragement is gained from the fact that a number of States have made such marked advance that the practical possibility of others to achieve a prepared teaching staff is beyond the stage of argument. Encouragement is gained also from the improvement in certification laws and in staffs of teachers in service from a number of States. Michigan, for example, reports that 60 per cent of the rural teachers, in 1924, had completed one year of professional preparation beyond high-school graduation. Connecticut reports that 68 per cent of the beginning teachers in one-room schools last year were normal-school graduates, although only 35 per cent of the total one-teacher school staff had equal training. Considerably more than half (57 per cent) of the 305 graduates of the Maryland State normal schools entered one and two teacher rural schools last year. Louisiana reports 67 per cent of all the teachers as normal school or college graduates. With the exception of the city of New Orleans, Louisiana is almost wholly a rural-school State.

SALARIES OF RURAL TEACHERS

Coordinate with the problem of securing rural teachers with adequate academic and professional attainments is that of obtaining

commensurate salaries. Unless salaries justify the expense in time and money of pursuing professional courses, rural teachers will not qualify on the same basis as those of urban schools. That many States recognize this is proved by the present tendency to accompany laws demanding increased requirements for certificates with a minimum salary scale varying according to experience and training. Those States in which the greatest difficulty is encountered in promoting higher standards on a State-wide scale are generally those in which salaries are low and the State unwilling or unable to provide increases from State funds or to force them from local sources. Thus the desire to increase qualifications must wait on the ability of local communities to raise money through local taxation to provide additional income. Adequate financing is now the basic consideration in rural-school improvement. Sentiment is ripe for efficient schools, even for drastic changes in administrative organization if necessary. The money to finance efficient programs must still be found in many States.

During 1923–24 the Bureau of Education continued the policy begun in 1922 of making annual studies of salaries of rural teachers. The number of county superintendents reporting and correspondingly the number of teachers whose salaries are reported increase each year. The information collected indicates that school officials are retaining the ground gained in salaries during the war and postwar years but are not gaining substantially in securing increases in their salary scales. As would be expected, the greatest gain in amount has been made in consolidated schools, though one-teacher schools have profited by the increasing recognition of the necessity of paying larger proportionate salaries. The following table shows the salary tendency in each of the five classes of schools indicated from 1922 to 1924 in all the States:

TABLE 1.—*Salary tendencies in rural schools, 1922–1924*

Classes of school	Downward	Upward	Even
	States	*States*	*States*
In one-teacher schools	11	12	25
In two-teacher schools	11	11	26
In schools of three or more teachers, not consolidated	13	20	15
In consolidated schools	12	16	20
In village and town schools, not consolidated	9	22	17

For 1923 and 1924 reports were made as in 1922, but the returns were tabulated differently in order to arrive at approximate averages. The results for the United States were as follows:

TABLE 2.—*Approximate average salaries in 1923 and 1924*

Class of school	1923		1924		Number of States showing decrease	Amount of increase
	Number of teachers	Average salaries	Number of teachers	Average salaries		
One-teacher	98,017	$729	112,191	$735	7	$6
Two-teacher	21,726	737	27,348	742	14	5
Three or more teachers, not consolidated	12,745	843	13,850	820	24	−23
Consolidated	16,666	964	32,087	1,017	15	53
Village and town schools, not consolidated	42,267	1,141	58,165	1,142	12	1
For the five classes	191,421	851	243,641	875	5	24

Table 2 shows a fair increase in the average teachers' salaries reported in 1924 over 1923. It shows also slight increases in the average annual salaries of teachers in the one and two teacher schools, a decline in salaries in 24 States which was great enough to amount to an average loss of $23 in the annual salary of the 13,850 teachers reported in the three or more teacher schools. It shows also an increase of $53 in the annual salaries of teachers in consolidated schools reporting, and a very slight increase in the salaries of teachers in village and town schools not consolidated. The number of States showing decreases in salaries is indicated in the table. For the rural teaching group as a whole there is an increase of $24 in the average annual salary paid in 1924 over that paid in 1923. Comparison of the increases shown in Table 2, with increases in salaries of teachers in cities in five population groups as reported to the bureau, can be made by comparing Tables 2 and 3.

TABLE 3.—*Salaries of teachers in cities with a population of 2,500 to 100,000*

Teachers	Population				
	2,500 to 4,999	5,000 to 9,999	10,000 to 29,999	30,000 to 99,999	100,000 and over
Elementary teachers in 1923	$1,105	$1,200	$1,277	$1,467	$1,876
Elementary teachers in 1924	1,129	1,231	1,354	1,528	1,968
Increase	24	31	77	61	92
High-school teachers in 1923	1,469	1,567	1,670	1,917	2,487
High-school teachers in 1924	1,491	1,617	1,737	2,000	2,536
Increase	22	50	67	83	49

SUPERVISION—A CONSTRUCTIVE AND EQUALIZING FACTOR IN RURAL EDUCATION

Progress in supervision during the biennium has been concerned more with intensive work toward a higher quality of service than an increase in the number of supervisors or extent of the territory over

which supervision is furnished, although substantial improvements have been made in both these aspects also.

SUPERVISION IN COUNTY UNIT STATES

Among the States which have done notable work in improving the quality of supervisory service under the direction of their respective State departments of education during the biennium are Maryland and Alabama. Both are organized with the county as the administrative school unit, and both include in their State department staffs professionally prepared rural supervisors, two of the desiderata for success in rural supervision. A brief description of the work in these States is presented as representative of the activities in several other progressive States similarly organized.

The plan followed in Maryland.—The last biennial report of the Commissioner of Education noted the passage of a law in Maryland in 1922 providing for state-wide rural supervision. This law became operative in the fall of that year. The past two years have seen its accomplishment. Under the terms of this law supervisory officers were provided according to the number of teachers, two-thirds of the salaries to be paid from State funds. Certain standards of educational qualifications for supervisory officers were set up; and two types of supervisors, namely, supervising teachers and helping teachers, the latter more or less under the direction of the former, were provided. From the former, minimum academic and professional qualifications equal to college graduation, with special training for instructional supervision and four years of experience in elementary school work, are required.

For the first time, in 1923–24, there was at least one supervisor or helping teacher in every county in Maryland. One county had six supervisory officers at the close of the biennial period. Some counties have not yet secured the full quota as provided by law, namely, 40 teachers per supervisor, either because qualified persons were not available or patrons were not fully convinced of the value of supervision. It was therefore deemed wiser to enforce the law gradually until both these essentials are attained. In 1923 the 23 counties of the State employed 39 supervisors and helping teachers. In 1924 the number had increased to 44; lowering the number of teachers per supervisor to an average of 50 and approaching somewhat nearer the goal of 40, the standard fixed in the law.

Maryland has 7 counties with fewer than 80 teachers, in each of which one assistant in addition to the county superintendent is now employed; 7 counties having from 80 to 119 teachers in which, under the terms of the law, 2 assistants should be employed; 4 with 120 to 185, in each of which 3 supervisory assistants are allowed; 1

with 186 to 235, with 4 supervisory assistants; 2 with 236 to 285, with 5 supervisory assistants; and 2 with 286 to 335 teachers, with 6 supervisory assistants; a total of 59 supervisors if the quota were filled. The present number, 44, is 15 short of that provided by law.

The staff of the State department as a whole, including its research service, and through members especially assigned to rural school supervision, has largely devoted its efforts during the past two years to improving the quality of the work of the supervisors in service. Standard tests in the elementary subjects, notably reading and spelling, have been given throughout the State. Results have been tabulated, studied, and interpreted by specialists in this field, and remedial work has been carried on, all under the general supervision of the State department staff working through the county superintendents, supervisors, helping teachers, and teachers. From August, 1922, to March, 1924, eight pamphlets or bulletins were issued from the State department designed to improve the quality of instruction given and to stimulate achievement on the part of teachers and supervisors.

Special attention has been given to elimination of the excessive amount of retardation and overageness in rural schools. Very complete studies of age-grade and pupil progress have been made throughout the rural schools of the State.

Where the emphasis is placed in Alabama.—Maryland provides for and finances a plan of supervising rural schools which is compulsory for all counties. Alabama provides for a voluntary plan financed by the counties themselves. Approximately half the counties employ instructional supervisors. Supervision, therefore, becomes a matter of finding a sufficient number of trained people to fill the necessary positions, on the one hand, and a method of financing the program, on the other. Apparently further progress in Alabama waits on securing more adequate financial resources. Recent information indicates that there are 65 supervisors (39 white and 26 colored) in 32 counties at the close of 1924, and a total of 13 members of the State department staff engaged all or part time in the supervision of rural schools.

The supervisory personnel has improved in training and through length of service by the setting up of higher standards of requirements for the county supervisors employed. The minimum qualifications are now set at three years' teaching experience, graduation from a standard normal school, and, in addition, a year of professional training. This means the addition of one year of training to the minimum requirements exacted in 1922. The number of supervisors holding bachelors' or masters' degrees has increased during the biennium because of these higher standards. The qualifications of teachers in the supervised counties have also improved in a marked

degree during the biennium and under the influence of supervision At the close of the biennial period 1923–24, 81 per cent of the teachers in supervised counties held second or higher grade certificates and 19 per cent third-grade certificates. For the State as a whole 12.2 per cent of rural teachers held professional (highest grade) certificates, compared with 15 per cent holding them in the supervised counties.

PROGRESS IN NONCOUNTY-UNIT STATES

The Missouri plan.—The 1923 session of the Missouri Legislature made an appropriation for rural education which enabled the State superintendent to provide a type of supervision for rural schools somewhat different from that in any of the other States. Missouri now has six rural supervisors, one in the State department and one in each of five teachers-college districts. The supervisors use the teachers college as a center from which they work among the county superintendents in the district. During the year these supervisors spend a large part of their time in holding demonstration meetings for the teachers under the general direction of the county superintendent. This officer divides his county into five districts. All of the schools in each district, except the one in which the demonstration meeting is held, are dismissed, the teachers of the dismissed schools coming to the center point. The program consists of from six to eight lessons of the usual period length in rural schools. The demonstration is followed by a conference in which the aim of the lessons, the manner of presentation, and the results are discussed. Instructors and professors from the staffs of the State teachers colleges have assisted the supervisors in demonstration meetings and by other means of cooperation. During the year in some counties as many as 99 per cent of the teachers and a large percentage of the school directors have been reached through these meetings.

Plans for supervision in Idaho.—By mutual arrangement the State department of education and the two normal schools of the State inaugurated a system of rural supervision, with two supervisors in the field, throughout most of the school year, each normal school furnishing one supervisor. The supervisors cooperate with the county superintendents of the various counties. Teachers are brought together in small groups and given opportunity for observing demonstration lessons given by or under the direction of the supervisor. General discussion of problems follows. One whole day and an evening session are devoted to each meeting.

Indiana conducts an experiment in supervision.—An experiment in rural supervision of unusual significance has been under way during the past two years under the general supervision of the State superintendent in Indiana. The experiment is financed by the Gen-

eral Education Board and directed by the director of the school of education of Indiana University. Two counties were chosen for demonstration work in supervision. Two other counties, with similar school conditions and taxable wealth, were selected as check counties. Tests selected from the Stanford achievement test were given to all pupils in grades 3 to 8 in all four counties, affecting 2,771 children in the demonstration counties and 2,685 in the "control" or check counties. They apparently established the fact that the school attainments of the pupils of the two demonstration counties and those of the check counties were approximately the same at the beginning of the experiment. The training of the teachers, type and equipment of buildings, and other governing factors were also comparable. Two supervisors were chosen for each of the demonstration counties, and in the check counties only such supervision as the county superintendent had time for was given. At the end of a year's work tests were again given in the four counties. The second tests showed that children in the demonstration counties had progressed in school work at a rate 14 per cent higher than in the unsupervised counties. The experiment is to continue through the school year 1924–25 under the same general plan.

Michigan begins county supervision.—During the biennial period four counties in Michigan have established supervision under county direction through one or more of the following: Assistant superintendants, supervisors, and helping teachers. Besides supervision in these counties, a group of 30 or more one-room schools in the vicinity of Ypsilanti are supervised as an established part of the training of rural teachers and supervisors at the Michigan State Normal College. The work is carried on under the direction of the rural department of the college. Tests are made under controlled conditions designed to measure the results of supervision on the quality of instruction and the progress of pupils.

County supervision established in California.—California in 1922 provided an appropriation from State funds for the payment of rural supervisors in a manner similar to that in vogue for the distribution of State money for teachers' salaries. A minimum attendance unit of 300 pupils is required before a supervisor can be employed. Under the provisions of this law, 55 of the 58 counties in California now employ rural supervisors, the number depending upon school attendance. In one county six are employed. Both general supervisors and special supervisors in music and art are employed. There is no state-wide plan of organization of the supervisory staff within the counties. General supervisors, special supervisors, and regional or sectional supervisors are employed, the plan varying among counties.

County school programs in Kentucky.—During the past two years State supervisors of rural schools have assisted county superintendents and boards of education in formulating a county-wide progressive program. Twelve counties have been studied and county school programs initiated. These programs have been organized under the leadership of county superintendents and provide for present and future needs of the schools.

Financial conditions force retrenchment.—New Hampshire and Delaware are the only two States which report reduction in supervisory forces during the biennial period. In Delaware a reduction of the appropriation for the maintenance of schools required a curtailment of the supervisory force. The smaller rural grade schools, formerly under the supervision of the regular rural supervisors, were therefore placed under the supervision of their respective principals, the rural supervisors confining themselves largely to one and two teacher schools and advisory duties with the principals in the larger schools. In New Hampshire similar reductions in the State appropriations resulted in reducing the staff by two members.

Reports from other States.—During the biennial period New York established a division of rural education in the State department. The amount paid district superintendents from State funds toward their salaries was increased from $1,800 to $2,400, thereby raising the average salary of district superintendents in the State to $3,250. The maximum salary is $7,000. This amount is received by district superintendents in two counties. Each superintendent also receives $600 from the State for traveling expenses.

Additions to the State rural supervisory staffs are reported from California, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Tennessee, and Virginia. Additional counties brought under supervision during the period are reported from California, Florida, Maryland, Michigan, Arkansas, Washington, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee. In all, approximately 200 supervisors in addition to those reported in 1922 are reported to the Bureau of Education. It is estimated that there are about 1,200 rural supervisors in the United States.

RURAL SUPERVISION AND STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS

In-service training for superintendents.—A number of States in which assistant supervisors to the county superintendents are not yet furnished find in State and regional conferences of rural superintendents an opportunity to carry on an intensive type of in-service training in instructional supervision. Provision for teacher training in service is an acknowledged administrative necessity. A similar arrangement for superintendents and supervisors is proving particu-

larly valuable, especially in view of the fact that it is extremely probable that some time will pass before any considerable proportion of rural superintendents will be adequately trained for supervision through graduate courses in higher institutions.

In recognition of the practical difficulties of the situation, the conferences of rural superintendents have been undergoing a gradual change in recent years. Those in which the bulk of the time was devoted to inspirational and informational addresses and general discussions are gradually being superseded by conferences of one or two weeks' duration and what may be termed short courses in the principles and methods of instructional supervision. Instructors who have special training for, and experience in, school supervision are brought into these conferences from without as well as from within the State. The courses resemble in quality and professional standards those given in summer sessions in normal schools and other higher institutions. Paralleling the change in type of work given, sessions are extended over a longer period. Montana, Oklahoma, and Minnesota are among those States which make special mention of improved standards of county superintendents' conferences for the biennium. Twenty-two States report some form of county superintendents' conferences.

CENTRALIZING TENDENCIES IN ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION FOR EFFICIENCY AND ECONOMY

Recognition of the utter inadequacy of small administrative units to meet the demands of modern educational ideals and a growing desire for efficiency and economy in school administration are governing factors underlying the movement for greater pooling of effort in educational support and school administration.

Centralizing movements affecting local school units conspicuous during the biennium are:

(1) The movement to provide on a State-wide scale and through legislative action, for an administrative unit large enough to afford more nearly adequate support and a complete educational unit of elementary and secondary facilities with professional management, supervision, and teaching staff. The county as the unit of organization is now established in varying degrees of centralization in 22 States. The movement is both (*a*) to strengthen it by increasing powers and duties of the county board and superintendent in those States where such strengthening would add to efficiency; and (*b*) to establish the county unit in several States now organized on the district or township plan. Kentucky and Virginia are two States which have taken definite steps during the biennium to strengthen

the county organization in vogue, Kentucky by changing the manner of election and lengthening the term of members of the county board of education, and Virginia by stimulating county boards of education to exercise more authority and participate more fully in the management of schools within their county.

In at least 10 States adoption of the county unit plan has been advocated extensively, fostered by education officials generally, State school officials, State education organizations or others. Among them are Missouri, Wisconsin, Texas, Colorado, Arizona, Minnesota, Oklahoma, Washington, and Indiana. In some States drives or campaigns designed "to inform the people" have been conducted on a State-wide scale. (c) Some consideration has been given also to another plan not yet tested in any State but advocated in New York for the past four years. It is generally known as the community unit plan. Proposed legislation for Kansas involved a type of community unit. None of the States that advocated the adoption of either county or community plan were successful in securing the legislation sought.

(2) The movement for voluntary centralization on the part of small local units generally known as consolidation.

TENDENCIES IN SCHOOL CONSOLIDATIONS

Reports coming into the Bureau of Education for 1923–24 concerning general progress in the direction of bringing small schools together to form larger ones indicate that the emphasis has veered from numbers to the more fundamental consideration of efficiency. Intelligent direction is replacing promotion. Consolidation in and of itself is not a panacea for the ills of rural education. Its virtue is potential. Transferring from the one-teacher to the consolidated school the same short term, unqualified teachers, lack of professional management, equipment, and the like, changing only the size of building and number of children to be educated under one roof, has little to recommend it from an educational standpoint. Consolidation has possibilities and offers opportunities—is a means to an end. Full development of possibilities and full realization of opportunities afforded must be sought in order to insure the success of the plan. Among the tendencies noticeable in the direction of increased efficiency, the following are worthy of special mention:

(a) *Scientific study of special problems.*—The growing practice of employing administrators and teachers with professional preparation including graduate study is responsible for increased emphasis on the necessity for scientific study of the organization, curriculum, and practice adapted to the needs of consolidated schools.

Several consolidated schools have been established or their direction assumed by teacher-preparing institutions in cooperation with the regular officials in charge. It is purposed to use these schools for observation and practice work primarily but also for experimentation and demonstration.

(*b*) *Larger units of consolidation.*—Mounting costs of education, especially of secondary education, have hastened a tendency toward consolidation on a larger scale than has hitherto been considered desirable. Improvements in roads, in motor vehicles, and in transportation generally have promoted this tendency.

(*c*) *Consideration of future development.*—There is a growing realization of the necessity of considering future development when centralization plans are projected. Intelligent planning in advance over a larger extent of territory and considering the education of larger numbers of children will, it is believed, facilitate the formation of each consolidation unit in such a way that it will fit into and contribute to the success of the larger plan. It should not be difficult to avoid mistakes, common in some sections, of leaving strips of territory or even whole districts so isolated that advantageous centralization in the future is impossible. There is a noticeable tendency to postpone the first steps toward consolidation until surveys county-wide, or even larger in extent, can be made.

(*d*) *Improving the small schools.*—The tendency is increasing to improve one-teacher schools where consolidation is impossible. There is no incompatibility between promoting at the same time the efficiency of the two most prevalent types of rural schools, namely, one-teacher and consolidated. Small schools, not only the one-teacher type but the two and three teacher types, will undoubtedly continue to decrease in number and in the percentage of total number of children enrolled. There is little probability, however, that such schools will be entirely eliminated in the near future. Thousands of rural children must depend on the small schools for all the education they will receive. We are therefore obligated to continue every possible effort to improve them as well as the larger ones.

Amount and extent of school consolidation.—The movement to increase the size of the school units, buildings, and groups of children, and to improve thereby the quality of instruction of rural children is not confined to any State or section. Some consolidated schools and some one-teacher schools are found in all States. The largest numbers of one-teacher schools, apparently, are in those States which center around the region of the Great Lakes. In each of the following States there are more than 5,000 one-teacher schools: Wisconsin, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York; Minnesota, Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, and Missouri; Kentucky, and West Vir-

ginia. The single exception in the Great Lake group is Indiana. Iowa, Illinois, and Pennsylvania have approximately 9,000 each. So far as numbers are concerned, the problem of eliminating the one-teacher schools and substituting consolidated schools is greater in these States than in the others. It must be remembered that numbers alone afford only one measure either of the difficulty of the problem or of the success of the consolidation plan. Information concerning the percentage of children enrolled in the different types of schools and the relationship of enrollment to the number of schools is not available. It is apparent that in the States in the above group the percentage of the total number of children attending one-teacher schools is large. Massachusetts, Utah, New Jersey, and Rhode Island of all the States enroll the smallest percentage of their children in one-teacher schools.

Estimates made in the Bureau of Education, based on reports from the different States and information from questionnaires received from State and county superintendents, indicate that there were at the close of 1924 approximately 14,000 consolidated schools of all sizes from two teacher schools, representing the union of small groups, to the large consolidated districts served in some instances by large high schools and even junior college grades. Probably about 150,000 teachers are employed in these schools, and two and three-fourths millions of children are enrolled. Approximately 1,500 consolidated schools have been formed during the biennial period, probably adding between 250,000 and 500,000 children to the number enrolled in consolidated schools. Thirty-five States report on the number of schools formed during the period. Arkansas, Mississippi, Texas, Pennsylvania, Georgia, North Carolina, and Ohio report the largest numbers, varying from 75 in Texas to over 300 in Mississippi and Ohio.

Additional estimates made in the Bureau of Education show that there are approximately 168,000 one-teacher schools in the United States, enrolling approximately four and three-fourths million children. Other types of schools enrolling rural children are one, two, and three teacher schools in the open country, village schools, and schools located in towns of 1,000 population and under. On the whole, it is estimated that approximately 12,000,000 children in the United States, properly called rural, are enrolled in the different types of schools, and that approximately 9,000,000 are from farm homes.

The number of consolidations formed, considered alone, is not an adequate measure of the progress of the consolidation movement. Improvement in the quality of education furnished—the real desideratum—does not always parallel growth in the number of con-

solidated school buildings. There are States in which relatively few consolidated schools have been established, but these few are large schools, adequately supported and equipped, and with professionally prepared and well-paid staffs. On the other hand, a large number of small one and two teacher schools, in which terms are short, teachers neither well qualified nor well paid, and equipment meager, are reported as consolidations. The data as to number of schools are believed to be of interest, but it is not the purpose of the statement to set up numbers as the sole measure of progress in consolidation.

Recent studies concerning the location of consolidated schools as between open country and villages indicate that more schools are situated in villages than in the open country, although there is no evidence to show that either is the more favorable except from the point of view of local considerations.

Increase in numbers of consolidated schools has not been so great during the present biennium as during the preceding one. Progress, however, has probably been more substantial. The size of the schools organized, the general improvement in facilities, the fact that larger units mean better support, and the increased tendency to place consolidated schools or systems under trained professional management have all tended toward improving the quality of school consolidations formed.

Obstacles to overcome.—Recent reports from a number of persons who are promoting school consolidation indicate that natural obstacles, such as contour and topography, hitherto considered as the most serious obstacles in the way of the extension of consolidation, are of less importance than they seemed in the early history of the movement. There is a fairly general agreement among these workers that the attitude of the people concerned toward education and toward modern ideas; the type of organization under which the schools are administered; and the ability of communities to secure from local, State, and county funds the money required to properly finance efficient schools are the real governing factors. In some sections, the traditional conservatism of farm people renders them unfavorable to radical changes and probable increases in the expense of maintaining schools. Certain farm organizations oppose the extension of the consolidation movement. In other sections the people are converted to the idea but are unable to finance larger and better schools until a new and better system of school support is developed for State, county, and district. In those States in which the administrative unit is the district or township, the crossing of established boundary lines creates difficulties. In several of these States laws requiring a favorable majority vote in each of the contributing units before a consolidation can be effected make it pos-

sible for a small group to obstruct the desires of the majority in the larger group of which it is a part.

Transportation.—Development in transportation has paralleled that of the consolidation movement, in general, during the biennial period. The tendency toward larger units has indeed made it necessary to give even more attention to the transportation phase of consolidated school management. Children are transported longer distances. Vehicles are made larger in order to accommodate more children, and they are of a better type. Manufacturing companies producing transportation vehicles are studying seating arrangements, placement and operation of doors, and other means whereby greater safety may be assured. The general increase in motor transportation in cities as well as for suburban and interurban purposes has accelerated progress in this.

The improvement in roads fostered by National, State, and local governments has added to the ease of transportation. Because of the increased mileage in hard-surfaced roads, wagons and small auto trucks are rapidly being superseded by large motor trucks. More children can be transported over longer distances; the time on the road between home and school is shorter; and consolidations covering a far larger extent of territory are feasible.

The greatest advance, however, has come through the systematic administration and operation of school transportation vehicles. Careful management as to cost, upkeep, efficiency, and the like have reduced expenses and added to the sense of responsibility felt by school officials and bus operators.

It has become generally recognized that transportation is a most important factor in the success of consolidated schools, and that safety is largely a matter of administrative management. Responsibility, which formerly centered in school boards and drivers employed by them either on a contract or salary basis, has now been centralized in the administrative officer, the principal or the superintendent, with considerable gain in efficiency and economy.

Complete data concerning the number of children transported and the amount of money spent on transportation concerned with schools are not available. An estimate based on reports from 32 States regarding the number of children transported and from 46 States concerning amounts spent for transportation apparently justify the estimate that in 1924 more than a million children were transported regularly at an expense of approximately $30,000,000.

TENDENCIES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION FOR RURAL CHILDREN

For the first time the rural high school has been studied on a national scale in the Bureau of Education during the biennial period

1922–1924. For the first time, through summaries of studies now completed, the essential characteristics of the rural high school can be shown, the extent to which farm children are participating in secondary education pointed out, and an analysis made of selected factors in their effect upon participation of farm children in secondary education. Conclusions gleaned from studies referred to are set forth at some length in the Rural High School, by Dr. Emery N. Ferriss, of Cornell University (U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 10); and in High School Education of the Farm Population in Selected States, by E. E. Windes, Associate Specialist in Rural Education (U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 6).