

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

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A MANUAL OF EDUCATIONAL
LEGISLATION

PREPARED IN THE RURAL EDUCATION DIVISION
UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION



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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, D. C., December 19, 1926.

SIR: Interest in constructive legislation for improving State school systems in the United States apparently increases year by year. While each State sets up a system of public schools responsive to its needs and adapted to its resources, there are many similarities in the legal provisions underlying the establishment of school systems of the different States. Since its establishment the Bureau of Education has promoted desirable unity and assisted school systems considering fundamental changes in organization or practices to follow those proved successful in other systems, when adaptable to their needs. This has been done by the bureau acting in its capacity as a clearing house of information on matters of educational moment.

Particularly are State officials and others interested in school legislation desirous of familiarizing themselves with progressive practice in other States in general and concerning special provisions along given lines of interest. The accompanying manuscript has been prepared to serve the purposes indicated during the legislative cycle of 1927, when the majority of our State legislatures will meet. I recommend its publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education.

JNO. J. TIGERT,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

A MANUAL OF EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION

Chapter I

PURPOSE AND SCOPE

This manual is printed primarily to present to educational committees of the State legislatures, educators, legislators, and interested citizens, the essentials of a program of educational legislation, state-wide in scope, based upon the experiences of the various States during the past several decades.

A large amount of proposed educational legislation is presented at each legislative session. Some of it is desirable, but a large part is not. It is with difficulty that those unfamiliar with school administration can pass upon it and know what ought to be enacted into law and what discarded. It is hoped that this publication will be of assistance in determining action. Topics are discussed in the light of experience of the States with different systems and of the best ideas of authorities in school administration.

Each of the 48 States has its own distinct system of education. The Federal Government assumes no control over the public schools throughout the country except with reference to the special Federal appropriations for specific purposes, as the Smith-Hughes Act for assistance to vocational education and the Smith-Lever Act for assistance to agricultural extension education. Nevertheless, because of proximity and interchange of ideas, the State systems have many points of similarity. Conditions affecting the kinds of school systems do not differ fundamentally; therefore, each State profits by the experiences of others, and through the adoption of what proves good the States are tending toward systems more similar than in the past. We have, therefore, what may be designated as the "trend in the school development" in the United States, an expression meaning the forward movement—generally toward similarity in systems and practices.

In enacting school laws legislatures may be guided in part by the experiences of other States. For instance, in one State legislation to provide that the State prepare and print its own textbooks is recommended. Before action is taken the experiences of California and Kansas may well be studied. In another the adoption of the

county unit of administration and support is proposed; a study of the experiences of States organized on that basis will be helpful. When it is evident that new or revised school laws are needed in any State it is wise to follow the successful experience of other States which have tried the proposed plans, if such may be found. If reasons are evident that would make this practice undesirable, or a plan is proposed which seems better than any yet tried, a review of the experiences of other States solving the same problems in other ways is still desirable.

In other words, school legislation should be passed in the light of what has been proved effective in other States and with the knowledge before one of what has been tried and discarded and of the reasons influencing success or failure.

This bulletin is a brief résumé of what has been found desirable and acceptable. It aims to show the trend in educational systems and legislation adopted after experience and study. It gives references to more complete information on the subjects discussed.

THE STATE AND THE SCHOOLS

Practice in the United States, as well as constitutional or statutory provisions, charges the several State legislatures with the responsibility of providing a system of schools for all the children of the State adequate to their needs and efficient in fulfilling the educational ideals of the people of the State. Education with us is admittedly a State responsibility. It follows, therefore, that it is the duty of the State legislature (1) to formulate a constructive policy for the education of all the children of the State; (2) to provide the administrative machinery for a school system adequate to carry out this policy; and (3) to make such changes from time to time as changing conditions and educational needs require.

It is well known that after-war conditions have brought about fundamental changes in ideals for a modern education system. Progressive States, therefore, are providing for such changes in administrative organization; in sources, amount, and distribution of funds; and in school and curriculum reorganization as the needs of modern life require. The program of adjustment of the school system to the growing needs and expectations of the people involves many problems which State legislatures must help solve. Among the most pressing of those which call for legislative action at this time are: (1) To secure more nearly equitable adjustment within the State of tax burdens and educational opportunities for all children. (2) To provide systems of school support which will enable the schools of the State more adequately to meet the expansion necessary in the provision of school facilities commensurate with

the new ideals for school buildings, school organization, enriched curricula, and increased costs of instruction and general school administration. (3) To provide such administrative systems as will insure professional administration and efficient and economical management of the schools. The State, as such, is responsible for providing an administrative system which makes possible an elementary and secondary education for all children in the State. (4) To set up certain minimum standards which all schools and school systems must meet, and to provide for such sources of support as will enable all communities to maintain schools satisfying established standards.

A STATE PROGRAM FOR EDUCATION

The legislative program for any State will differ from that in others because it must provide for particular and specific State needs and must be consistent with the existing administrative system and traditions and ideals of the people. There are, however, certain considerations and problems common to all States which will doubtless be the subject of consideration in formulating educational programs. In many States the first step should be to take an inventory or survey of the educational assets and liabilities of the State, and on the basis of this study to formulate a program of educational legislation extending over a period of years. Such a program would include, among other things, some provision for the following:

1. A businesslike State system of school organization, administration, supervision, and support; a professionally staffed and adequate State department of education.
2. Establishment of an effective unit for the greatest efficiency in local school administration, or such changes in existing unit as will add to its practical efficiency.
3. Readjustment of elementary and secondary education to include (a) education for health, (b) education for citizenship, (c) education for life occupation, and (d) education for leisure.
4. A liberal system of school support, including sources which supplement income from property taxation, if possible; a scientifically distributed equalization fund; or an equitable method of distributing established funds to equalize educational opportunities and at the same time provide an equitable distribution of tax burdens.
5. Provision which insures sanitary and appropriate school grounds and buildings, preferably under State supervision and inspection.
6. Preparation of an adequate staff of teachers.
7. Provision for a modern system of certificating teachers based on a gradual increase in professional requirements.
8. Adequate provision for living salaries for these teachers, longer tenures, and retirement pension.

9. A liberal plan under which to provide textbooks and equipment in the schools.

TABLE 1.—*Illiteracy: Number and per cent of illiterates in population 10 years of age and over, by United States Census of 1929—Number unable to speak English*

State	All classes		Native white				Foreign-born white		Negro		White population 10 years and over unable to speak English
			Native percentage		Foreign or mixed percentage		Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent					
Continental United States	4,931,905	6.0	1,109,875	2.5	132,697	0.8	1,763,740	13.1	1,842,161	22.9	1,488,948
Alabama	278,082	16.1	64,925	6.4	499	1.7	1,893	10.9	210,690	31.3	724
Arizona	39,181	15.3	1,454	1.3	1,779	4.6	19,291	27.5	338	4.6	36,352
Arkansas	121,837	9.4	40,753	4.6	658	2.0	1,145	8.3	79,245	21.8	697
California	95,592	3.3	5,359	.4	3,388	.5	69,768	10.5	1,579	4.7	69,570
Colorado	24,208	3.2	7,655	1.7	969	.6	14,224	12.4	619	6.2	10,650
Connecticut	67,265	6.2	1,532	.4	1,395	.4	63,131	17.0	1,078	6.2	38,068
Delaware	10,508	5.9	2,295	2.0	132	.6	3,373	17.3	4,700	19.1	2,733
District of Columbia	10,509	2.8	564	.3	76	.2	1,728	6.1	8,053	8.6	779
Florida	71,811	9.6	12,661	3.1	508	1.1	2,657	6.3	55,639	21.5	7,918
Georgia	328,838	15.3	66,537	5.5	250	1.1	861	5.4	261,115	29.1	285
Idaho	4,924	1.5	654	.3	260	.3	2,501	6.5	44	5.4	1,956
Illinois	173,987	3.4	24,437	1.1	6,470	.4	131,996	11.0	10,476	6.7	121,965
Indiana	52,034	2.2	24,981	1.4	2,984	1.0	17,555	11.8	6,476	9.5	13,209
Iowa	20,680	1.1	5,921	.5	2,354	.4	11,004	4.9	1,283	8.1	9,559
Kansas	22,821	1.6	5,835	.6	1,844	.5	11,291	10.5	4,228	8.8	12,027
Kentucky	155,014	8.4	110,902	7.3	1,304	1.3	2,244	7.3	40,548	21.0	688
Louisiana	299,092	21.9	78,818	11.4	3,139	3.5	9,707	21.9	206,780	38.5	3,683
Maine	20,240	3.3	5,106	1.3	3,290	2.9	11,604	11.1	64	5.9	10,333
Maryland	64,434	5.6	13,884	2.0	1,484	.9	13,575	13.4	35,404	18.2	7,763
Massachusetts	146,607	4.7	2,926	.3	4,854	.5	135,720	12.8	2,565	6.8	96,426
Michigan	88,046	3.0	7,580	.6	6,592	.7	70,535	9.0	2,203	4.2	68,103
Minnesota	34,487	1.8	1,968	.4	3,967	.5	26,242	5.4	241	3.1	28,311
Mississippi	229,734	17.2	21,891	3.1	361	2.3	1,057	13.3	205,813	29.3	455
Missouri	83,403	3.0	43,031	2.2	4,035	.9	17,699	9.6	18,528	12.1	11,126
Montana	9,544	2.3	659	.3	398	.3	5,111	5.6	87	6.0	3,098
Nebraska	13,784	1.4	2,184	.4	1,176	.4	9,468	6.4	556	4.8	9,186
Nevada	3,802	5.9	119	.4	38	.2	1,241	8.5	16	5.1	1,509
New Hampshire	15,788	4.4	1,023	.6	950	1.1	13,746	15.4	33	6.7	11,339
New Jersey	127,661	5.1	6,797	.7	2,899	.4	111,896	15.3	5,910	6.1	73,409
New Mexico	41,637	15.6	23,757	11.9	1,762	8.2	7,250	27.1	228	4.3	13,225
New York	425,022	5.1	16,150	.6	12,256	.5	389,603	14.2	5,032	2.9	290,200
North Carolina	241,603	13.1	104,673	8.2	171	1.9	474	6.8	133,674	24.5	190
North Dakota	9,937	2.1	335	.3	972	.5	7,238	5.6	16	4.0	10,189
Ohio	181,008	2.8	28,536	1.0	5,191	.6	84,387	12.6	12,715	8.1	81,161
Oklahoma	56,864	3.8	29,413	2.4	1,006	1.2	5,456	14.0	14,205	12.4	5,632
Oregon	9,317	1.5	1,529	.4	461	.3	5,172	5.1	89	4.7	3,342
Pennsylvania	312,699	4.0	20,977	.8	8,803	.6	258,812	18.9	14,643	6.1	162,240
Rhode Island	31,312	6.5	694	.5	1,561	.9	28,169	16.5	839	10.2	21,620
South Carolina	220,667	18.1	38,639	6.6	103	1.0	301	6.2	181,422	29.3	116
South Dakota	8,109	1.7	660	.3	830	.5	3,848	4.7	35	5.2	4,861
Tennessee	182,629	10.3	101,317	7.4	492	1.5	1,263	8.3	79,532	22.4	506
Texas	295,844	8.3	50,424	2.2	30,219	9.4	112,417	33.8	102,053	17.8	172,057
Utah	6,264	1.9	335	.3	390	.3	3,501	6.3	59	4.6	2,303
Vermont	8,488	3.0	1,904	1.1	1,709	2.8	4,837	11.3	28	6.2	3,065
Virginia	195,159	11.2	70,061	6.1	394	1.0	2,150	7.1	122,322	23.5	1,135
Washington	18,526	1.7	1,628	.3	751	.3	11,630	4.7	245	4.0	7,796
West Virginia	69,413	6.4	43,673	4.8	751	1.5	14,548	24.0	10,513	15.3	11,121
Wisconsin	50,397	2.4	3,260	.5	7,189	.8	38,359	8.4	182	4.1	44,481
Wyoming	3,149	2.1	320	.4	101	.3	2,233	9.0	66	5.3	2,008

Chapter II

GENERAL ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

STATE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

The State's program of education must have first a legal basis resting upon its constitution and the duly approved acts of its legislature. In certain instances this legislation charges the performance of certain educational duties directly to local civil governments or to special school units; usually, however, it is carried out through certain State officers. In most States there is a State board of education, in all a State department of education. The board usually has general supervision of the State's educational program as determined in its constitution and laws. It acts only as a body. Its acts are legislative, the execution being the function of the State chief school officer and the State department of education over which this officer presides. In other words, the State department of education is the functioning body for the State board.

The new and enlarged conception of education is adding new importance to the chief educational officer in the several States—i. e., the State superintendent of public instruction or commissioner of education and to the State department of education of which he is a part and the head. The office, as originally created in the older States, was chiefly clerical and statistical, much like the old county superintendency. Almost any person chosen from the general electorate could then fill the position to the satisfaction of the public. But the demands of to-day require a new type of educational leadership, able to administer the manifold problems of modern school organization and administration, general education, school sanitation, industrial and vocational education, interrelation of the elementary and higher schools, and educational legislation.

STATE BOARDS OF EDUCATION¹

Modern educational development is toward provision for a State board of education as the administrative head of the State's educational system. Forty-two States have such boards with functions relating to the common schools. Two States have no such boards. In several States boards have been organized since the passage of

¹ See also U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bulletins, 1920, No. 46, and 1924, No. 5.

the Smith-Hughes vocational education act to administer the funds provided under this act. Their duties, like those of many ex officio

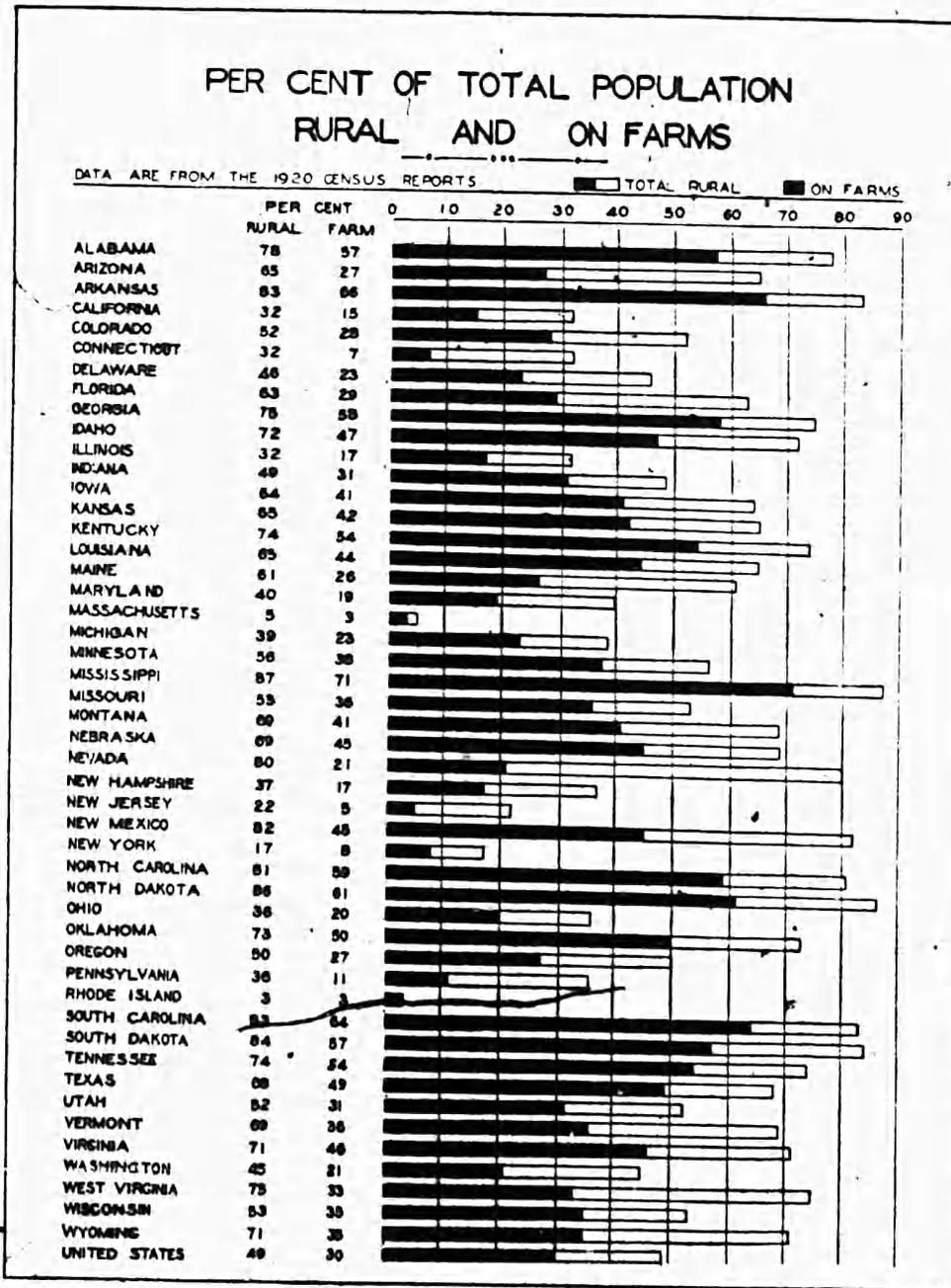


FIG. 1.—Per cent of total population rural and on farms

boards, are nominal. In others the State boards of education administer only the higher educational institutions, as the university, agricultural college, and normal schools.

TABLE 2.—Composition of State boards of education¹

States	Ex officio members						Appointed or elected members				Total ex officio members	Total appointed or elected members	Total number on board	
	Governor	Other State political officers	State superintendent of public instruction	President of State university	President of agricultural and mechanical college	President of State normal school	Other education officers	In educational work	Not in educational work	May or may not be in educational work				Appointed or elected by—
Alabama	1		1						6	Governor	12	2	6	8
Arizona	1			1				2	3	do	5	5	3	8
Arkansas			1							do	7	1	7	8
California									7	do	4	0	7	7
Colorado		2	1							do	3	0	3	3
Connecticut	1								9	Governor	6	2	9	11
Delaware									5	do	5	0	5	5
Florida	1	3	1							do	5	0	5	5
Georgia	1		1					3	1	Governor	4	2	4	6
Idaho			1					5	5	do	5	1	5	6
Indiana			1	1	1	1	3	3	2	do	4	7	6	13
Kansas			1	1	1	3		3		do	2	6	3	9
Kentucky		2	1							do	4	3	0	3
Louisiana			1						5	Governor	5	1	5	6
Maryland									7	do	7	0	7	7
Massachusetts			1					1	5	do	3	1	6	7
Michigan			1						3	Popular vote	6	1	3	4
Minnesota									5	Governor	5	0	5	5
Mississippi		2	1							do	3	0	3	3
Missouri	1	2	1							do	4	4	0	4
Montana	1	1	1						8	Governor	4	3	8	11
Nevada	1		1	1						do	3	0	3	3
New Hampshire	1								5	Governor	5	1	5	6
New Jersey									8	do	8	0	8	8
New Mexico	1		1					3	2	do	4	2	5	7
New York									12	State legislature	12	0	12	12
North Carolina	1	5	1							do	7	0	7	7
North Dakota		1							3	Governor	6	2	3	5
Oklahoma			1					2	4	do	6	1	6	7
Oregon	1	1	1							do	3	0	3	3
Pennsylvania			1					3	3	Governor	6	1	6	7
Rhode Island	1	1							6	State legislature	6	2	6	8
South Carolina	1		1						7	Governor	4	2	7	9
Tennessee	1								9	do	6	1	9	10
Texas	1	2								do	3	0	3	3
Utah			1	1	1				6	Governor	6	3	6	9
Vermont									5	do	5	0	5	5
Virginia	1	1	1					5		{State senate, 3 {State board, 2	4	3	5	8
Washington			1		1	1		3		Governor	2	4	3	7
West Virginia			1					3		do	6	1	6	7
Wisconsin	1		1						8	(²)	5	2	8	10
Wyoming			1						6	State superintendent ³	6	1	6	7

¹ From U. S. Bur. of Educ. Bul., 1920, No. 46.
² Indefinite.
³ Governor appoints 5 members, university board of regents 1, normal school regents 1, vocational education board 1.
⁴ Governor's appointees.
⁵ With approval of governor.

Composition of State boards of education.—State boards of education are made up in the following ways: Ex officio membership, composed of State officials, usually including the governor and chief State school officer, and of other members selected from among other State officials, as the attorney general, secretary of state, State treasurer; ex officio education officers, as presidents of higher institutions, including universities, colleges, and normal schools (in some

cases the law provides that these boards include one representative who is a city superintendent, one who is a county superintendent, or similar regulation); membership confined to persons not engaged in educational work; members may or may not be engaged in educational work; and various combinations of the above. (See Table 2.)

Methods of appointment.—In 33 States some or all of the members of State board are appointed or elected. In 28 of these the power of appointment is vested in the governor, subject in some cases to approval by the State senate. In 3 the State legislature makes the selection, in 1 State the board is elected by popular vote, and in 1 appointment is left to the State chief school officer. In the other States appointment is made in part by the governor, in part by certain educational boards, and in 1 State in part by the senate.

The tendency in the selection of members of State boards of education seems to be toward appointment by the governor. Two methods of selection, (1) appointment by the governor and (2) election by the people, receive the approval of authorities on school administration. The first method, appointment by the governor, has these merits: (1) It centralizes full responsibility for all the departments of public service, including the management of schools, in the executive head of the State. This tends to unity and economy in administration. (2) It is believed that this method protects the board from undue political influence. Selection is often restricted to an eligible list or limited in some other manner. The advisability of the governor being a member of the board he appoints is doubtful.

Election by the people is favored by many authorities on school administration because: (1) It centers responsibility definitely on a group of persons elected specifically for one purpose, namely, that of having general charge of schools. (2) It represents more nearly a direct expression by the people of their wishes in the management of school affairs than does appointment. (3) It follows our custom of making those intrusted with legislative functions directly responsible to the people. (Administrative authorities are generally agreed that the chief functions of a State board of education are legislative rather than executive.)

Size of board, term of office mode of retiring members.—The present tendency is toward a State board of education composed of from five to nine members, each of whom holds office for a term of from five to seven years. The time of retirement is so arranged that a majority of the board remains constant; that is, one member retires each year, or two or three each alternate year. The smallest boards, as now constituted, are those which are composed of ex officio members. The term of office of members of ex officio boards

is fixed by law and ranges from two to four years. The members usually retire simultaneously. This may be regarded as representing a passing type. In 25 of the 42 States having State boards of education the number constituting a board ranges from 7 to 13 members. Boards of this size, with continuity of service provided, are generally considered as satisfactory in size for working efficiency. Neither too large nor too small a board is desirable.

Powers and duties of a well-organized State board of education.—According to authorities on school administration, the State board of education, like the city board, should be a lay board representing the larger educational policies of the public, delegating the professional side of education and the administration of its general policies to its appointed executive official, the State superintendent of public instruction or commissioner of education, and to the heads of the several higher educational institutions, if any, under its supervision. The board should be composed of from five to nine members appointed by the governor by and with the consent of the senate, the term of office to be five to seven years, one member to retire each year, or two in each biennial period, thus perpetuating the board's policies and giving it stability and a degree of permanency. Vacancies should be filled by the governor. The appointment should be for absolute worth and without regard to residence, occupation, party affiliation, or similar considerations. The members should serve without remuneration except for a reasonable per diem and actual traveling and other necessary expenses. The maximum number of days for which such per diem may be paid should be fixed by law.

The general powers of the State board should include the following, keeping in mind that *the State board is a legislative body, the State superintendent of public instruction or the commissioner of education acting as its executive officer*:

1. To know the educational needs of the State and to determine its educational policies so far as authority is conferred upon it to do so by the constitution or by acts of the legislature.
2. To have general oversight and control of the public-school system of the State² as may be determined by law, and of other schools in so far as charged by specific legislation.
3. To select the chief State school officer, who becomes its executive head; to determine his powers and duties; and the function of the State department of education under his direction.
4. To adopt the necessary regulations and set up standards for education in the State relative to compulsory education, school build-

² In some of the States the proposed State boards of education may be organized to have control of all the schools, including the higher institutions. This would particularly be true of States which see fit to enlarge the powers of the board now in control of higher education to include also the general oversight of the elementary and secondary schools.

ings, school equipment, courses of study, qualifications of teachers, physical education, medical inspection of children, school records and reports, etc.

5. To have general control over such educational institutions as the State schools for the deaf and blind, industrial reform schools for boys and girls, and educational work in State reformatories and penitentiaries, and State hospitals.

6. To have general regulatory control of or to establish cooperative relations with all teacher-training institutions conducted by the State.

7. To act as a board of control for the State library and historical collections.

The following quotation from "Supplemental Report of the Organization and Administration of School District No. 1 in the City and County of Denver," by Ellwood P. Cubberley, professor of education, Leland Stanford Junior University, expresses principles equally applicable to a definition of functions of State, county, or local district (city) boards of education:

A board for school control for a city school district should be distinctively a business board, closely analogous to a board of directors for a business corporation.

The direction of the educational affairs of any large city has to-day become so important and so technical, and now involves such a degree of expert knowledge and nicety of adjustment if the best results are to be obtained, that no board of laymen, however worthy or willing, is any longer competent to handle the details of the work of school organization and administration. These should be turned over to competent officers, and the board should confine its attention to the larger features of the administrative problem.

These larger features relate, first and most important, to the selection, from time to time, of the executive officer or officers upon whom the board is to depend for advice, and for the execution of its policies; to the determination, after listening to the recommendations and the advice of its executive officers, of the educational and business policies for the school system.

Proper city school organization and management call for a clear separation of the work of school control into legislative, executive, and inspectional functions. All sound theory and the results of both business and educational administrative experience call for a clear separation of legislative and executive functions. It is the prime business of the board of school control to hear reports, to listen to the advice of its executive officers, and then to legislate; it is the prime business of the executive officers to execute the legislation enacted and to report the results to the board; and it is the function of the board in turn to judge the results of its policies and the work of its executive officers by inspecting the results obtained.

STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION*

The State departments of education have, as a rule, developed more or less independently, paralleling the several State boards

* See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bulletins, 1920, No. 46, and 1924, No. 5.

of education, with functions centered in the administration of the elementary and secondary schools of the State. The executive head of this board—the State superintendent of public instruction or commissioner of education—was formerly a political official in nearly all the States. Greater efficiency in school administration now demands a change. The superintendent or commissioner is beginning to be recognized as the chief educational officer in the State, whose task it is to organize and direct the educational forces within the State. The office requires the largest ability. It is indeed hard to conceive of a more important office or a more difficult position to fill well. At all times it calls for tact, initiative, and executive ability.

THE CHIEF STATE SCHOOL OFFICER

Provision is made for the office in two ways: (1) By constitution and (2) by statute. Thirty-three States provide for the office in their constitutions, by giving instructions therein for the legislatures to create and sustain it. Among these States the constitutional mandates for the establishment and maintenance of the office vary some in detail, but in general they are very similar. The remaining 15 States, on the other hand, do not mention the office in their constitutions; these have statutory provision for it. The kind of provision which each State makes may be seen from the map here given.

The prevailing method of selecting the chief school officer or State superintendent is by popular vote. In six States these officers are appointed by the governor, in eight by the State board of education.⁴ The last of these methods is in line with accepted principles of school administration and has the most to commend it.

The chief State school officer should be selected by the State board of education from the country at large because of professional preparation and administrative ability, and if possible because of success in other positions requiring similar ability and involving similar duties. Many able and efficient chief school officers have come into office by popular election or by gubernatorial appointment. Both methods have some advantages, but neither is as sure and reliable as appointment by a nonpartisan board. No other method of selection is rational, if this officer is to be responsible to the board. The term of office should have no reference to the change of officers connected with the partisan government of the State. It should be indefinite or for a period of years, long enough to make possible the consistent development of administrative policies.⁵

⁴ See Table 3.

⁵ U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bulletins, 1920, No. 46, and 1924, No. 5, should be consulted for further information on this subject.

If the chief State school officer⁶ is selected by popular vote, the office may become a political one, subject to the fluctuations of party

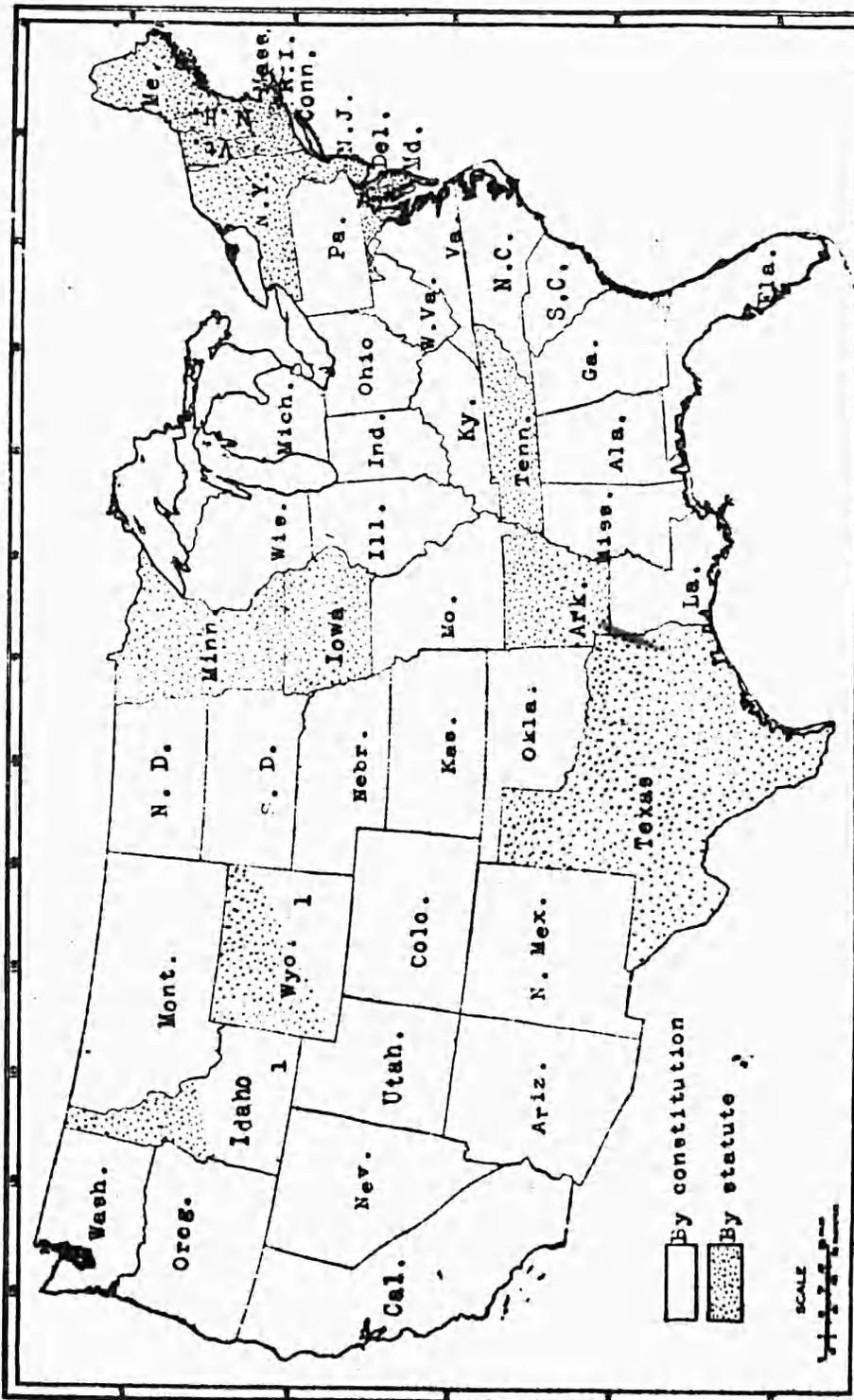


FIG. 2.—Kind of provision for the office of chief State school official in each of the States, 1923

and factional politics. The term is short, two to four years, reelection is uncertain, and the lack of continuity in the service is a handi-

⁶ Seven different titles for this officer are used in the 48 States. "Superintendent of Public Instruction" is now used by more States than any other, but the tendency is toward that of "Commissioner of Education."

cap to the officer, however capable. The term and salary are fixed by law and can not be adjusted to fit the person desired. The field from which to choose is limited to the State, and the qualifications are sometimes limited as to age and citizenship. Under the appointive method the chief State school officer may be selected as are presidents of universities, city superintendents, and other important school officials, from the country at large.

TABLE 3.—Chief State school officer and approximate number of assistants

State	Title ¹	Term in years ²	By whom selected	Salary ³	Number of specialists in department	Number of clerks in department
Alabama.....	Superintendent of education.....	4	People.....	\$5,000	20	15
Arizona.....	Superintendent of public instruction.....	2	do.....	3,300	5	5
Arkansas.....	do.....	2	do.....	2,500	11	3
California.....	do.....	4	do.....	5,000	14	25
Colorado.....	do.....	2	do.....	3,000	3	5
Connecticut.....	Commissioner of education.....	1	State board of education.....	9,000	18	49
Delaware.....	Superintendent of public instruction.....	1	do.....	5,000	6	2
District of Columbia.....	Superintendent of schools.....	4
Florida.....	Superintendent of public instruction.....	4	People.....	3,600	10	2
Georgia.....	Superintendent of schools.....	2	do.....	4,500	14	2
Idaho.....	Superintendent of public instruction.....	2	do.....	2,400	2	4
	Commissioner of education.....	(⁵)	State board of education.....	6,000		
Illinois.....	Superintendent of public instruction.....	4	People.....	7,500	15	15
Indiana.....	do.....	2	do.....	5,000	10	10
Iowa.....	do.....	4	do.....	4,000	12	10
Kansas.....	do.....	2	do.....	3,000	6	6
Kentucky.....	do.....	4	do.....	4,000	12	10
Louisiana.....	Superintendent of public education.....	4	do.....	5,000	15	8
Maine.....	Commissioner of education.....	3	Governor.....	4,600	10	9
Maryland.....	Superintendent of schools.....	4	State board of education.....	8,000	12	6
Massachusetts.....	Commissioner of education.....	5	Governor.....	9,000	33	73
Michigan.....	Superintendent of public instruction.....	2	People.....	5,000	16	17
Minnesota.....	Commissioner of education.....	6	State board of education.....	5,000	24	20
Mississippi.....	Superintendent of public instruction.....	4	People.....	4,500	12	8
Missouri.....	Superintendent of public schools.....	4	do.....	3,000	17	6
Montana.....	Superintendent of public instruction.....	4	do.....	3,600	3	3
Nebraska.....	do.....	4	do.....	5,000	4	7
Nevada.....	do.....	4	do.....	3,600	1	1
New Hampshire.....	Commissioner of education.....	(⁵)	State board of education.....	4,500	8	8
New Jersey.....	do.....	5	Governor.....	10,400	19	14
New Mexico.....	Superintendent of public instruction.....	2	People.....	3,000	4	8
New York.....	Commissioner of education.....	(⁵)	State board of education.....	12,000	50	78
North Carolina.....	Superintendent of public instruction.....	4	People.....	4,000	27	8
North Dakota.....	do.....	2	do.....	3,000	8	3
Ohio.....	Director of education.....	4	Governor.....	6,500	26	6

¹ 1926 Educational Directory.

² U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1924, No. 5, "The Chief State School Official," by Ward G. Roeder.

³ Returns for the 1926 Educational Directory. Does not include deputy or assistant State superintendents.

⁴ In Alabama, Kentucky, and New Mexico the chief State school officer may not serve more than four years in succession.

⁵ Indefinite.

TABLE 3.—Chief State school officer and approximate number of assistants—Contd.

State	Title	Term in years	By whom selected	Salary	Number of specialists in department	Number of clerks in department
Oklahoma	Superintendent of public instruction.	4	People	2,500	7	5
Oregon	do	4	do	4,000	4	6
Pennsylvania	do	4	Governor	12,000	54	50
Rhode Island	Commissioner of education	1	State board of education.	6,000	7	5
South Carolina	Superintendent of education	2	People	2,500	13	6
South Dakota	Superintendent of public instruction.	2	do	1,800	8	6
Tennessee	Commissioner of education	2	Governor	3,600	8	5
Texas	Superintendent of public instruction.	2	People	4,000	12	22
Utah	do	4	do	4,000	8	4
Vermont	Commissioner of education	(¹)	State board of education.	6,000	4	3
Virginia	Superintendent of public instruction.	4	People	3,500	11	8
Washington	do	4	do	3,000	7	6
West Virginia	Superintendent of schools	4	do	5,000	16	6
Wisconsin	Superintendent of public schools.	4	do	5,000	17	8
Wyoming	State superintendent of public instruction.	4	do	3,000	6	3
	Commissioner of education	(¹)	State board of education.	3,000		

¹ Indefinite.

With the State organized for education on this basis, the position of chief school officer stands first in responsibility and in opportunity to render executive service. As executive official he administers the various divisions of the State department of education and also represents the State board as its professional representative with the higher educational institutions of the State. The State department of education should be comprehensively planned on lines of approved business principles. If the State is to get full returns on its educational investment, the methods, means, and ways outlined must be of the most approved known to experts in school administration. There should be ample provision made for as many subdivisions of the department as may be necessary to administer the office to the best interest of the public.⁷

There is general agreement by authorities on school administration, confirmed by practice in several progressive States, that this important officer should be assigned at least the following powers and duties:

1. The chief State school officer, the executive official of the State board of education and executive head of the State department of education, should enforce rules and regulations made in conformity to law by the State board for schools over which it has legal jurisdiction.

⁷ See Table 4.

TABLE 4.—Specialists (one or more) in State departments of education¹

State	Deputy or assistant State superintendent	Teacher training	Secondary education	Elementary education	Rural education	Negro education	Certification of teachers	Americanization and adult education	Health education or medical inspection	School buildings	Vocational education	Trade education	Agricultural education	Household economics	Libraries	Attendance	Evening schools	Special classes	Research and statistics	School law	Music	Art	Special subjects	Teachers' placement, retirement, pensions, etc.	Rehabilitation, civilian, industrial, vocational	Textbooks	
Alabama																											
Arizona																											
Arkansas																											
California																											
Colorado																											
Connecticut																											
Delaware																											
Florida																											
Georgia																											
Idaho																											
Illinois																											
Indiana																											
Iowa																											
Kansas																											
Kentucky																											
Louisiana																											
Maine																											
Maryland																											
Massachusetts																											
Michigan																											
Minnesota																											
Mississippi																											
Missouri																											
Montana																											
Nebraska																											

¹ Other fields of work in the various State departments, not included in this table, of special interest are: Divisions of publications or publicity, visual education, community work, administration, child welfare, child labor and employment, finance.

TABLE 4.—Specialists (one or more) in State departments of education—Continued

State	Deputy or assistant State superintendent	Teacher training	Secondary education	Elementary education	Rural education	Negro education	Certification of teachers	Americanization and adult education	Health education or medical inspection	School buildings	Vocational education	Trade education	Agricultural education	Household economics	Libraries	Attendance	Evening schools	Special classes	Research and statistics	School law	Music	Art	Special subjects	Teachers' placement, retirement, pensions, etc.	Rehabilitation, civilian, industrial, vocational	Textbooks	
Nevada.....	X																										
New Hampshire.....	X																										
New Jersey.....	X																										
New Mexico.....	X																										
New York.....	X																										
North Carolina.....	X																										
North Dakota.....	X																										
Ohio.....	X																										
Oklahoma.....	X																										
Oregon.....	X																										
Pennsylvania.....	X																										
Rhode Island.....	X																										
South Carolina.....	X																										
South Dakota.....	X																										
Tennessee.....	X																										
Texas.....	X																										
Utah.....	X																										
Vermont.....	X																										
Virginia.....	X																										
Washington.....	X																										
West Virginia.....	X																										
Wisconsin.....	X																										
Wyoming.....	X																										

2. Supervision of all the different divisions of the State department of education responsible to the State board for the proper administration of the duties of each such division.

3. In cooperation with the heads of the State's institutions for training teachers, and in conformity with law, he should prescribe courses of study for these training schools, standards for certification of teachers, and methods for the validation of teachers' credentials from other States.

4. As the professional representative of the State board of education, he cooperates with the presidents and faculties of the higher educational institutions of the State.⁸

ORGANIZATION FOR LOCAL MANAGEMENT OF SCHOOLS⁹

As has been stated, each State as a whole is the legal unit in education, but for administrative purposes each State delegates certain responsibilities to smaller local units. The history of educational development in the country proves this to be a wise policy. There is not uniform practice in or agreement concerning the amount of control and management the State should attempt through its State department of education and the amount it should delegate to the local units. In the earliest days of the public school the States assumed that they were fulfilling their full duty when they passed legislation authorizing or requiring local units to establish schools to provide at least a minimum amount of education for their children. Later, step by step, they have found it advisable to take from these local units one function after another because they were not uniformly well carried out. This process is continuing. It is called the "centralization" of authority in the State. It has reached varying degrees of progress in various States; however, the balance of power between the State and local units still

⁸ The relationship between the State chief school officer and the State board of education, recommended above and found by experience satisfactory, is that now existing between the president of the State university and the board of trustees in the well-managed institutions or between the city school superintendent and the city board in the most progressive and advanced cities. The president, in one case, and the city superintendent, in the other, are the most responsible heads of the university and the city school system, respectively, receiving their authority from the boards they represent and replaceable by the boards if not measuring up to the requirements of the positions.

In both cases the boards determine general policies, authorize developments and activities, leaving the actual execution to their executive officers, the president or the superintendent, and giving to their executive officers much freedom for initiative. In both cases boards, when filling a vacancy in the presidency or in the superintendency, feel free to select the best person available from anywhere in the country or even outside the country. Indeed, the relationship is similar to that found in corporations. The general manager is selected by the board of directors. He becomes, when selected, the responsible head of the organization, removable for cause, but while holding office has authority to carry on the affairs of the corporation in accordance with the general instructions of the board of directors to the best of his ability.

An identical relationship should exist between the county superintendent of schools and the county board of education in States with the county unit organization.

⁹ See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bulletins, 1914, No. 44, and 1922, No. 10.

remains with the local units. While the local unit must maintain schools, conforming to specifications of the State department of education, the real worth of the school it conducts is determined by local conditions, interests, and activities.

Four more or less distinct territorial units of organization for administering rural schools are found at the present time in the United States: The district, the New England town, the township, and the county. In addition, in practically all States, incorporated cities are independent school units. There are many instances of mixed systems in which the responsibility for the school rests partly on the district and partly on the township, or on the district and the county. These mixed systems come from the transition from the old district system to the more modern township or county system.

The small local district was the original pioneer organization, particularly in New England, and it extended westward and to the southwest. It was suited to pioneer times when a larger unit of organization was impossible. The town system originated in Massachusetts, replacing the Massachusetts district system, and soon spread throughout New England. The township school unit has been adopted by a few States, in which it is also an important unit in civil government. County organization originated in the South, largely because the county was the civil unit. It has spread westward and northward, replacing the district system in several States.

The district unit.—The term "district unit" is generally used to mean a small geographical area set apart for school purposes only and served by a single school. Occasionally, however, it contains two or more schools and in sparsely settled portions of the country is often an area larger than a township. In the old district unit the school, or schools, if there happened to be more than one, was under the full charge of a local board of trustees. This board had general charge of all school affairs, including the care of the school property, the choice of teachers, the fixing of salaries, and the establishment of the policy which governed the work of the school. The board was amenable to the annual school meeting, which elected its members, voted the taxation, and determined the length of the school year.

The district unit has been defended as being "democratic." However, it is generally conceded by authorities on school administration to be ineffective and is gradually disappearing in many sections of the United States. Where it is still left local boards must conduct the school in accordance with laws and regulations of the State department of education and subject to administration and supervision, in many particulars, on the part of the county superintendent of schools. In pioneer days it was probably the only feasible plan, but with the passing of pioneer conditions and the development of mod-

ern industrial and agricultural life, a larger unit for school taxation is necessary and a larger and more centrally controlled system of organization seems desirable.

Town and township units.—The school unit known as the "town" system in New England includes under one taxation unit and one board of control all schools in a civil township. The system originated in Massachusetts during the middle of the last century and has become general throughout New England. The unit seems satisfactory in New England, where the town is also the unit in civil government. The town unit contains all schools in the township, whether located in the thickly settled section or in the rural sections.

New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Indiana, West Virginia, Ohio, and parts of Michigan, Iowa, and North Dakota are organized on the township-unit basis. In several of these States there is a strong movement to abandon the system in favor of a larger and more effective unit.

The county unit.—The county unit is the term applied to systems in which the schools in the county (city schools usually excepted) are organized as a single system under one board of education and supported largely by county funds. There are many types of county systems in operation. Real classification is not attempted, as organizations differ in many particulars among States called "county unit States." Ten States have centralized to the extent that the county board of education is the paramount board in the management of the schools. These 10 are Alabama, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, North Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia, and Utah. In three of these—Florida, Louisiana, and Maryland—city schools as well as country schools are under the management of county boards. In the other States the incorporated cities are independent in most respects. Five other States have partly the county and partly the district system, or such a division of authority between district and county that they may be considered as in a state of transition from district to county system. These States are South Carolina, Mississippi, Georgia, Oregon, and Montana. In a number of other States—Arizona, Washington, and California, for example—the county is important in school support but not in administrative control.

Larger units of organization.—There is unusual interest in many States organized on the district unit plan in establishing larger units of organization in order to secure better management and a larger tax valuation on which to draw for school support. In a number of these States the county, being the civil unit, is favored also as a unit apt to be efficient for the administration of schools. In some States the county is at present an important unit for school purposes, par-

ticularly for financing schools. In other States the county is not now an important unit for school purposes. New York and New England are outstanding examples. In a number of States now organized on the district plan there is considerable sentiment against centralization of schools to the extent of that involved in a county unit. In response to the need for a larger unit and in consideration of the sentiment against the county unit a community unit plan has been advocated by students of education in several States. It is believed by these advocates that it may offer a compromise between the extremes of over and under centralization of responsibility for the support and control of schools. The plan is believed to have great merit. So far, however, it has not been tried out in any of the States for which advocated. A survey of rural schools for the State of New York describes the plan and its merits in detail.¹⁰

In a large number of States considering progressive legislation looking toward larger and better administrative units, the county unit plan is being carefully studied. Because of the interest shown in many States in this plan at the present time, and because the term commonly used, "county unit," is an indefinite one applied to administrative organizations which differ widely, a description of an effective county organization is here presented.

AN EFFECTIVE COUNTY ORGANIZATION

Practice in good systems already established indicates that a county organization to be most effective should make provision for a well-centralized business and professional administration, without depriving the people in each section of local initiative in school matters. The county board and the county superintendent should administer the general school affairs and expend the county school funds to equalize educational advantages among all the children of the county. Each school community should have a representative appointed by the county board or, if desired, elected at an annual school meeting, to represent the school before the county board. Support should come principally from county funds. The school funds of the county should be expended by the county board of education for the general maintenance of all the schools. The local school community should usually be given the right to levy taxes and issue bonds for *extraordinary* school purposes, such as acquiring additional land sites or erecting new buildings. This gives a measure of local autonomy. This should be permitted only after a county-wide tax sufficient for all ordinary school purposes for the entire county has been levied and collected.

¹⁰ Rural School Survey of New York State. Ithaca, N. Y., 1923.

A good county system has an organization for the management and support of its schools similar to that of the best city systems. The county board of education is elected from the county at large in the same manner as the best city boards are elected. It should have practically the same powers and duties. It determines the general educational policies of the county. It familiarizes itself with the educational needs of the entire county and locates schools where needed. It employs the county superintendent of schools and authorizes the employment of assistants. The county superintendent is its executive officer in exactly the same way that the city superintendent is the executive officer of the city board of education. In selecting a superintendent the board should have authority to employ the best person obtainable regardless of whether he is or is not a citizen of the county or even of the State. The board should be free, within reasonable limitations, to pay whatever salary may be necessary to obtain the most efficient person. The county superintendency requires as much ability and professional experience as that of a city of the same population. It presents difficulties in size of territory, placement of teachers, organization of supervisory staff, school financing, location of buildings, and the like which are even greater than city superintendents must meet. The salary should be commensurate with the responsibility.

The size of the board determines somewhat its effectiveness. The tendency is toward a board of five members, though very good results are evidenced in States with boards of three members and others with boards of seven or nine. The members are elected from the county at large or from electoral districts, sometimes but not always on a nonpartisan ticket. The individuals on the board should be men and women of high standing and ability, interested in education, but not necessarily selected from those who have had actual school experience. They should serve without pay, except for the necessary expenses when attending board meetings. Their duties are strictly legislative, leaving all executive functions to the county superintendent. Among progressive States with modern county school systems the following are recognized as duties of the county board of education:

1. To enforce the laws relative to education and the rules and regulations of the State board of education within their respective counties.
2. To select the county superintendent and all necessary supervisors and office assistants; also to select one director for each school community within their jurisdiction, who shall be the custodian of local school property and represent local needs before the county boards.
3. To have direct charge of all county schools outside of incorporated city districts, including the closing of unnecessary schools,

building new schools, consolidating schools, and conveying children to school, and organizing rural high schools.

4. To select all teachers needed in the county schools, on nomination of the county superintendent.

5. To levy a uniform school tax on all the taxable property of the county under legal limitations and to expend the funds thus procured to equalize educational advantages among all the school children of the county.

6. To exercise all other powers and duties not enumerated above but which are prescribed by law.

Subdistrict trustees.—In nearly all States organized with the county as the unit for administrative purposes, subdistrict trustees, one to three for each school or school district, are appointed by the board or elected by the people to have general charge of the school plant, to perform certain duties assigned either by law or by the county board of education, and to act in an advisory capacity to the county board concerning school conditions in their districts. These subdistrict trustees act as local representatives of the people of the county, receive suggestions from the people, and make recommendations to the county board on the basis of these suggestions. In some States they are intrusted with important duties, such as keeping the school building in repair, having charge of the care and supply of school equipment, assisting in enforcement of the compulsory education law, and taking the school census.

THE COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS¹¹

The rapid changes in American life have thrust new responsibilities on the superintendent as well as on his teachers. He still retains the clerical and financial duties assigned when the office was established. New developments in educational ideals and new appreciation of the importance of the professional administration of schools, the growth of a scientific attitude toward education, and the application of the results of scientific experimentation to school organization and methods of instruction have revolutionized our ideas concerning the selection of and the responsibilities which should be ascribed to this officer. The county superintendency is now considered the strategic position in the reorganization and improvement of rural education. The office demands a person of ability and professional training and experience equal to that of other responsible educational positions. In 38 States county superintendents are the supervisory officers for the rural schools of the counties and have certain administrative responsibilities varying in degree in the different States. In New England the supervising officer is the town or union superintendent.

¹¹ For complete information, see U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1922, No. 10.

One State has also "supervising agents." In New York the rural superintendents are called "district superintendents" and supervise a section of a county. In Nevada they are deputy State superintendents and supervise one or several counties. In Virginia they are division superintendents, and in many cases the division and the county are coterminous. In Delaware there are no county superintendents, but State officials assume duties formerly assigned to the county superintendent. The term of office of the rural superintendent is four years in 18 States, two years in 16, and varies in the others. In 25 of these States the county superintendents are elected by the people, usually in the same manner as other county officers; in others they are appointed by boards; in New Jersey and Virginia they are appointed by the State board or State chief school officer.

The system of electing county superintendents at the regular political election partakes of those weaknesses indicated in discussing the office of the State chief school officer. Cities no longer select their superintendents by popular vote. Experience has taught them that an executive officer for such a position should be carefully selected by a responsible board in a manner similar to that in which boards of directors of business organizations select their executive officers. Although many competent superintendents are found under the elective system, it is on the whole an unsatisfactory method of selecting school officials. Political affairs consume the time and influence the action of officers elected in this way; tenure is uncertain and short; the officer must be a resident of the county, even though a better candidate could be secured if selection were made from a larger territory.

The powers and duties of the county superintendent should be practically the same as those of the city superintendent of schools.

1. He is the executive officer of the county board of education and administers under its legislation the educational policies determined by it.

2. He is the chief educational officer of the county and is primarily responsible for the conduct of the schools as their professional leader.

3. It is his duty to make recommendations relative to the location of schools, the number of grades required, the type of building and equipment, etc.

4. He selects supervisors, principals, and teachers for the schools, which appointments are formally approved by the school board.

5. He supervises the teaching in all schools under the county board, either directly or through assistants.

6. He determines the course of study and the textbooks to be used, subject to State regulations and the approval of the county board.

7. He provides for teachers' meetings and for a system of in-service training and unifies and harmonizes through his school system the work of the schools.

8. He sees that all records of educational activities are kept in proper form.

9. He has charge of health education, including health inspection, in conjunction with the county medical authorities.

10. He sees that the school census is taken and that the compulsory education laws are enforced.

CONSOLIDATED DISTRICTS AND CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS

There are approximately 160,000 one-teacher schools in the United States. The number is decreasing steadily. More than 10,000 of them were closed in the biennium 1922-1924. They are growing into larger schools, or are being united with other schools to form central graded village or open country schools. These larger rural schools gain in number as the smaller ones diminish in number. More than 2,000 were formed during the biennium 1922-1924. At the present time there are approximately 15,000 consolidated schools in the United States. They have long been recognized as a means for providing rural children with educational opportunity equivalent to that provided city children.

To consider the consolidated school the end of an administrative problem is a serious mistake; it is simply the manipulation of a school system's organization machinery in order that better classification, supervision, and groupings may be made. The consolidation or centralization of rural schools requires intelligent planning, and the best results have been secured where all the schools for an entire county were considered before any part of a consolidation program was begun. At least one State has enacted legislation which requires county boards of education to consolidate districts and change boundaries in accordance with an approved "county-wide plan of organization." More attention is being given in recent years to the proper organization of consolidated schools. Many of those already established are being strengthened and improved, and county officials are mapping districts more nearly in accordance with community boundary lines.

Consolidated schools, or districts, are established in various ways. The most common method is to proceed under detailed laws by which the patrons of the schools start the movement and vote upon it at a regular or special election. If a majority of the votes cast in *each* district, or, better, a majority in *all* the districts or territory included, are in favor of the consolidation, it is effected. Each of the uniting districts gives up its district boundaries and school board

and becomes part of the one large district. The advantages of such a procedure are that it arouses the interest of an entire community; the consolidation is thoroughly talked over, and if the school is established it is fairly sure to be a strong one. Care should be taken in framing laws of this kind, that the consolidated district will receive as much State and county money as the entire number of uniting districts would, that any indebtedness of any of the districts be equitably adjusted for the entire consolidation, and that the school property of all the districts be vested in the one.

A second kind of law permits consolidation on petition to the county superintendent, the county board of education, or commissioners, or the district boundary board—whatever authority has power to create or change districts—a public hearing being first granted by that authority. The patrons of the schools have a voice in the matter, but it is expressed in petition and hearing, not in an election. This method is simple and effective.

A third kind of law gives the county board of education the power to consolidate schools on its own initiative and at its own discretion. This is the most satisfactory plan yet devised for the reorganization of a county's school system. With the county as a single unit for educational administrative purposes, as it is for almost all other public business, and with a representative county board of education responsible for the welfare of all schools in their county, it is simply a matter for such board to apply modern business principles to that county's school organization. Excellent examples are common in a number of States, and a few county boards of education have succeeded in providing graded elementary schools, replacing small ungraded schools, for all pupils in their respective counties.

Similar to this, but of more limited application, are laws giving district boards power to consolidate schools within districts. These laws are being used to advantage in some sections in bringing about consolidation.

A fifth kind of consolidation law is common in the town unit States. The town is given control of the schools and may fix their number and determine their location. The town meeting decides the question. This is the usual procedure in the New England States. So far as secondary education is concerned, the New England States and some others are furthering centralization by providing for State funds for the payment of tuition and transportation for nonresident students, an excellent way of preventing dissipation of energy.

In some States organized on the township basis similar procedure may be followed. The schools are directed by township boards of trustees. There is, however, no adequate provision for establishing

schools on community rather than township lines. The township is often too small a unit territorially and financially for the establishment of satisfactory schools, and particularly for providing for high-school facilities. In several States organized on the township basis there is a movement for change to a larger unit. One reason for the change advanced is the possibility of securing thereby more effective consolidated units.

The laws providing for county secondary schools in district unit States make up another class. Some of these provide for one or more county high schools for a county, independent in administration and support from the elementary schools, and maintained by a tax on the entire county. Many very strong schools have been built under their provisions. The dual system thereby set up sometimes occasions conflicts between the elementary schools and the high school of the county and makes close correlation of work between the two classes of schools difficult.

Union high schools are established under laws which permit a number of districts to retain their own elementary schools, while all join in maintaining one central high school. The laws responsible for such schools, most common in the Western States, have resulted in the establishment of some very fine schools. In small communities and sparsely settled regions such schools are not feasible, but in more densely populated areas the union high school serves well.

In some States independent, special, and consolidated school districts are created by special acts of the legislature. The procedure is generally unsatisfactory. It postpones the development of the organization of larger areas, tends to create many small systems, and generally acts to interfere with equalized educational opportunity.

Among the important State laws relating to consolidation are those which provide for the following:

1. The establishment of minimum limits of area served, enrollment, average daily attendance, and length of term below which a school or district may not be created, or if created may not continue its existence.
2. An effective, quick way of uniting schools or districts, preferably in response to local demand, retaining for the united institution the full amount of apportionments the separate units would receive, arranging for an equitable assumption of any indebtedness, and providing for the proper disposal of any unnecessary school property.
3. Centralized authority for the planning and carrying out of programs of consolidation over large areas, thereby insuring equitable distribution of resources and school facilities, and adequate consideration to schools in isolated, or backward strips of territory.

4. The authorization of the junior high school with a view to centralizing the work of the upper elementary grades when full consolidation is not feasible.

5. Restrictions on the number of senior high schools established, adequate to insure strong schools, with tuition and transportation, or board and room, provided for those students who do not have easy access to such a school.

6. Permissive transportation of pupils at public expense to and from all schools.

STANDARDIZATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

State departments of education in 31 States are, at the present time, promoting standardization of rural schools, either by authority of the statutes or by rules and regulations of their chief executive school heads, according to information received by the Bureau of Education. In a few other States county superintendents promote a plan of standardization within their respective counties.

In some of the 31 States standardization applies particularly to small rural schools, especially those of the one-teacher type. In others it includes all rural schools—graded and consolidated as well as ungraded. It is, however, with the improvement of the small rural schools, particularly those where consolidation is not yet feasible, that standardization is most concerned.

Requirements for standardization.—Among the important requirements relating to standardization of rural schools that have been written into the statutes or adopted by regulations of State school executive heads are:

(1) The school site should be well drained, level, fertile, contain at least 2 acres of ground.

(2) The school building should comply with accepted standards relating to number of rooms and their dimensions, color scheme for walls and ceilings, replacement and glass area of windows, heating and ventilation, and amount and kind of equipment.

(3) The minimum scholastic preparation of the teacher should be completion of four years of high school, plus a two-year normal course, and two years of successful experience.

(4) The school term should be nine months; the average daily attendance at least 90 per cent of the enrollment, and the enrollment 90 per cent of the educables of the district; there should be a well-planned daily program; and the State course of study should be followed.

TABLE 5.—Standardization of rural schools¹

[Data for 1924 and 1925]

State	Authority		Year adopted	Number and kind of standard schools	Scored by county or town superintendent, I; school board, II; State department of education, III; teacher, IV	Tablet or door-plate	Certificate	Rewards
	Statute	Rule of State officer or board						
Colorado.....		X	1915	Consolidated, 34; 4-6 rooms, 82; 2-3 rooms, 101; 1 room, 215.	I.....	X		Money, maximum yearly bonus per school
Connecticut.....			1917	Standard, 12.	I, III.....	X		
Florida.....	X	X	1919	State accredited, 245.	I, II.....	X		
Georgia.....	X	X	1912	Standard (1922), 400.	I, III.....	X		
Idaho.....	X	X	1916	Standard (1922), 600.	I, III.....	X		
Illinois.....	X	X	1907	Standard and superior, 4,500.	I, III.....	X		
Indiana.....	X	X	1921	First class, 450; second class, 334.	I, III.....	X		
Iowa.....	X	X	1919	Standard, 1,134.	I, III.....	X		
Kansas.....	X	X	1915	Standard rural, 812; standard graded, 70; superior, rural, and graded, 25.	III.....	X		\$4 per pupil.
Maine.....	X	X	1919	Standard (includes 17 consolidated), 142.	III.....	X		
Maryland.....	X	X	1919	Standard, 41.	III.....	X		
Michigan.....	X	X	1913	Standard, 789.	I, III.....	X		
Minnesota.....	X	X	1887	Ungraded elementary, 5,060; consolidated districts, 116.	I, III.....	X		Ungraded elementary, first class, \$150; consolidated, per district, \$4,000 for transportation, \$6,000 for buildings.
Missouri.....		X	1909	First class, 46; second class, 108.	I, III.....	X		
Montana.....		X	1913	Standard and superior (1922), 465.	I, III, IV.....	X		
Nebraska.....		X	1915	Standard, 301.	I, III.....	X		
Nevada.....		X	1921	Standard, 2.	III.....	X		
New Jersey.....		X	1914	Standard, 54.	I, I, III.....	X		
North Dakota.....		X	1911	State rural, 1,072; State graded, 40; graded consolidated, 396.	III.....	X		State rural, \$60; State graded, \$100; graded consolidated, \$400.
Ohio.....	X	X	1914	One room and consolidated (1922), 430.	I, III.....	X		
Oklahoma.....	X	X	1913	Model and superior, 539.	I, III.....	X		
Oregon.....	X	X	1914	Standard, 692.	I, III.....	X		
Pennsylvania.....	X	X	1919	One teacher, 8,550; consolidated, 450.	I, III.....	X		Consolidated, \$3,000 (transportation per district). State rural, \$150; State consolidated, \$400; State consolidated high, \$600 \$1.50 salary per month per teacher; \$250 for instruction in practical arts. \$300.
South Dakota.....	X	X	1919	State rural, 417; State consolidated, 62; State consolidated high, 19.	III.....	X		One room, \$150; two rooms, \$225; three or more rooms, \$300.
Texas.....	X	X	1916	Standard, 60; superior, 41.	I, II, III, IV.....	X		
Vermont.....		X	1921	One room, two rooms, three or more rooms, 620.	I, II, III.....	X		
Virginia.....		X	1921	Standard, 60; superior, 41.	I, II, III, IV.....	X		

	1917	1921	A, B, C, D, E. One teacher, 109; graded, 2; semiconsoli- dated 14; consolidated, 81. Rural, 598; State graded, 612. Standard, 200	III III	X	X	One teacher, \$120; consolidated, \$800. Rural, \$50; State graded, \$300.
Washington.....	X			III			
West Virginia.....	X			III	X		
Wisconsin.....		† 1901 ‡ 1907		I, II, III	† X		
Wyoming.....		X		III	X		

† For more detailed information see U. S. Bu. of Educ. Rural School Leaflet No. 32, 1925.

‡ Consolidated.
† 1 teacher.
† State graded.
† Rural.

Chapter III

SCHOOL COSTS AND SCHOOL SUPPORT

The constantly increasing cost of public education, paralleling that of living and of government in general, is of concern to legislators and citizens generally. Recently the Federal Government has been reducing the cost of maintaining its various establishments and activities and correspondingly reducing income taxes and other forms of Federal taxation. As yet, however, the relief in the total taxation exacted from the average citizen is slight, as costs of State, county, local, and municipal government have remained the same or even increased, thus offsetting Federal reductions. The cost of maintaining public education, the sources from which funds are received for school support, methods of distributing State moneys among local schools and districts so as more nearly to equalize educational opportunities of children and tax burdens of citizens, are matters of paramount importance to legislators and others responsible for enacting or recommending laws governing the support of public education.

It is recognized that the costs of education have increased greatly since 1914, that public-spirited citizens desire to continue to support schools liberally, and that they must be conducted economically. Judgment can not be passed on the necessity of school expenditures and their increase year by year except in the light of comparison with other factors conditioning the cost, including, of course, the different purchasing power of the dollar in the respective years considered. Information collected in the United States Bureau of Education comparing annual expenditures in the years 1913, 1918, 1920, 1922, and 1924 with the purchasing power of the dollar in these years indicates that school costs have not increased to the degree many persons thought; nor to the extent that figures showing actual expenditures alone, unmodified by consideration of the decreased purchasing power of the dollar and by the increase in school attendance, would indicate. (See Tables 6 and 7.) The relationship between expenditures for maintenance and purchasing power in 1913 dollars for the three annual periods 1913, 1919, and 1925 for one State are shown in Figure 3. This is reasonably typical of the relation between actual expenditures and purchasing power measured by the 1913 dollar in other States.

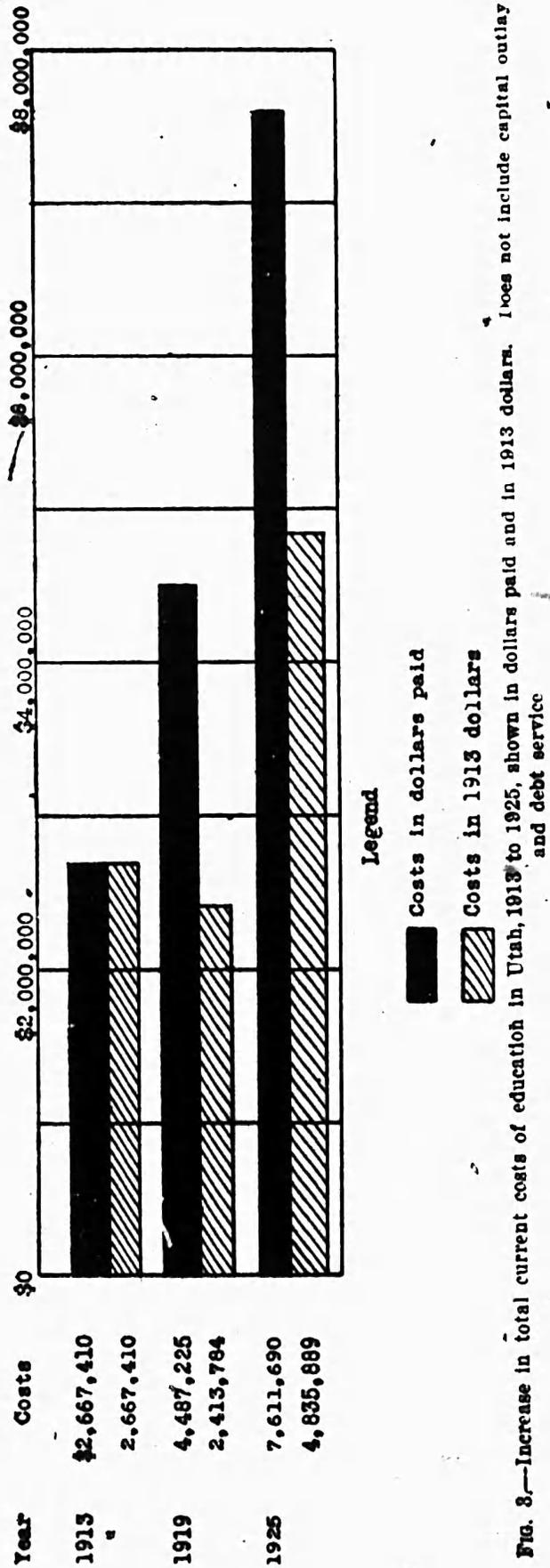


FIG. 3.—Increase in total current costs of education in Utah, 1913 to 1925, shown in dollars paid and in 1913 dollars. Does not include capital outlay and debt service

TABLE 6.—Total expenditures for public schools in the United States¹

Year	Actual total expenditure (millions of dollars)	Index of cost of living ²	Purchasing power of total expenditure (millions of dollars) ³
	A	B	C
1913.....	52	100	522
1918.....	762	174	438
1920.....	1,036	200	518
1922.....	1,581	169.5	933
1924.....	1,821	172.5	1,056

¹ For all costs except debt service.² Index figures taken from Nat. Educ. Assoc. Research Bul., vol. 1, No. 2, p. 94.³ The formula used in computing items in column C is, $C = \frac{A \times B}{100}$.

TABLE 7.—Average daily attendance in elementary and secondary schools at different dates

State	1870-71 ¹	1879-80	1889-90	1899-1900	1909-10	1919-20	1923-24
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Continental United States.....	4,545,317	6,144,143	8,168,635	10,632,772	12,827,307	16,150,035	19,132,451
Alabama.....	107,666	117,978	182,467	297,805	286,589	367,554	418,191
Arizona.....	2,847	4,702	10,177	20,094	40,420	54,911	362,838
Arkansas.....	46,600	54,708	148,714	195,401	255,135	320,053	706,179
California.....	64,286	100,966	146,589	197,395	286,744	480,864	179,476
Colorado.....	2,611	12,618	38,715	73,291	107,520	150,090	237,748
Connecticut.....	62,683	73,546	83,656	111,564	147,190	205,213	31,968
Delaware.....	12,700	17,439	19,649	25,300	22,559	27,368	59,529
District of Columbia.....	10,261	20,637	28,184	35,468	44,627	52,739	197,482
Florida.....	10,900	27,046	64,819	75,008	103,892	165,720	545,465
Georgia.....	31,377	145,190	240,791	298,237	346,295	467,081	88,806
Idaho.....	600	3,863	19,500	21,962	51,137	84,642	1,092,489
Illinois.....	341,686	431,638	538,310	737,576	779,040	956,090	553,343
Indiana.....	295,071	321,659	342,275	420,506	420,780	457,113	449,392
Iowa.....	211,562	259,836	306,309	373,474	360,178	405,567	363,840
Kansas.....	52,891	137,669	243,300	261,788	291,329	309,505	414,562
Kentucky.....	129,866	178,000	225,739	310,339	315,196	342,669	290,736
Louisiana.....	40,500	54,800	87,536	146,328	182,659	256,133	129,888
Maine.....	100,392	103,115	98,964	97,697	106,955	115,885	203,762
Maryland.....	56,435	85,778	102,351	134,400	145,762	176,312	606,009
Massachusetts.....	201,750	233,127	273,910	366,136	444,060	519,905	650,472
Michigan.....	198,000	240,000	282,000	355,226	443,458	521,251	429,882
Minnesota.....	50,694	178,400	127,025	243,224	348,600	394,859	388,643
Mississippi.....	90,000	156,761	207,704	224,526	261,384	259,982	579,513
Missouri.....	187,024	281,000	384,627	460,012	490,390	531,221	96,354
Montana.....	1,100	3,000	10,596	26,300	41,314	91,744	263,572
Nebraska.....	14,300	60,156	146,139	181,874	191,076	232,515	12,354
Nevada.....	1,800	5,401	5,064	4,698	7,400	10,625	59,970
New Hampshire.....	48,150	48,966	41,526	47,276	50,101	53,245	556,981
New Jersey.....	86,812	115,194	133,286	207,947	324,239	476,261	64,456
New Mexico.....	880	3,150	13,000	22,433	37,389	59,442	1,610,076
New York.....	493,648	573,089	642,984	857,488	1,122,649	1,361,600	571,359
North Carolina.....	73,000	170,100	203,100	206,918	331,335	473,552	144,263
North Dakota.....	1,040	8,530	20,694	43,500	90,149	128,436	2,013,122
Ohio.....	432,452	476,279	549,269	616,265	648,544	808,712	441,035
Oklahoma.....	63,718	278,650	355,998	149,128
Oregon.....	15,000	27,435	43,333	64,411	103,563	136,575	1,495,842
Pennsylvania.....	567,188	601,627	682,941	854,640	1,001,464	1,260,350

¹ Approximate.² High-school attendance not reported.³ Figures for 1919.

TABLE 7.—Average daily attendance in elementary and secondary schools at different dates—Continued

State	1870-71 ¹	1870-80	1880-90	1890-1900	1900-10	1919-20	1923-24
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Rhode Island.....	22,485	27,217	33,905	47,124	61,487	73,387	89,277
South Carolina.....	44,700	¹ 90,600	147,799	201,295	243,901	331,451	324,822
South Dakota.....	(*)	(*)	48,327	¹ 68,000	80,032	98,907	132,022
Tennessee.....	89,000	208,528	323,548	338,566	363,953	457,503	448,045
Texas.....	41,000	¹ 132,000	291,941	438,779	544,691	745,667	976,204
Utah.....	12,819	17,178	30,767	50,595	69,246	97,745	110,184
Vermont.....	44,100	48,606	45,887	47,020	52,104	50,186	57,498
Virginia.....	77,402	128,404	198,290	216,464	259,394	351,171	417,786
Washington.....	3,300	10,546	30,946	74,717	156,064	211,239	247,381
West Virginia.....	51,336	91,604	121,700	151,254	189,900	256,479	310,550
Wisconsin.....	132,000	¹ 156,000	200,457	¹ 309,800	320,439	368,712	454,907
Wyoming.....	250	1,920	¹ 4,700	¹ 9,650	16,730	33,297	41,146
<i>Outlying possessions</i>							
Alaska.....						2,505	3,137
American Samoa.....							1,428
Canal Zone.....						2,575	3,202
Guam.....							2,336
Hawaii.....						38,451	47,518
Philippine Islands.....						756,533	957,123
Porto Rico.....						145,250	180,933
Virgin Islands.....							2,087

¹ Approximate.⁴ Included with North Dakota.

Why school costs have increased.—Important factors responsible for the increase in total annual expenditure on school support in the United States are (1) the decrease in the purchasing power of the dollar; (2) the great increase in school enrollment and attendance and consequent increase in number of teachers and equipment necessitated thereby; (3) the large proportionate increase in attendance in secondary schools, the per capita cost of maintaining which is approximately double that of maintaining elementary schools; (4) the provision of better facilities, particularly those which satisfy the needs of a broader curriculum involving additional special subjects and teachers; and (5) the need for a large school-building program because of the practical stagnation of building and improvement during the war period. It should be remembered that we expect more of our schools now than in the past and that we expect also better work, better trained teachers, a far broader training, more consideration to hygienic and sanitary conditions of buildings and grounds, and the like, and that materialization of all of these ideals means vastly increased expenditure of money.

The latest figures obtainable concerning cost of education in 1924 for the United States as a whole and for each State are given in Table 8. Table 9 shows the cost per pupil based on average daily attendance in elementary schools and in secondary schools in certain selected States. These averages may be used as guides in estimating probable expenditures necessary for the coming school year or years.

In many of the States the low average cost shown in the table is due to the fact that the State has a large number of poor country schools maintaining short terms and paying inadequate salaries to teachers.

TABLE 8.—Cost of education per pupil attending

Continental United States	\$95. 16	Nebraska	\$101. 58
Alabama	34. 40	Nevada	170. 94
Arizona	145. 24	New Hampshire	97. 25
Arkansas	28. 02	New Jersey	141. 78
California	175. 94	New Mexico	73. 81
Colorado	127. 94	New York	151. 21
Connecticut	105. 14	North Carolina	54. 22
Delaware	100. 21	North Dakota	115. 81
District of Columbia	112. 01	Ohio	122. 38
Florida	62. 70	Oklahoma	74. 08
Georgia	31. 70	Oregon	109. 92
Idaho	101. 04	Pennsylvania	100. 22
Illinois	105. 48	Rhode Island	96. 40
Indiana	92. 47	South Carolina	39. 48
Iowa	107. 24	South Dakota	117. 94
Kansas	96. 99	Tennessee	37. 57
Kentucky	41. 47	Texas	57. 04
Louisiana	64. 83	Utah	84. 86
Maine	77. 99	Vermont	70. 03
Maryland	100. 56	Virginia	48. 60
Massachusetts	115. 69	Washington	110. 61
Michigan	127. 38	West Virginia	72. 31
Minnesota	128. 86	Wisconsin	97. 46
Mississippi	25. 30	Wyoming	141. 82
Missouri	79. 36		
Montana	111. 57		

TABLE 9.—Cost of education per pupil in average daily attendance in elementary and secondary schools

State	Elementary day schools	Secondary day schools	State	Elementary day schools	Secondary day schools
Alabama	\$26. 06	\$82. 69	Nevada	\$136. 69	\$232. 77
Arizona	106. 86	260. 73	New Jersey	114. 87	226. 48
Arkansas	33. 45	165. 99	Oklahoma	50. 30	161. 47
California	119. 44	345. 02	Oregon	89. 42	166. 38
Connecticut	85. 07	228. 55	West Virginia	53. 38	245. 63
District of Columbia	88. 55	200. 21			
Indiana	67. 55	146. 69	Average	73. 91	212. 24
Montana	127. 64	132. 80			

When a State provides all of its children equal educational opportunities the average cost for the State as a whole will approach the average maintained by its better cities. Allowing for the actual difference in the cost of maintaining urban and rural schools of equal grade, it is safe to say that when the cost per child per day in any State is lower than the average for the United States, that State is probably spending less than it should on education.

SOURCES OF SCHOOL FUNDS

School moneys are now provided by States, counties, cities, townships, and districts. In all States a portion of the total cost is borne by the State. The proportional amount varies greatly, from Delaware, which provides 76.1 per cent, to Kansas, which provides 1.6 per cent. For the United States as a whole, approximately three-fourths of the total cost is borne by local school units. In some

States the chief source of local support is a county tax. In others it is a county tax with a special school district tax. In others there is the local school district tax only. State school funds are received

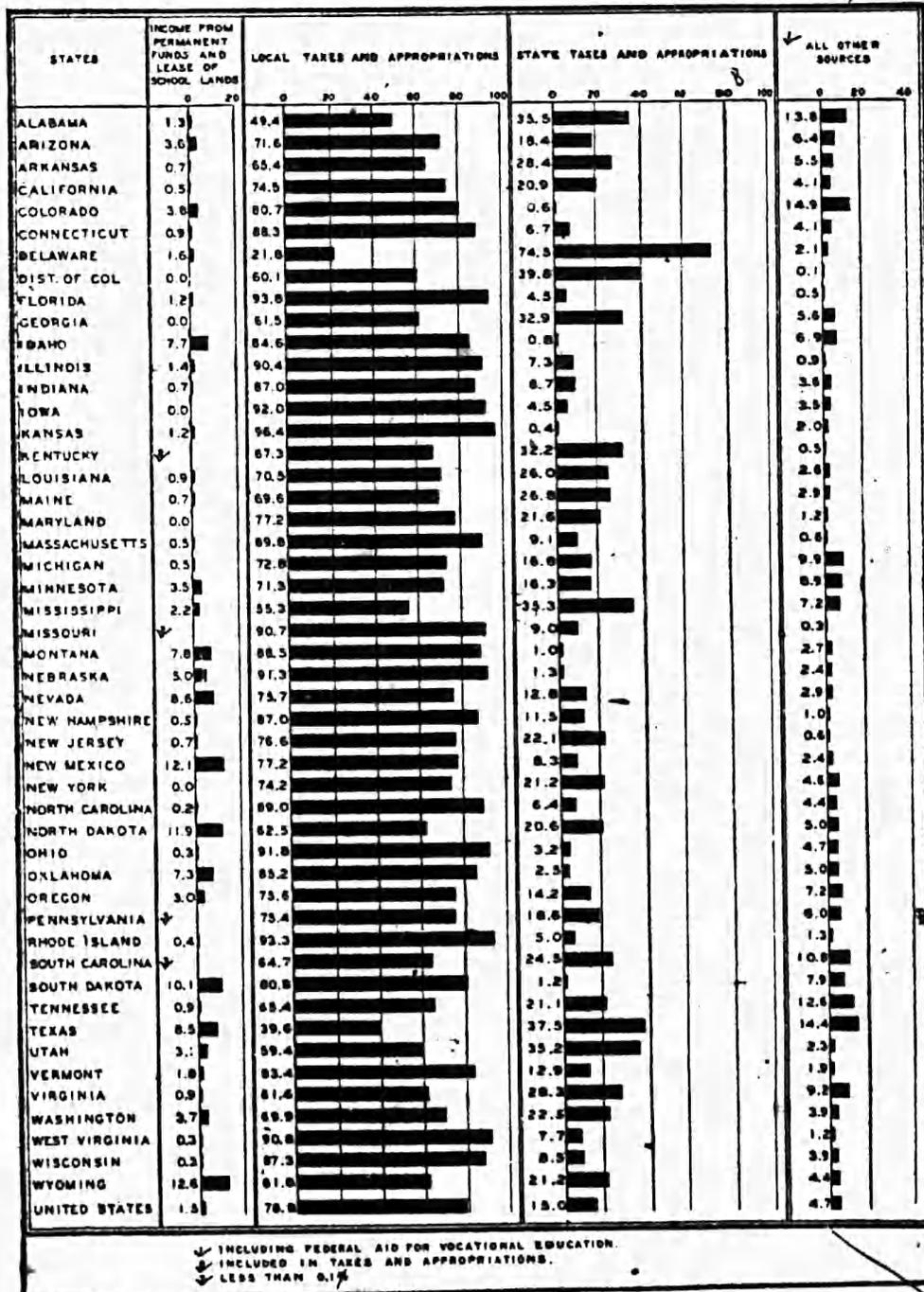


FIG. 4.—Percentage distribution of total revenue receipts by States, 1924

from a number of sources, among them permanent invested funds, State property tax, appropriations from general State revenues, miscellaneous sources, such as corporation tax, income tax, severance tax.

The permanent school funds are largely derived from the sale of school lands. These lands were given by acts of Congress to the several States for the benefit of public education. In a few cases States also set aside lands for the benefit of education.

STATE TAXES AND APPROPRIATIONS

State school tax funds are generally derived from one or more of the following sources: (1) State-wide tax on all taxable real and personal property, the rate fixed in the statutes or in the constitution; (2) State-wide tax on all taxable real and personal property, the rate variable; the total amount or the per capita amount to be raised fixed by statute (per capita may be scholastic population, average daily attendance, or other unit); (3) a fixed portion of State gross receipts; (4) all or a portion of the proceeds of special taxes, such as income taxes, inheritance taxes, taxes on stocks and bonds, poll taxes. State appropriations result from direct legislative enactment, made as a rule annually or biennially. There is at present a great amount of interest in the possibilities of special taxation sources for school support. This is due to the fact that property tax is now in many States the sole source of school funds as well as the sole source of support for all local and State government, and property is becoming more and more heavily burdened. It is believed by some authorities on taxation that unless property is relieved from taxation for some type of public-service purposes, property ownership, even home ownership, may become burdensome. There is the added consideration that in a number of States the valuations are not equalized among local school districts, counties, or other units of taxation, and that when a particular millage levy is made for State purposes it becomes unfair to certain local units. The system puts a premium on the tendency to place low valuations on property within local units by local authorities. A State general property tax has been found, therefore, to encourage constituent political corporations to lower their valuations. The more the valuation is lowered, the smaller will be the amount paid into the State treasury. Tax units which assess their property at a high per cent of their true valuation are, therefore, penalized twice; first, when they pay State taxes at the same rate that units assessing their property at a low per cent of their true valuation pay; second, when State funds are apportioned, since they are then prorated to them on the same basis as to districts paying State tax on a low-tax valuation. Many authorities on taxation condemn, for the above and other reasons, general property tax as the sole source of school revenue.

Newer types of State taxes.—States are employing to a considerable extent corporation taxes, income taxes, and other types of taxes instead of, or in addition to, general property taxes as a means of producing State school revenues. For example, schools in New

Hampshire, Maine, New Jersey, Virginia, California, Delaware, and Wisconsin are supported in part by one or more of the following: Corporation tax, bank tax, railroad tax, public service and insurance companies tax. Income taxes are used for schools in Massachusetts, North Carolina, Arkansas, and Delaware; inheritance tax in California, Virginia, Louisiana, Michigan, and Kentucky; severance tax in Louisiana and Arkansas.¹ State income taxes for schools are considered an excellent source of funds. The use of this source has not extended so rapidly as its advocates hoped, owing to the creation of the Federal income tax.

The severance tax is a tax levied on all natural products severed from the soil except agricultural. It is believed by many students of taxation that when minerals, timber, clay, and other natural products are removed the State is permanently impoverished, and that those profiting by it should pay tribute which can properly be spent on the education of future citizens of the State. Severance tax and State income tax are steadily growing in popular esteem as sources of moneys for school support. An extract from the annual report of the Illinois Tax Commission, made in 1922, indicates this:

It is absolutely essential that the State of Illinois, by amendment of its constitution and the passage of appropriate legislation, provide by more modern methods for the realization of a substantial part of the revenues required for public purposes by the State and its political subdivisions, so that in some measure the vast bulk of property invisible to the assessing authorities physically, but productive of very large income values, may be required to contribute its fair proportion to the public burden.

This can be accomplished in part by the use of production or severance taxes upon coal, oil, and mineral deposits in the State which upon removal are forever lost as an element of value subject to taxation, and by license and business taxes upon the activities of the people engaged in trade and callings of such productive character as to be able to bear the same without impairing the maintenance and operation of essential industry.

We recommend favorable consideration of laws proposed to levy a production or severance tax on coal, oil, and minerals, and such additional taxes on occupations and privileges as will contribute measurably to the public revenues without being restrictive of commercial or industrial developments.

It has been emphasized also by students of taxation that whenever possible the State should draw its revenues from sources other than those taxed by its constituent public corporations. This principle has been definitely and practically recognized in at least two States, Massachusetts and California. Whenever new types of State taxation are proposed it is necessary to emphasize the fact that the reason for introducing such taxes is to reduce the general property tax, both State and local, as far as possible. New sources of income should not be an added burden, but should tend toward a better distribution of tax burdens.

¹ Study of school support in Utah by Fletcher Harper Swift.

Equalization funds.—The necessity of some type of equalization fund coming from State sources is becoming very generally recognized. Twenty-four States now provide State equalization funds in varying forms and in varying amounts. It is now becoming generally recognized that the evening out of inequalities within the component parts of State school systems can be done only through equalization funds or through State support of minimum school programs. The amount and method of distributing equalization funds is a problem which must be carefully worked out in each State on the basis of its school needs and conditions, administrative organization, methods of taxation for support of public institutions, and the like.

While the source from which State school funds should come and the proportion which the State should contribute toward the maintenance of its schools are important questions in the welfare of a State school system, the essence of equalization of educational opportunity lies in the method of distribution. Undoubtedly there are many States now contributing enough from State funds to the support of schools to go a long way in the direction of equalizing educational opportunities if the funds were scientifically distributed. Distribution of funds on the school-population basis is the oldest and still the prevailing method of distribution. It was, at the time of its adoption, believed the fairest possible method, and it was hoped that it would assist in equalizing educational opportunities. The fact that general development, concentration of wealth and population, centralization of natural resources, and other influences have resulted in changing conditions to such an extent that the method is no longer an equitable one is responsible for its being discredited at the present time as a method unscientific and inequitable. Progressive States are adopting more effective methods of distribution for all or part of their State funds. Progress in this direction is retarded in many States by the fact that the census-enrollment basis of distribution is provided for in the State constitution and is therefore difficult to change.

The most common methods of distribution of State funds among the different States are: (1) Per pupil basis, either school census, average daily attendance, aggregate attendance, or enrollment. Forty-five States distribute some or all of their funds on one of these per-pupil bases. (2) Per teacher basis, including number of teachers, graduated grant proportioned to salary basis, graduated grant proportioned to qualifications basis. Sixteen States use one or more of these in distributing some of their State funds. (3) On some specifically equalizing basis. Twenty-four States now have equalizing funds. (4) Miscellaneous bases or combinations of different bases.

Of these different methods, distribution on the census basis is considered least equalizing in effect. School enrollment basis, average

daily attendance or aggregate attendance basis, number of teachers employed, distribution of State money in inverse ratio to the tax valuation of the unit to which it is distributed and direct ratio to the tax rate, are other methods of distribution which are considered better. In some States combinations are employed with advantage. Any State considering changing its system of support and its method of distributing State funds should provide that a careful study of the whole situation in the State be made in order that the distribution adopted may be an equalizing one, combining the best elements of methods used in the most progressive States.

Another distributive plan extensively used in a number of States is that of encouraging progress in individual communities by rewarding through State funds special effort on the part of local districts. Frequently the State matches dollar for dollar a certain maximum amount raised by a local district. This system was inaugurated because it was believed it was a good method to promote progressive practices. Recent studies indicate that State funds can not be satisfactorily used both to equalize opportunity and to encourage progress in individual communities by rewarding effort unless two different funds and systems of distribution are practiced. This has led to a reexamination of State-aid systems. Reward for effort, while an administrative device for encouraging progress, has not the same claim as a State responsibility as that of equalization of educational opportunity. Of the two the latter is of greater importance.

Recently the State of New York made significant changes in (1) its laws concerning financial aid to enlarged districts and (2) in the apportionment of State moneys appropriated for the support of schools. The former applies to certain districts established by consolidation of two or more districts and aims to insure that when several districts consolidate the resulting consolidated district will receive quotas in the same amount and under the same conditions as though such consolidation had not been effected. This law is designed either to promote consolidation or at least to avoid depriving districts which consolidate of the funds they would otherwise be entitled to. It prevents discriminating against districts which consolidate in the distribution of State funds.

The equalizing method of distribution adopted was based in part on the result of a study and report of a legislative committee.²

The plan aims to determine the educational task by adopting a "weighted-pupil" measure rather than number of teachers, number of pupils, or actual expenditure—measures now used in some States. The following statement of certain essentials and principles embodied in the report is from an article by Paul Mort, Equalization of

² Report of State Aid to Public Schools in New York State, prepared for a joint legislative committee by Paul Mort, with the advice and cooperation of G. D. Strayer, J. R. McGaughey, and Robert M. Haig.

Educational Opportunity, Journal of Educational Research, February, 1926, Vol. XIII, No. 2, p. 94:

Taking the offering demanded by a given program for a city elementary child as a unit, this device weights a pupil when measuring the need in any other situation or in any type of education recognized on the minimum program by an amount representing the relative cost of giving the pupil what would reasonably be accepted as an equivalent offering. For instance, a city high-school child is given a weighting of two; that is, a city high-school child counts two weighted pupils.

The minimum program cost on which the study (not the law) was made was a \$70 educational offering (cost per year). The author states that "improvement of the present system must come through a change in the (present) method of measuring need of communities for aid and from a consideration of the wealth of communities in the distribution of funds."

The following ends were sought in developing the plan:

(1) A \$70 education, that is, an annual current expenditure of \$70 per weighted pupil, should be provided throughout the State. (2) The burden of this \$70 education should be distributed so as to bear upon the people in all localities at the same rate in relation to their tax-paying ability. (3) No community should receive less State aid than it now receives. (4) Of the total amount of State aid the maximum amount possible should go toward equalization of educational opportunity. (5) The plan should demand as small an amount of State aid and therefore as large a degree of local support as possible.

The ends (3) and (5) are not essential to equalization. They are incorporated for other reasons.

Some of the principles apparently influencing the legislation passed by Massachusetts in 1919 and 1922 are as follows: (1) State aid should be given in the form of reimbursements for money previously expended; (2) the amount of State aid granted shall be determined by (a) the community's ability to help itself as indicated by its assessed valuation, (b) the community's effort as indicated by its local tax rate, and (c) the quality of educational opportunity the community seeks to furnish as indicated by the number and preparation of teachers and the character of the educational facilities provided.

Besides New York and Massachusetts, California, Maryland, North Carolina, Minnesota, Delaware, and a number of other States have worked out methods of distributing their funds which are equalizing in effect. These methods are not alike. Each has some strong and some weak characteristics. They are, however, well worth studying by States considering changes in distribution of funds.

LOCAL TAXATION

The difficulty of supporting schools in local districts dependent wholly or in large part on local taxation has long been recognized.

Generally speaking, the smaller the local units the more inequitable are school opportunities furnished under this system. In States in which a reasonably large percentage of the support comes from a county tax assessed on all property of the county, including independent city school districts, and then divided between the city systems and the rural schools of the county on some equitable basis, the inequalities are overcome to a certain extent. Unless, however, such funds are supplemented by State funds, the problem remains unsolved, since counties within a State differ in their ability to support schools widely, though not so widely as smaller units such as townships and districts. Under both local and county support certain sections will be able to maintain good schools with a low tax rate because of their accumulated taxable property, while other sections will be unable to support schools adequate to the needs of modern educational practice even with an exceedingly high tax rate.

Chapter IV

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AND COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE LAWS

Effectiveness of a school system determined by its use.—The effectiveness of a State's school system is determined to a large extent by the degree to which it is utilized. If a large proportion of the children of school age are enrolled in the schools, and if a goodly per cent of those enrolled are in average daily attendance, the schools may be said to be well utilized. From the figures given in Table 10 it is possible to determine this information for each of the various States. In this table the school age is considered as 5 to 17 years, inclusive.

The difference between the census enumeration and the total number of children enrolled in public and private schools is approximately the number of children 5 to 17 years, inclusive, not in school. For the entire United States this is 3,329,839. Of this number many over 14 have finished the elementary school and are excused by law from further school attendance. Some, living in the rural sections of the country, who are over 14 and have completed the elementary school course, would continue school if high-school advantages were available within reasonable distances from their homes. In the cities many between the ages of 14 and 16 have met the educational provisions of the laws for the issuance of labor permits. Some of this number are receiving further instruction in continuation or evening schools. According to information based on data furnished by 830 cities, approximately 1½ per cent of the school enrollment is over 18.

TABLE 10.—School census, enrollment, and attendance, 1923-24

State	Population 5-17 years of age, inclusive, 1924	Enrollment		Public schools			
		Public schools	Private schools (largely estimated)	Average number of days schools were in session	Average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled	Rank in days schools were in session	Rank in days attended by each pupil enrolled
Alabama.....	811,122	601,175	21,437	135.4	92.8	48	48
Arizona.....	104,030	73,980	2,492	166.0	123.2	32	35
Arkansas.....	595,827	501,758	4,673	135.3	97.9	47	46
California.....	779,692	1,022,130	37,765	181.2	125.2	8	33
Colorado.....	252,630	247,195	3,027	174.0	126.3	22	32
Connecticut.....	357,885	288,927	61,301	183.2	150.8	5	7
Delaware.....	53,671	38,573	878	177.3	147.0	15	17
District of Columbia.....	82,896	72,015	12,613	180.0	148.8	10	13
Florida.....	298,897	266,318	6,790	143.3	106.3	43	42
Georgia.....	979,684	747,213	13,392	140.0	102.2	44	44
Idaho.....	138,086	116,970	1,656	160.7	122.1	38	36
Illinois.....	1,646,915	1,316,038	204,279	182.9	151.8	6	6
Indiana.....	730,455	623,506	37,817	172.0	152.6	26	5
Iowa.....	604,162	533,469	33,796	175.9	148.3	18	14
Kansas.....	470,415	424,501	22,762	174.9	150.0	21	9
Kentucky.....	716,060	567,782	18,042	164.0	119.8	35	38
Louisiana.....	575,546	390,848	25,234	151.8	116.5	40	39
Maine.....	185,301	147,106	21,583	175.6	155.1	19	4
Maryland.....	371,244	256,302	26,455	185.1	147.2	4	16
Massachusetts.....	932,432	737,576	151,558	181.7	149.3	7	11
Michigan.....	955,576	818,721	112,600	178.0	141.4	13	20
Minnesota.....	640,580	544,445	46,727	178.8	141.2	11	21
Mississippi.....	593,962	572,028	8,431	136.8	93.0	45	47
Missouri.....	859,111	728,814	53,116	168.4	134.0	31	30
Montana.....	163,493	117,793	3,681	170.8	139.8	29	22
Nebraska.....	354,131	326,272	23,778	172.9	139.7	24	23
Nevada.....	16,339	15,970	40	178.6	138.2	12	28
New Hampshire.....	101,739	74,354	26,638	172.6	139.1	25	26
New Jersey.....	841,768	664,496	41,214	188.0	157.6	2	2
New Mexico.....	114,067	88,828	5,826	172.0	124.3	27	34
New York.....	2,495,992	1,932,651	125,289	187.8	156.5	3	3
North Carolina.....	890,026	793,046	23,282	143.4	103.3	42	43
North Dakota.....	215,685	174,797	3,731	165.0	136.2	33	29
Ohio.....	1,426,637	1,200,117	104,354	176.7	149.2	16	12
Oklahoma.....	695,607	653,700	4,073	163.5	110.3	36	41
Oregon.....	104,395	175,510	12,916	173.9	147.8	23	15
Pennsylvania.....	2,409,525	1,803,163	192,829	181.1	150.2	9	8
Rhode Island.....	151,095	105,900	26,882	194.6	164.1	1	1
South Carolina.....	599,634	467,425	9,103	119.0	82.6	49	49
South Dakota.....	184,384	162,588	4,067	171.5	139.3	28	24
Tennessee.....	731,945	657,234	22,900	148.4	101.2	41	45
Texas.....	1,499,344	1,194,655	17,774	135.5	110.7	46	40
Utah.....	146,738	130,322	3,915	168.8	142.7	30	19
Vermont.....	84,796	64,113	7,541	161.5	144.9	37	18
Virginia.....	718,738	556,078	13,475	160.0	120.2	39	37
Washington.....	336,686	316,890	25,694	177.3	138.4	14	27
West Virginia.....	471,119	399,410	8,571	164.8	128.2	34	31
Wisconsin.....	701,928	635,755	89,387	176.6	150.0	17	10
Wyoming.....	54,921	51,748	1,164	175.0	130.2	20	25
United States.....	29,345,911	24,288,808	1,727,264	168.3	132.5		

¹ Decimals carried to four places to determine rank.

The extent to which those enrolled in the schools are in regular daily attendance may be determined for the school year 1923-24 by a comparison of the figures showing the number of days the schools were in session and the average daily attendance for each

pupil enrolled for each of the various States. For the United States as a whole, the average length of the school session is 168.3 days. The average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled is 132.5 days, or 79 per cent of the length of the school term. A loss of approximately one-fifth of the school term is serious not only to the pupils themselves, but to schools and communities as well.

A school census important.—A knowledge of the number of children to be educated is essential to the efficient administration of a school system. In order to get this information it is necessary that the State provide for a complete and accurate counting of all the children of school age residing within its boundaries. The extent to which compulsory education and child labor laws can be enforced depends largely upon the completeness and reliability of the school census. If the census is taken annually, it affords an index to the changing educational needs of the State which arise from the growth, movement, and character of the population.

There is considerable variance in the legal school ages among the several States. The widest range of ages is from 4 to 20 in Wisconsin and 5 to 21 in Iowa, Maine, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, New Mexico, and New York. The narrowest range is from 6 to 18 in Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Vermont, and Utah. The most common is 6 to 21, in 23 States. A grouping of the range of ages for free school attendance, with the number of States in each group, is given in Table 11.¹ Of the 34 States having a legal school entrance age of 6 years and 2 States with an entrance age of 7, nearly all permit kindergarten education, thus in effect, lowering the entrance age.

The laws of most of the States provide that an enumeration of the children included within the range of ages for free school attendance shall be taken at regular intervals. In a few States the range of ages for the children to be enumerated differs from the range for free school attendance. For example, the laws of California place the range of ages for free school attendance between 6 and 21, and that for the registration of minors at 4 to 17, inclusive. In South Carolina a census is taken annually of children between the ages of 7 and 14. In a majority of the States the laws require that a census be taken annually, in some it is taken biennially. In New Jersey a school census is not mandatory. The laws of that State permit boards of education, if they so desire, to take a school census once in five years.

Important provisions of compulsory education and child labor laws.—Compulsory attendance laws have been enacted for the pur-

¹ Circular, Bu. of Educ., May 16, 1924.

pose of insuring to all the children of the State a minimum amount of schooling during the period of life when such schooling can be

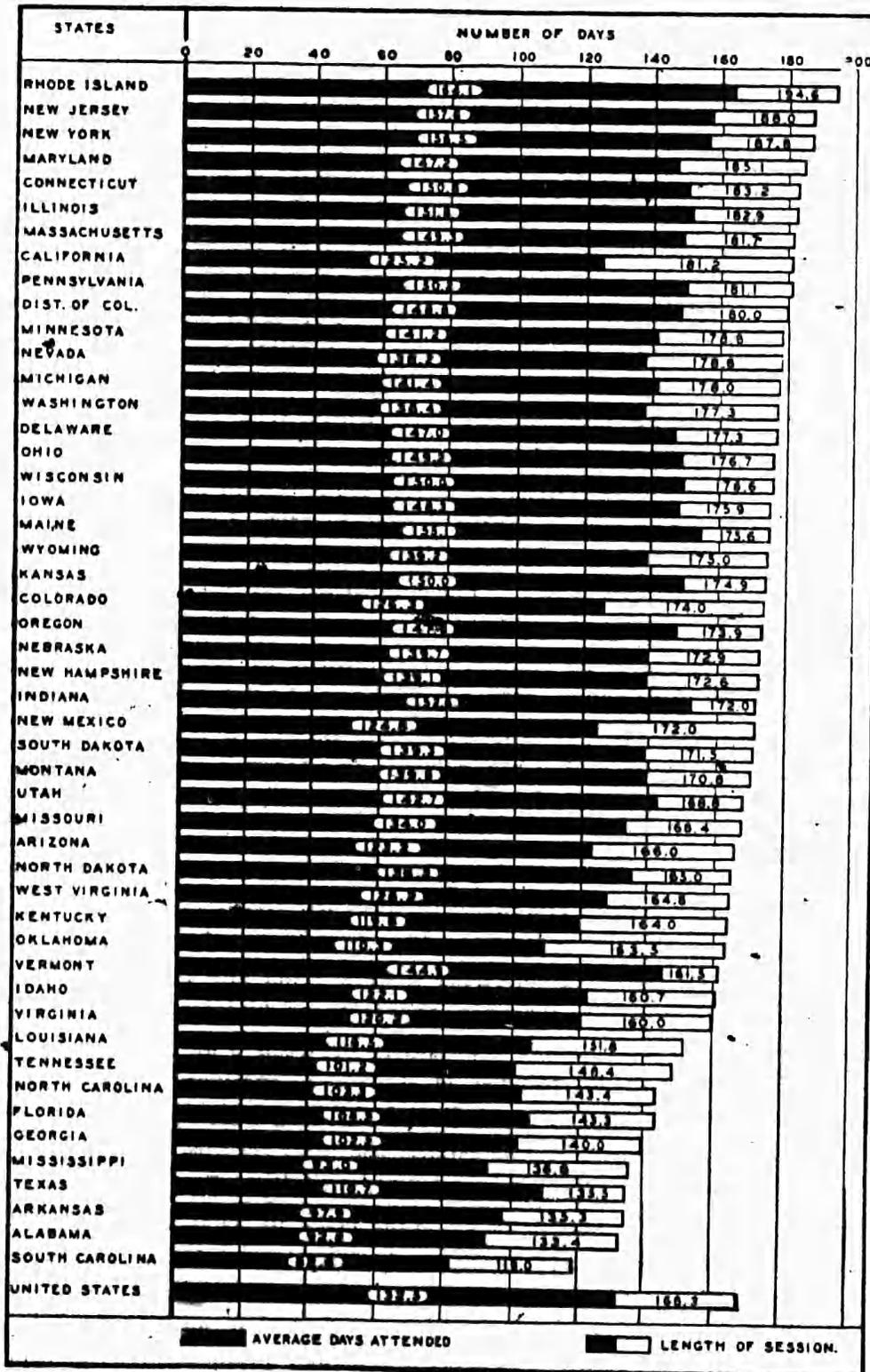


FIG. 5.—Length of session, and average days attended, 1923-24

most effective. Every State now has a law which requires children between certain age limits to attend school a certain stated time.

Table 11 gives a grouping of the age limits for compulsory attendance, with the number of States in each group. It shows that in 20 States the range of ages is between 7 and 16; and in 10 it is between 8 and 16.

The effectiveness of compulsory education laws depends upon the machinery set up for their enforcement. In some States the laws lose much of their force because of lack of definite responsibility for their enforcement. Compulsory attendance laws are, generally, better enforced in cities than in rural districts. This is because cities, through their divisions of school attendance, have the proper machinery for their enforcement. Experience has proved that compulsory attendance laws in rural districts are more satisfactorily enforced by State and county rather than local district authorities.

TABLE 11.—Ages for free attendance and ages for compulsory attendance

2 AGES FOR FREE SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Ages	Number of States ¹	Ages	Number of States ¹
6-21.....	23	6-20.....	2
5-21.....	7	7-21.....	2
6-18.....	5	4-20.....	1
6-20.....	3		
6 and up.....	3	Total.....	49
Any age.....	3		

AGE LIMITS FOR COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

7-16.....	20	7-13.....	1
8-16.....	10	7-15.....	1
8-14.....	4	7-18.....	1
7-17.....	3	8-17.....	1
8-18.....	3	9-16.....	1
7-14.....	2		
6-16.....	1	Total.....	49
6-18.....	1		

¹ Includes District of Columbia.

All of the States specify in their laws the minimum annual attendance required of children coming within the range of ages for compulsory attendance. In all but nine of the States the laws specify the minimum education necessary to exempt from compulsory attendance. Groupings of the minimum time required for compulsory school attendance and of the minimum education necessary to secure labor permits, with the number of States in each group, are given in Table 12. The trend during the past few years is to require children to attend school during the entire school period or until the completion of the elementary school course. Attendance for the entire school term means more in some States than in others, because the length of the minimum school term varies from a maximum of 9½ months in Connecticut to a minimum of 3 months in Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Wyoming. It is 9 months in 6

States; 8 months in 11; 7 in 8; and 6 in 9. There is a tendency constantly to increase the length of term, but a minimum school term of 9 months is a goal yet to be attained in most States. Grouping of the minimum school terms, with the number of States in each group, is given in Table 13.

In all the States compulsory education laws are reenforced by child labor laws. The purpose of such laws is to protect children, who are the future citizens of the State, against parents and guardians who would traffic in the labor of children or wards, and thus deprive them of educational opportunities equal to those enjoyed by other children. Thirty-seven States (including the District of Columbia) require a specified amount of education before a labor permit shall be granted. In 15 States it is the completion of the elementary grades. (See Table 12 for other amounts.) In some States the laws provide that children to whom labor permits have been issued must attend evening and continuation schools.

TABLE 12.—Ages for labor permits—Minimum annual attendance—Minimum education required for labor permits¹

AGES FOR LABOR PERMITS

Ages	Number of States ¹	Ages	Number of States ¹
14-16.....	25	14-15.....	1
14.....	11	15-16.....	1
16.....	4	15-17.....	1
14-18.....	3		
15.....	2	Total.....	40
12.....	1		

MINIMUM ANNUAL DAY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE REQUIRED

Term	Number of States ¹	Term	Number of States ¹
Full term.....	35	100 days.....	1
120 days.....	5	60 days.....	1
80 days.....	3	140 days.....	1
160 days.....	2		
Three-fourths of term.....	1	Total.....	40

MINIMUM EDUCATION REQUIRED FOR ISSUANCE OF LABOR PERMITS

Grades	Number of States ¹
Elementary grades.....	15
Not specified.....	11
Sixth grade.....	9
Not stated ²	8
Fifth grade.....	3
Seventh grade.....	2
Fourth grade.....	1
Total.....	40

¹ The Children's Bureau, Department of Labor, has prepared charts giving detailed information regarding the important provisions of compulsory education and child labor laws. As long as the edition lasts, single copies of the charts may be had free upon application to that office in Washington, D. C.

² Includes District of Columbia.

³ Proficiency in certain subjects in 7 States; ability to read and write in 1

TABLE 13.—Minimum school term—Minimum education necessary to exempt from compulsory attendance

MINIMUM SCHOOL TERM

Term	Number of States ¹	Term	Number of States ¹
8 months.....	11	7½ months.....	2
6 months.....	9	5 months.....	1
7 months.....	8	8½ months.....	1
9 months.....	6	9½ months.....	1
4 months.....	3		
3 months.....	3	Total.....	45

MINIMUM EDUCATION NECESSARY TO EXEMPT FROM COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

Grades	Number of States ¹
Elementary school.....	36
Not specified.....	9
Sixth grade.....	3
High school.....	1
Total.....	49

¹ Includes District of Columbia.

Illiteracy.—The evils of illiteracy are so great and so expensive that nearly all States not now having such legislation are considering enactments that will enable them to carry on systematic plans for the elimination of illiteracy and near illiteracy.

Experience has shown that two things aid in the promotion of such a program: (1) There should be an officer in the State department of education whose business it is to organize the educational forces so that proper instruction in elementary subjects may be given to adults as well as to employed young people who need it. (2) State aid should be available to local districts so that they may provide evening schools. State aid for this purpose is just as important as it is for the regular day schools.

Illiteracy is not a matter that can be cured by a few lessons. In most cases the illiterate person needs regular class work for a number of years in order to acquire sufficient ability to read with pleasure and profit.

A number of States now have effective laws that foster evening schools, and illiteracy in these States is being abolished. The State of Pennsylvania has a recent and very excellent law for such schools.

Children in isolated homes.—In most States of the Union there are children who live outside of the 2½-mile limit required by the school attendance laws. There are many children who grow up without school advantages. Some States are attempting to solve this problem by providing transportation for such pupils. Even

this plan fails to reach some children. Experience has shown that if a child is not sent to school before he or she is 10 years of age, the child will not want to go after that time on account of pride.

In some States where families are widely scattered an itinerant teacher may be employed, either by State, county, or district, to go from home to home and teach the children who can not be reached in any other way. This plan has been found to be successful in Australia.

TABLE 14.—Distribution of pupils, enrolled in school in 25 States, according to the length of the school term, 1923-24

State	80 days or fewer	81-100 days	101-120 days	121-140 days	141-160 days	161-180 days	181-200 days	Over 200 days	Total enrollment
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Total for 25 States.....	229,717	167,533	277,357	285,900	1,074,897	3,727,204	1,225,982	63,904	7,052,494
Alabama.....	79,804	61,867	102,867	70,746	42,558	242,698	635		601,175
Arkansas.....	75,888	63,995	102,963	58,437	86,001	113,872	6,062	3,940	511,758
California.....	39	24	61	70	8,085	282,256	311,113	59,935	662,213
Connecticut.....						31,946	252,683		284,629
Delaware.....	3,129	1,512	1,780	2,760	6,150	17,040	6,202		38,573
Dist. Columbia.....						72,573			72,573
Idaho.....	4,014	1,244	1,768	7,605	18,798	79,950	3,140		116,819
Indiana.....						614,655			614,655
Kansas.....					125,883	298,618			424,501
Maine.....			43	901	17,614	113,636	28,189		160,383
Maryland.....	4	8	3	12	143	531	1,694	18	2,413
Massachusetts.....					89	325,503	401,082		726,674
Montana.....	1,410	655	1,954	3,183	8,366	76,420	25,805		117,793
Nevada.....	3	4	83	157	1,091	12,385	2,247		15,970
New Hampshire.....						67,865	4,405		72,270
New Mexico.....				6,896	15,583	65,138	809		88,426
North Dakota.....	2,715	1,401	2,718	24,040	29,655	112,652	1,005	11	174,797
Oklahoma.....	4,702	8,095	37,967	60,956	179,679	411,571	72		703,042
South Dakota.....				444	30,757	120,400	4,459		162,660
Utah.....	43	37	23	3,714	21,093	73,589	31,843		130,322
Vermont.....					400	63,513			64,213
Washington.....	40	35	357	601	7,330	164,085	142,698		315,146
West Virginia.....					371,222	30,122			401,344
Wisconsin.....	57,928	28,651	24,770	45,376	94,691	287,580			538,994
Wyoming.....		5			3,109	48,296	339		51,749
<i>Outlying possessions</i>									
Alaska.....	13	19		16	71	3,573	283		3,975
Virgin Islands.....							3,112		3,112

¹ 161 days or more.

Chapter V

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION ¹

The impetus given by the war to health work in schools has lost little of its force, and health is not only talked of as a fundamental objective in education but practical measures for attaining it are in course of rapid development. Not only does the school look upon

¹ See U. S. Bu. of Educ. bulletins on school hygiene and physical education.

the health of the child as worthy of effort on its own account but as a condition of his best mental progress. School health work becomes therefore a measure of school economy, and when wisely conducted more than pays its way from a purely monetary point of view.

Thirty-three States have passed laws on the subject and some statutes have recently been revised. In the framing of these laws the term "physical education" has been used to designate the field to be covered, with the exception of that of Utah, in which the words "health education" were chosen. Owing to the fact that, in recent years, "physical education" has been narrowed by many of its exponents to the activities of the gymnasium and playground, there has arisen considerable confusion as to its meaning. In most laws, however, specific mention is made of health teaching and school sanitation, as well as of physical training. Considering the recent origin of this legislation, comprehensive programs embracing health examination, habit formation, school lunches, hygiene, sanitation, and physical training are being introduced into the curriculum, especially in those sections where adequate State stimulation and supervision are supplied.

Most State laws on this subject make some provision for teacher training for this field of work. All school health work centers in the regular teacher, and it is only with the development of adequate courses in teacher-training institutions that we can hope for best results in this work. If health and physical training are fundamental to all education, the teacher must be made fully conscious of this fact both in her theoretical and practical preparation. She must be prepared to know her pupils as a musician knows his instruments and be able not only to appreciate when they are defective and out of tune but she must endeavor to have them put into condition for producing the best work which their hereditary endowment will permit. Such improvement results in least effort for the teacher, least outlay for schools, and most income in educational results.

OBJECT AND SCOPE

The object of a State law for hygiene and physical education should be to surround the child in the school with such sanitary conditions as will be for his welfare, to arrange the material and method of the general curriculum to this end, and to introduce into the educational program such positive work for the health and physical unfolding of the child as is consistent with the limitations of school activity. It is evident that conditions in the home life of the

child can not be directly modified, though indirectly the work of the school may influence those conditions to a considerable degree. The school can never do its best for the child if it conducts its affairs as though isolated from the home, and this is particularly true in its efforts for physical education.

Scope.—(1) The school plant should be built and managed so that the school environment shall not be detrimental to the physical welfare of the child. This should include the provision of adequate playground space.

(2) The school program should be arranged so that in content and presentation it shall be healthful, and the health of the teacher should receive the attention it deserves.

(3) The examination of the preschool child: Though the child is not a subject for physical education in the school until he has reached the age for entrance, the school should be interested in his physical well-being before this time, and it has become the policy of some schools to make a physical examination of children before entrance and to suggest such treatment of local defects or of general health as will place the child in better condition for school work at the time of his entrance.

(4) Physical examination of school children: The examination of the school child on entrance and periodically thereafter to discover and secure the removal of his physical defects is fundamental to the work of physical education and also for school economy. Adequate means and methods of securing the best results from such examination should be arranged.

(5) The prevention of communicable diseases by the daily inspection of children should be provided.

(6) Health education should be carried out in a practical way by the insistence, first, on cleanliness of person, and following this by interesting the child in the formation of the few other habits which are essential for health.

In the higher grades this work should be continued by practical teaching in physiology and the principles of personal and home hygiene and by developing an appreciation of work for public health.

(7) Physical training for all pupils should be arranged for. Not only should there be ample recess periods, but additional time should be appropriated during the school period or after school hours for supervised exercise of such a nature as is best fitted to the physical capacities of the children at different ages. Adequate supervision of such activities is needed, and teacher training for such work should be provided.

LEGISLATIVE PROVISIONS

Legislative provisions on this subject should include the following points;

(1) A clear and comprehensive statement of the purpose of the law and the object of health and physical education.

(2) Mandatory provision for all of the items mentioned under "scope" save where (as for medical inspection) this subject may have been covered in previous legislation.

(3) Minimum time requirement to be devoted to physical education.

(4) Provision of administrative machinery in the State department of education sufficient for the effective administration of the law. This provision should be broad and flexible. Two things are essential :

(a) State direction and supervision. A good plan is to have a State director of physical education, with the rank of deputy or assistant State superintendent or health supervisor. His powers and duties should not be narrowly defined.

(b) Sufficient financial resources to insure the effective administration of this office, either by specific appropriation or by authorizing the State department to make adequate provision for this purpose out of general school funds.

(5) There should be a carefully drawn provision authorizing and requiring the employment of supervisors and special teachers under specified conditions and in harmony with the administrative organization of the State.

(6) Provision requiring the State department of education to fix qualifications of supervisors and special teachers and to issue special licenses for the same.

(7) Provision for adequate training in school health work of all teachers, both for the secondary and the elementary school. The essential requirements of this part of the teacher's education should be prescribed by the State authorities.

(8) Provision requiring that pupils be graded in these, as in other school subjects and exercises, and that satisfactory progress be a condition to promotion and graduation.

(9) Coordination of work included in the scope of physical education as here defined, which may have already been provided for by previous legislation, such as military drill or medical inspection, and amendment of such legislation as seems desirable for such coordination.

Chapter VI

KINDERGARTEN LEGISLATION¹

Among important considerations in school legislation are the laws governing the establishment and support of kindergartens. While the value of kindergarten education is no longer a debatable subject, there has been little standardization of laws governing the establishment of this branch of the public school system.

Forty States now have laws especially providing for the establishment of kindergartens. Four more have general laws covering their establishment. In 34 States there is a "permissive" law; in 6 States there is a "mandatory-on-petition" law. In 2 of the "permissive" States there is a mandatory law for certain qualified cities. Laws classified roughly as above vary in the several States, due to their specific wording or to the bearing which related and qualifying laws have upon them. The New Jersey and Wisconsin laws illustrate the two types of laws mentioned, and extracts from them are here reproduced.

Permissive law in New Jersey.—The board of education of any school district may establish a kindergarten school or a kindergarten department in any school under its control, and shall admit to such kindergarten school or department any child over the age of 4 and under the age of 7 years who shall be a resident of the district; provided, that no child under the age of 5 years shall be admitted to any public school unless such school shall have a kindergarten department.

Every teacher in a kindergarten school or department shall hold a special kindergarten certificate issued by the State board of examiners.

The expenses of kindergarten schools or departments shall be paid out of any moneys available for the current expenses of the schools, and in the same manner and under the same restrictions as the expenses of the other schools or departments.

TABLE 15.—Some provisions of present kindergarten laws

State	Legal school age	Age of kindergarten attendance	Where kindergartens are authorized	Sources of support	Permissive or mandatory
Alabama.....	6	5.....	Cities only.....	Local fund.....	Permissive.
Arizona.....	6	4½ to 6.....	Any district.....	Special tax.....	Mandatory.
Arkansas.....	6	No law secured.....	None.....
California.....	6	4½ to 6.....	Every district.....	Special tax.....	Do.
Colorado.....	6	3 to 6.....	Any school district.....	Local fund only.....	Permissive.
Connecticut.....	5	4 to 7.....	Any town or district.....	Same fund as grades.....	Do.
Delaware.....	5	5.....	Special school district.....	Local fund.....	Do.
Florida.....	6	About 5.....	Any special tax district.....	Local fund; State funds may be used.....	Do.

¹ For more detailed information concerning kindergarten legislation, see U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1925, No. 7.

TABLE 15.—Some provisions of present kindergarten laws—Continued

State	Legal school age	Age of kindergarten attendance	Where kindergartens are authorized	Sources of support	Permissive or mandatory
Georgia.....	6		No law secured.....	None.....	
Idaho.....	6	3 to 6.....	Any district.....	Local fund.....	Permissive.
Illinois.....	6	4 to 6.....	do.....	do.....	Mandatory.
Indiana.....	6	4 to 6.....	Incorporated towns only.	General fund (special tax optional).	Permissive.
Iowa.....	5	5.....	Any independent school district.	General fund.....	Do.
Kansas.....	5	4 to 6..... 5 to 7.....	Any school district. (Cities over 18,500.)	Local fund; some State funds.	Permissive; mandatory in cities of first class.
Kentucky.....	6	4 to 6.....	(Cities only.)	General fund.....	Permissive.
Louisiana.....	6	4 to 6.....	Not stated.....	Local fund.....	Do.
Maine.....	5	4 to 6.....	Any city or town.....	General fund.....	Mandatory.
Maryland.....	6		No law secured.....	None.....	
Massachusetts.....	(1)	School authorities decide.	Not stated.....	General fund.....	No law needed because of low school age.
Michigan.....	5	4 to 7.....	Every school district.	do.....	Permissive.
Minnesota.....	5	4 to 6.....	Independent districts.	Local fund and State funds.	Do.
Mississippi.....	5		No law secured.....	None.....	
Missouri.....	6	5 to 6.....	Any school district.	Local fund.....	Do.
Montana.....	6	3 to 6.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
Nebraska.....	5	5.....	do.....	Local and State funds.	No law needed because of low school age.
Nevada.....	(1)	4 to 6.....	Every district.....	Local fund.....	Permissive.
New Hampshire.....	5	Undetermined.	Any school district.	do.....	No law needed because of low school age.
New Jersey.....	5	4 to 7.....	Any district.....	General fund.....	Permissive.
New Mexico.....	5	4 to 6.....	District having 200 pupils.	Local fund.....	Do.
New York.....	5	4 to 6.....	Each school district and city.	General fund.....	Do.
North Carolina.....	6	Not more than 6.	Any district.....	Special tax.....	Do.
North Dakota.....	6	4 to 6.....	Any district; cities over 5,000.	Local fund.....	Permissive; mandatory in cities over 5,000.
Ohio.....	6	4 to 6.....	Any district.....	General fund.....	Permissive.
Oklahoma.....	6	4 to 6.....	Cities above 2,500.	Local fund.....	Do.
Oregon.....	6	Not stated.....	School district having 20,000 children of school age.	do.....	Do.
Pennsylvania.....	6	4 to 6.....	Districts of first, second, third, and fourth classes.	Special tax.....	Do.
Rhode Island.....	(1)	School authorities decide.	Not stated.....	General fund.....	No law needed because of low school age.
South Carolina.....	6	4 to 6.....	Any district.....	do.....	Permissive.
South Dakota.....	6	Not stated.....		Local fund.....	Do.
Tennessee.....	6	School authorities decide.	Cities or towns.....	do.....	Do.
Texas.....	7	5.....	Any school district.	do.....	Mandatory.
Utah.....	6	4 to 6.....	Cities of first and second classes.	do.....	Permissive.
Vermont.....	6	Under 5.....	From districts.....	do.....	Do.
Virginia.....	6	Under 6.....	Any school district.	do.....	Do.
Washington.....	6	4 to 6.....	Districts of first and second classes.	General fund.....	Do.
West Virginia.....	6	4 to 6.....	District or independent district.	Local fund.....	Do.
Wisconsin.....	4	4 to 6.....	Any school district except Union Free High School.	General fund.....	Mandatory.
Wyoming.....	6	4 to 6.....	Any school district.	Local fund.....	Permissive.

¹ Undetermined.

Mandatory-on-petition law in Wisconsin.—The school board or board of education of any school district, however organized, union free high school districts excepted, shall upon petition of the parents or guardians of 25 or more children more than 4 and not more than 6 years of age establish and maintain a kindergarten in charge of a legally qualified kindergarten teacher for the instruction of said children. In case such district maintains two or more school buildings, the parents or guardians heretofore mentioned shall reside not more than 1 mile from the building in which it is proposed to establish the kindergarten. When a kindergarten shall have been established as hereinbefore provided it shall constitute a part of the common public schools of the district and the taxes for maintenance of such kindergarten shall be levied and collected in the same manner as other taxes are levied and collected for the support of the common schools. When a kindergarten shall have been established, it shall not be discontinued unless the enrollment for the preceding year shall have been less than 15.

Essentials of a good law for kindergarten education.—The following criteria briefly stated may be used for analyzing existing laws or planning for contemplated ones:

1. Is the law state-wide in application?
2. Does it provide support from the general fund?
3. Do parents have a voice in the establishment of kindergartens (mandatory or permissive)?
4. May children enter at 4 or 4½ years of age?
5. Does the law include adequate teacher certification requirements?

The growing tendency to require identical training and certification for kindergarten and primary teachers is taking the kindergarten out of the "special subjects" classification and placing it where it belongs, as an integral part of the elementary school grades. The growing interest in the education of children 4 years of age and younger in nursery schools forecasts the future necessity of including in legislation certification for teachers of these schools.

Chapter VII

TEACHING STAFF

All States are concerned with providing conditions and regulating qualifications designed to insure, so far as humanly possible, the employment and retention of an adequately prepared teaching staff. Three important considerations enter into the question with which State legislatures are directly concerned and the efficacy of provisions

concerning which they are responsible: (1) A scientifically conducted state-wide study of the supply and demand of adequately trained teachers in the State. Such a survey is necessary before any of the following pertinent provisions for supplying "a well-trained teacher in every school in the State" may be intelligently considered. (2) Certification laws which insure that only qualified applicants receive licenses to teach in any (even the smallest or poorest) school. This means that the minimum qualifications for the lowest grade of certificate should be adequate to insure a good standard of academic and professional qualifications on the part of the candidate. (3) Salaries such as are commensurate with the qualifications exacted for certification. This involves the passage of a minimum salary law based on qualifications. (4) Facilities for training teachers furnished by the State, adequate in the sense of supplying a sufficient number of teachers and efficient in the quality of training given, to supply different types of schools.

Reasonable standards for teachers.—The generally accepted standards of requirements for teachers in the United States are a general education equivalent to graduation from a standard four-year high school, followed by two years of special teacher training in a college department of education, a teachers college, or a normal school. The two-year professional course should include, besides advanced academic courses, special intensive professional courses, including psychology, principles of education, teaching methods, and the like, as well as ample opportunity for observation in model schools and practice teaching under supervision.

The teaching force of the United States as a whole is below this standard. City systems generally have better trained teachers than the country schools. The average is well up to the standard stated above. Teachers in rural schools average below this standard. In many States numbers of teachers are employed who have not completed a high-school course and have had no professional training. This situation usually is found when certification laws, teachers' salaries, and training facilities are inadequate or insufficient.

A legislative program designed to secure a high-grade teaching staff.—Adequate legislation providing a comprehensive plan similar to that outlined below will assist in providing the State with a high-grade professional teaching staff:

1. Improve teaching conditions by—

(a) Establishing reasonable minimum salaries for all teachers.

(b) Adopting in principle the single-salary schedule.

(c) Scaling all teachers' salaries to the grade of certificate held, thus placing a premium on special preparation.

(d) Advocating the adoption of the principle of "indefinite" tenure, which means that a teacher will be retained in a school as

TABLE 16.—Number of rural teachers in the United States in 1925 receiving the salaries indicated reported to the Bureau of Education

Annual salary	In 1- teacher schools	In 2- teacher schools	In schools of 3 or more teachers in open country	In con- solidated schools	In schools of 3 or more teachers in vil- lages and towns	Total
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Less than \$300.....	4,135	1,574	471	138	90	6,408
\$300 to \$399.....	5,405	3,088	1,185	604	384	10,726
\$400 to \$499.....	7,018	3,336	1,427	1,530	738	14,049
\$500 to \$599.....	9,741	2,708	1,561	1,576	1,150	16,736
\$600 to \$699.....	20,836	3,222	1,777	2,653	2,575	31,083
\$700 to \$799.....	19,338	2,751	1,616	2,578	3,195	29,478
\$800 to \$899.....	24,834	4,168	1,936	5,332	5,486	41,756
\$900 to \$999.....	14,732	3,483	1,960	6,545	8,952	35,672
\$1,000 to \$1,099.....	5,612	2,215	1,162	4,399	6,976	20,364
\$1,100 to \$1,199.....	2,609	1,511	1,007	3,630	6,383	15,140
\$1,200 to \$1,299.....	1,888	1,094	930	3,759	6,648	14,319
\$1,300 to \$1,399.....	918	792	628	2,797	5,834	11,167
\$1,400 to \$1,499.....	353	371	435	1,649	3,865	6,633
\$1,500 to \$1,599.....	188	262	419	1,271	3,329	5,460
\$1,600 to \$1,699.....	88	132	218	789	2,034	3,231
\$1,700 to \$1,799.....	30	44	103	404	1,415	1,996
\$1,800 to \$1,899.....	30	69	128	695	1,510	2,432
\$1,900 to \$1,999.....	4	5	29	190	425	653
\$2,000 and over.....	12	24	120	916	2,213	3,285
Total.....	117,759	30,849	17,312	41,515	63,202	270,638

¹ Median salary group.

long as acceptable services are rendered that community. A probationary period of one or two years for the beginning teacher may be acquired before the appointment for an indefinite period becomes operative.

(e) Providing adequate professional supervision.

(f) Granting State bonuses to teachers as rewards for long service in a single school community and to highly efficient teachers continuing service in small rural schools.

(g) Establishing liberal retirement funds for teachers.

2. Require higher teaching qualifications by—

(a) Increasing gradually the entrance requirements of the State normal schools and lengthening their study courses.

(b) Eliminating temporary expedients for the training of teachers, such as normal courses given in high schools, as rapidly as the State can provide for taking over and efficiently doing the work of these secondary institutions in standard professional institutions whose sole task is the proper training of teachers to meet adequately the needs of the State.

(c) Discontinuing the issue of certificates on examination as soon as the normal schools and other teacher-training institutions have become fully equipped to supply all the professional teachers required.

(d) Placing the minimum requirement for permission to teach at graduation from an accredited four-year high school, or its equivalent, and in addition two years' professional study acquired at a professional school for teachers, the standard to be reached gradually, becoming effective after ample time (one to five years) is given for all teachers in the service to attain these requirements.

3. Increase the supply of professional teachers by—

(a) Offering rewards equal to those of similar professions for young people entering the service. (See the different points under (1) above.)

(b) Providing for definite and effective "in service" training to supplement that given by the local supervisory staff. The extension divisions of the State teacher-preparing institutions afford the logical agencies for this work.

(c) Increasing the length of the period of professional preparation required for teachers. Experience shows that the length of service given by teachers increases with lengthened periods of preparation.

(d) Increase the capacity of existing teacher-preparing institutions wherever their facilities for adequate observation and practice teaching will permit, and in addition establish a sufficient number of new institutions to provide for the schools the number of adequately prepared new teachers needed annually. The needs of the rural schools should not be overlooked in making such provisions.

SALARY TRENDS AND SCHOOL TERM

The following table shows the average annual salaries of teachers in 1925 in the five classes of rural schools, the number of States showing an upward, downward, or even tendency in salaries for each class since 1924, and the length of school term in days:

TABLE 17.—Salary trends and school terms in rural schools in 1925

Rural schools	Salaries	Down	Up	Even	Term (days)
One-teacher.....	\$748	12	35	1	160
Two-teacher.....	759	15	39	0	151
Three-teacher.....	865	15	31	2	157
Consolidated.....	1,055	7	39	2	168
Country village.....	1,186	11	37	0	176

STATES	AVERAGE SALARIES OF COUNTRY TEACHERS IN 1924				MEDIAN SALARIES OF ELEMENTARY TEACHERS IN LARGEST CITY GROUPS IN 1924					MEDIAN SALARIES	
	AVERAGE SALARIES	\$ 500	\$ 1000	\$ 1500	\$ 2000	\$ 2545	\$ 2000	\$ 1500	\$ 1000		\$ 500
U.S.	\$ 875										\$ 1968
ALA.	517										1278
ARIZ.	1398										1669
ARK.	532										1306
CALIF.	1456										1922
COLO.	1068										2024
CONN.	1169										1642
DEL.	919										1775
D.C.											1546
FLA.	684										852
GA.	486										1280
IDAHO	1061										1394
ILL.	898										2387
IND.	988										1930
IOWA	897										1817
KANS.	862										1684
KY.	581										1330
LA.	887										1531
ME.	744										1512
MD.	1016										1613
MASS.	1159										1769
MICH.	894										1922
MINN.	853										1720
MISS.	534										978
MO.	818										1871
MONT.	994										1804
NEBR.	893										1883
NEV.	1226										1700
N.H.	912										1527
N.J.	1258										1882
N.MEX.	919										1308
N.Y.	1051										2545
N.C.	577										1226
N. DAK.	857										1454
OHIO	1029										1895
OKLA.	889										1802
OREG.	1050										1759
PA.	894										2005
R.I.	982										1662
S.C.	718										1255
S. DAK.	929										1454
TENN.	582										1238
TEX.	694										1500
UTAH	1055										1463
VT.	771										1168
VA.	577										1209
WASH.	1241										1812
W. VA.	811										1383
WIS.	968										2401
WYO.	943										1664

The wide gap between the salaries of country teachers and salaries of elementary teachers in the cities

Chapter VIII

CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS

All States assume definite responsibility for the qualifications of persons licensed to teach within the State. In no State can teachers draw salaries from public-school funds unless they hold a legal teaching license or certificate. In all States there are established certain minimum requirements for teaching certificates and established standards or grades of certificates based on academic or professional qualifications and experience in teaching.

The power of certifying teachers was vested in local authorities first in practically all States. It has, however, gradually become more and more centralized. At present it is centered in county and State authorities, cities under certain conditions, or of a certain size, being exempted in most States and the towns in one State in New England. The centralization has come about gradually, more and more authority in regard to certification being placed in the hands of the State department of education. At the present time the certificating authority is placed in the department of education wholly or sufficiently to give the department large authority in all but about eight States.

The legislatures of the several States generally provide for the certificating of teachers either (1) by providing in the statutes for certain definite types of certificates and setting forth the qualifications demanded for each, fixing the authority and power to grant them, regulations concerning term, validity, etc.; or (2) by the assignment by statute of the authority to formulate rules and regulations for certification to State officers, without making specific provision for details in the law itself. Such authority is generally assigned to the State board of education or the State department of education. City boards are granted this liberty in nearly all States either directly or indirectly. In some States a combination of these two methods is followed, certain general provisions being set forth in the statutes, and designated authorities given considerable liberty in fixing details and interpreting the intent of the law. These details and regulations are then set forth in official regulations.

Agencies which issue certificates.—Teaching certificates are issued by State (including State institutions), county, and local (town, district, or city) authorities. Omitting cities, the following are the systems of administrative organization for issuing certificates:

1. *State systems*, in which all certificates are issued by State authorities, and the State retains control over the whole matter of teacher certification.

2. *State-controlled systems*, in which State, county and district authorities may issue certificates, but the authority governing the issue (including giving questions and examining papers) is retained by the State officials. Local authorities merely issue certificates.

3. *Semi-State systems*, in which States exercise some but not complete control. The State department makes the regulations and gives the questions for examination, but local authorities examine the papers and issue certificates.

4. *State-county systems*, in which the State, county, city, and certain district authorities all issue *some* certificates and govern all or important regulations (formulating questions, for example) under which they are granted.

5. *State-local systems*, as in some of the New England States, in which complete power of certification is given to the township school committees as well as to the State department.

TABLE 18.—Tendency toward centralization of certificating authority in State departments of education, 1898–1926

Kind of system	Number of States ¹				
	1898	1903	1911	1919	1926
State systems (State issues all certificates)	3	5	15	26	35
State-controlled systems (State issues most, prescribes rules, gives questions, and examines papers; county authorities issue some certificates)	1	(?)	2	7	5
Semi-State systems (State issues most certificates, makes regulations, and gives questions; county or other local authorities issue some certificates and correct papers under certain conditions)	17	(?)	18	10	5
State-county or other local systems (both issue certificates; county retains full control over examination for one or more certificates)	18	(?)	7	3	3
County system (county issues all certificates)	4	4	1	0	0

¹ Temporary and emergency certificates and permits not included.

² No data.

There is a growing tendency to centralize full certificating authority in the State department of education. In 35 States State authorities now exercise entire control. There are 10 additional States in which the State retains authority to give questions and make regulations concerning examinations. County authorities have limited powers, including issuance of certificates and correction of papers. This arrangement does not necessarily result in a uniform State system, since counties may have different standards for grading papers. Uniformity is obtained when State authorities exercise full control.

Methods of securing certificates.—Two methods of securing certificates are recognized in the majority of the States, one by examination under statutory regulations by established State and county authorities, the other on the basis of credentials showing academic

and professional training secured at approved institutions. The examination method, while still common for low-grade certificates, is gradually being replaced by that of professional preparation given in recognized institutions. In all States recognition for certification is given to graduates of approved normal schools and colleges having required credits as set forth in law or by State regulations. Certificates secured in this way are sometimes issued by the State department of education and sometimes by the institutions. In 18 States some recognition toward certification or full certificates are given to persons who have completed prescribed courses in normal training classes in or connected with secondary schools. In at least 6 of these States the work is now on a postgraduate (high-school) basis.

There is a marked tendency to eliminate the examination method of issuing certificates. This is being done by gradually increasing the qualifications required over a period of years and setting forth a definite prerequisite for any certificate, including the lowest grade, of academic and professional training effective at a stated time, usually from two to five years in advance of the time at which the law is passed. This serves to give ample notice to prospective teachers that the given amount of preparation must be made by the date set or certificates will not be forthcoming. Laws setting up requirements which demand gradually increasing qualifications are often accompanied by minimum salary laws.

TABLE 19.—Minimum prerequisites for lowest grade of certificates, and number of States in which established

Minimum prerequisite:	Number of States
Examination only (no academic or professional training requirement).....	15
Examination and minimum amount of academic training less than high-school graduation.....	2
Minimum academic training less than high-school graduation and some professional training (6 to 18 weeks).....	2
Graduation from high school.....	2
Graduation from high school and examination.....	5
High-school graduation and professional training (9 weeks to 2 years).....	14
High-school graduation, professional study, and examination.....	8

Certificates granted on graduation from, or courses taken in, educational institutions of secondary or higher grade or by means of

¹ After 1927 in one State.

² Utah's minimum prerequisite is two years of professional training above high-school graduation. At least three other States will reach the same minimum prerequisite by 1927.

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examination in prescribed subjects may be roughly classified as follows: (1) Those based on graduation from a standard college or university, generally including professional courses. (2) Those based primarily on graduation from a two-year course of college grade generally given in normal schools and teachers colleges. (3) Those based on graduation from a four-year high school, including professional courses given in connection with the regular work or given in addition to a prescribed four-year high-school course. (4) Those based primarily on scholarship attainments, as shown by examination. (5) Certain combinations of the above. A combination of this kind commonly established is that of setting up a minimum amount of academic and professional training (probably graduation from a four-year high school with 12 weeks to 2 years of professional training), and in addition examination in certain prescribed subjects, until professional training reaches the maximum requirement of two years.

Besides the prerequisites of academic and professional training, 37 States have established a minimum age requirement, generally 18 years, but in one State, 16 years, and in five States, 17 years.

In 12 States applicants for certificates must be citizens of the United States or take a pledge of civic loyalty.

There has been marked progress among States in raising certification requirements, particularly during the past five years. The accepted standard for teaching in elementary grades is now two years above high school, representing completion of a standard two-year course in an approved normal school, teachers college, or university. Graduation from a four-year college course, including professional courses, is the accepted standard for high-school teachers. While the examination method of certifying teachers still persists in a number of States, there is a strong movement to eliminate this method and to make examinations, while they continue, more and more difficult and hence of constantly decreasing appeal to applicants for teaching certificates. Progress in certification of teachers received a setback because of the war and scarcity of teachers immediately following it. This particular difficulty has now been overcome. There is no longer a serious shortage of teachers, and States are finding it possible to raise their requirements toward the accepted minimum or to the point which assures all children within their borders the certainty of being taught under the direction of qualified teachers. The examination method of certification is recognized as being an inadequate one. Progressive States are increasing their teacher-training facilities in standard institutions commensurate with their needs in order that all schools may be supplied with adequately and professionally prepared teachers.

Chapter IX

SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS¹

Textbooks play an important part in the elementary and secondary schools of the United States. In almost all subjects teachers and pupils depend on them not only for facts but for order of presentation. The adoption of textbooks for use in any school or system of schools is, therefore, important in determining courses of study and methods practiced in those schools not carefully supervised.

State uniformity.—The importance of the selection of textbooks has been recognized by legislative action regulating it in some degree in all the States. In some States a uniform list has been adopted for the whole State. In others there is uniformity through county adoptions. In others the selection of texts rests with the local school unit. Two States, California and Kansas, print textbooks. Four States lend them to school districts, which in turn lend them to pupils, retaining them as State property. At the present time 26 States have state-wide uniform systems of adoption, 5 have county adoption, while in the remaining 17 the textbooks are selected by the local school unit. Of the States having state-wide uniformity, 11 provide for selection of textbooks by the State boards of education, and the others by special textbook commissions usually appointed by the governor. The tendency to charge the State board of education with the function of selecting textbooks seems to be growing in favor. Selection should be made by or with the advice of professionally trained persons, including teachers, supervisors, and superintendents and recommendations made solely on the merits of the books without regard to price or other consideration. (Table 20 sets forth certain facts concerning textbooks.)

*Free textbooks.*²—Philadelphia was probably the first city to provide free textbooks for children attending its public schools, and Massachusetts the first State to pass a state-wide mandatory free textbook law. At present 19 States and the District of Columbia supply elementary school texts without cost. In 15 of these States the law for free textbooks is applied to secondary schools also. In 22 other States local school districts may supply textbooks.³ In practically all States books are furnished free to indigent children.

Free textbooks are furnished in a number of States having permissive laws on the subject. Practically all cities of any size in these States, as well as a number of other districts, even small districts, furnish free textbooks. A study recently made in the Bureau

¹ See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bulletins, 1915, No. 38, and 1923, No. 50.

² See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1923, No. 50.

³ Table 20.

of Education indicates that in the following States the majority of cities and many rural districts furnish free texts: New York, Michigan, Minnesota, Ohio, Washington, Colorado, Idaho, North Dakota, Wisconsin, and Connecticut.⁴

An inquiry recently made concerning the success of the plan of supplying free textbooks indicates that the consensus of opinion among teachers, superintendents, and school authorities is in favor of the system. Free textbooks apparently give greater opportunity to all classes of pupils, cost less than when purchased by the individual, and aid teachers in meeting the requirements of the course of study.

There is a growing feeling that when State uniformity is provided the list of books approved should make provision for a liberal supplementary list, permitting local authorities to exercise a good deal of freedom of choice. Additional information concerning free textbooks is set forth in Tables 20 and 21.

Arguments advanced in favor of free textbooks are as follows:

1. Poor children, whose parents are unable to purchase books, or are unable to do so without great sacrifice, may attend school as well equipped in this respect as the richer children.
2. Uniformity of textbooks in each school administrative district is secured.
3. Textbooks may be changed with little inconvenience whenever changes are desirable.
4. Additional textbooks and supplementary books may be supplied.
5. School work is not delayed at the beginning of the school year while parents obtain books for their children.

Arguments against free textbooks and in favor of the pupils purchasing their own books are as follows:

1. Parents and pupils are made to realize that they can not become wholly dependent on the State, but must continue to assume some of the responsibilities of education.
2. On account of the cost, increased school taxes would be necessary or the amount available for salaries and other expenses would be decreased.
3. Children should not be required to use books soiled by other children, as they are objectionable to the majority of children and parents both for esthetic and sanitary reasons.
4. By purchasing textbooks home libraries may be built up.
5. Books furnished free are not cared for as are those owned by the pupils.

On the other hand, because the free textbooks are public property intrusted to the pupils, to be paid for if damaged or lost, and

⁴U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bul., 1915, No. 36.

frequently inspected by the teachers, it is claimed that they are as well or better cared for. The care the books receive depends entirely upon the way in which the system is managed.

TABLE 20.—Uniform textbooks—Territory to which laws are applicable

State	State	County	Township and district	State	State	County	Township and district
Alabama	×			Nebraska			×
Arizona	×			Nevada	×		
Arkansas	×			New Hampshire			×
California	×			New Jersey			×
Colorado			×	New Mexico	×		
Connecticut			×	New York			×
Delaware	×			North Carolina	×		
Dist. of Columbia	×			North Dakota			×
Florida	×			Ohio			×
Georgia	×			Oklahoma	×		
Idaho	×			Oregon	×		
Illinois			×	Pennsylvania			×
Indiana	×			Rhode Island			×
Iowa			×	South Carolina	×		
Kansas	×			South Dakota		×	
Kentucky	×			Tennessee	×		
Louisiana	×			Texas	×		
Maine			×	Utah	×		
Maryland		×		Vermont			×
Massachusetts			×	Virginia	×		
Michigan			×	Washington		×	
Minnesota			×	West Virginia	×		
Mississippi	×			Wisconsin		×	
Missouri		×		Wyoming			×
Montana	×						

TABLE 21.—Free textbook laws

State	Law mandatory		Law permissive	No laws	State	Law mandatory		Law permissive	No laws
	For elementary	For secondary				For elementary	For secondary		
Alabama			×		Nevada	×	×		
Arizona	×	×			New Hampshire	×	×		
Arkansas			×		New Jersey	×	×		
California	×	×			New Mexico				×
Colorado			×		New York			×	
Connecticut			×		North Carolina			×	
Delaware	×	×			North Dakota			×	
Dist. Columbia	×				Ohio			×	
Florida	×		×		Oklahoma	×			
Georgia			×		Oregon				×
Idaho			×		Pennsylvania	×	×		
Illinois			×		Rhode Island	×	×		
Indiana				×	South Carolina				×
Iowa			×		South Dakota	×	×		
Kansas ¹			×		Tennessee				×
Kentucky				×	Texas	×			
Louisiana				×	Utah	×			
Maine					Vermont	×			
Maryland	×	×			Virginia			×	
Massachusetts	×	×			Washington			×	
Michigan			×		West Virginia			×	
Minnesota			×		Wisconsin			×	
Mississippi			×		Wyoming	×	×		
Missouri			×						
Montana	×	×			Total	21	16	22	7
Nebraska	×	×							

¹ Supplementary readers free.

Chapter X

SCHOOL GROUNDS AND BUILDINGS¹

Increased knowledge of the effects which the selection of a school site, arrangement of rooms, sanitation, ventilation, heating, and general hygiene of a school building have on the health and school progress of children has practically revolutionized our ideals in regard to building and equipping schoolhouses. Country children have apparently profited less from this knowledge than those in urban communities. This is due in part to lack of knowledge and general indifference in rural communities, but is also due in large part to the financial aspect of the question. When large buildings are contemplated, trained specialists in school architecture are employed and modern ideals are embodied in the school building which results. Rural communities building small schoolhouses which represent small sums of money do not employ the services of such specialists. Local contractors, builders, and school trustees are often not familiar with modern standards for school buildings. Consequently, small school buildings in rural communities continue to be built without regard to appearance or to the demands of modern methods of teaching or general hygienic considerations.

It is also true that we are beginning to realize that public-school grounds, well located and well kept, with beautiful and appropriate buildings, are a striking evidence of the intelligence of the community and its interest in education. A good school is an asset and pays good dividends to any community. Better school conditions invariably mean a better school and better community spirit. Generally, a beautiful and convenient school building costs no more than an unsightly one. The difference is in wise and careful planning.

State laws, and State departments of education through the authority given them under special or general statutes, are making concerted efforts to promote better standards for school buildings. In some States this is done through statutory provision to the effect that all plans for school buildings must be inspected by State officials, usually connected either with the State department of education or the State board of health. In others, State appropriations are made for building purposes, sometimes apportioned to districts whose financial condition is such as to make the provision of good buildings a hardship to the community. Sometimes money is loaned to school districts at a low rate of interest. Other States aim to promote good buildings through a plan commonly called standardization of school buildings. Under this plan school buildings meet-

¹ See U. S. Bu. of Educ. Bulletins, 1910, No. 5; 1914, No. 12; 1922, No. 23.

ing certain prescribed requirements may receive State aid or a plate or other mark of distinction.

The experience of the majority of States is that suitable, safe, and sanitary buildings are best assured when there are State laws or regulations, and inspection by State authorities sufficient to give at least general supervision to the matter of the erection of school buildings. A study of school buildings in almost any section of the country at the present time would show many new as well as old buildings, unsightly, poorly arranged for school purposes, and injurious to the health of children because of improper ventilation, poor lighting, and insanitary conditions. Still others are exceedingly dangerous as fire risks. Scarcely a year passes without loss of life of school children from fires which might have been prevented by buildings with properly arranged exits and fire escapes.

All States now have some regulations governing schoolhouse construction. Much of this legislation has been enacted in the past decade. At least three-fourths of the States have laws on the sanitary features of the building. Many States now require that all plans for schoolhouses be submitted to the State board of health or the State architect or the State board or department of education before public funds can be used in proceeding with the building. Sometimes two or more of the agents mentioned cooperate in the approval of building plans. More and more State departments of education are adding a school architect for whole or half time to their staff. These architects not only approve plans submitted but prepare for the State department plans and specifications for new buildings which may be secured without cost by school districts about to erect buildings. A number of States keep building inspectors in the field constantly to assist in improving old buildings and to see that regulations are followed in the erection of new ones.

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