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LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS PROJECT

Local School Unit Organization In 10 States

ARIZONA

ARKANSAS

CALIFORNIA

ILLINOIS

KENTUCKY

NORTH CAROLINA

OHIO

OKLAHOMA

PENNSYLVANIA

TENNESSEE

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LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS PROJECT

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LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS PROJECT

Local School Unit Organization In Ten States

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BULLETIN 1938, NO. 10

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR

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OFFICE OF EDUCATION · J. W. Studebaker, *Commissioner*

UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON : 1939

For sale by the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C. - - - - Price 40 cents

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Foreword

Because of the cooperative nature of the Local School Units Project, the project staff of the Office of Education in Washington, D. C., is greatly indebted to many individuals and organizations for their assistance in prosecuting the study. Among those working directly with the Office project staff were: the National Professional Advisory Committee, which assisted in planning and guiding the project program; the Works Progress Administration, which financed the project, and which, through its National Coordinating Committee and other officers, cooperated in many ways; and the Office of Education Professional Advisory Committee.

The major share of the credit for the completion of the work of the project belongs to the chief State school officers, the State project directors and their associates and staffs, and members of the State departments of education in the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education. Credit is also due to the individuals and agencies rendering assistance to the State project staffs. Among these were: State and local project advisory committees; county and district school officers; State Works Progress Administration officials; State universities; and such State agencies as State planning boards, State highway departments, and State tax commissions.

The authors of this publication are indebted to the State project staffs for much of the data reported herein; to members of the Office of Education who furnished additional data and contributed valuable suggestions; and to the Staff of the Local School Units Project in Wisconsin, which cooperated in preparing the charts of school unit organization.

Each of the chapters describing school unit organization within a particular State was checked and edited by the project staff of the State concerned. Textual materials were read and criticized by: Matthew H. Willing, of the University of Wisconsin; H. G. Good, R. H. Eckelberry, T. C. Holy, and F. L. Shoemaker, of the Ohio State University; Supt. Philip A. Falk, Waukesha, Wis.; E. J. Braun and Vergil E. Lyon, of the Wisconsin Local School Units Project; and staff members of the Office of Education.

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Assistant Commissioner of Education.

Status and Development of Public-school Organization in the United States

EXISTING ORGANIZATION OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The nature of local school organization.—It is generally recognized that each State has ultimate responsibility for providing public education. State governments are bearing a share of the costs of public education and are participating in the control of education through regulations designed to secure efficiency—to improve standards in given areas of educational management and service. Nevertheless, the administrative and financial organization of public education within the States is basically local, and considerable authority for supporting and for administering public schools has been delegated to and is being exercised by one or more types of local school units. (The situation created by decentralization of authority is apparently not conducive to efficient and coordinated educational effort.

Furthermore, there is generally an absence of uniformity in the organization of the local units concerned with education. Areas within which children attend a particular school, areas having responsibility for local financial support of public schools, and areas having local administrative authority over schools, in many cases, have been established independently of each other or in a variety of combinations, and without due regard for the educational needs of children or for operating efficiency.

Types of local school units.—The lack of coordination between local educational structures has resulted in part at least from failure to distinguish the three major functions to be performed by local units in providing and administering a program of education. Each of the three functions, when identified with the area in which it is performed, in turn determines a major type of local school unit. These are: A school attendance area, a school fiscal unit, and a school administrative unit.

The school attendance area.—A school attendance area is a geographic area from which children attend an elementary or a secondary school. The territory within which children attending an elementary school reside is an elementary school attendance area; the territory within which children attending a secondary school reside is a secondary school attendance area. The territory embraced in an elementary school attendance area may be, and usually is, included in a secondary attendance area, the limits of which may or may not be coterminous with the elementary attendance area.

The school fiscal unit.—A local school fiscal unit is a geographic area which serves as a unit for local school support. In general, this limits

the unit to the area in which a specific school tax levied for the partial or complete support of the school program.

The school administrative unit.—A local school administrative unit is a geographic area within which all schools are under single administrative head. The distinguishing feature of this unit is the presence of an individual or of a corporate or quasi-corporate board having administrative authority over schools within the unit.

Complexities in the relationships of local school units.—Confusion and complexity in the operation and relationships of the three types of local school units may be traced back to the period when it was usual for the geographic area served by a school to serve as the unit for the support and the administration of the school. This arrangement represented a situation in which (according to the definitions used in this publication) an attendance area, a fiscal unit, and an administrative unit were coterminous. Although similar situations still exist, a variety of other relationships among the three types of local school units has developed.

• Since it is impracticable to list here all of the possible interrelationships of local school units, only a few of the more common complexities are cited. An administrative unit may contain several elementary school attendance areas and one secondary school attendance area, and may be coterminous with the latter. An administrative unit may be coterminous with an elementary attendance area, but the territory involved may be a part of a secondary attendance area which also includes all or parts of the territory of other administrative units. Although usually a local school fiscal unit is coterminous with a local school administrative unit, there are cases (a) where areas within an administrative unit are fiscal units for one or more, but not all, aspects of educational activity; and (b) where an administrative unit is included within the boundaries of a fiscal unit. In some instances, administrative and fiscal units not only have complex relationships with each other, but also with such political units as cities, townships, or counties.

A bewildering number of local school administrative units makes it extremely difficult to secure efficient school administration. The exact number of local school units of all types is not known. There are, however, in the United States approximately 127,000 administrative units, at least 242,929 attendance areas, and a number of fiscal units equal to, and probably exceeding, the number of administrative units. The complexity of local school unit organization and, in many instances, the high degree of local autonomy, together with only a partial assumption by the State of its responsibilities for education, have resulted not only in educational inefficiency, but also in a strong tendency for the perpetuation of existing organization.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The origin of the district system.—The scheme of school unit organization referred to is the result of a development which began with the establishment of the so-called "district system" and its later spread and modification. This pattern of local school organization originated in the disintegration of the New England town. By the end of the seventeenth century, small settlements, which grew up within town boundaries but which were cut off from the central town by distance or natural barriers, began to seek and gradually to obtain for themselves the authority to exercise powers originally reserved to the town, including the right to have their own schools and to levy taxes for school support. Although the district system thus evolved out of conditions peculiar to New England, it was suitable to pioneer conditions wherever they existed and, therefore, spread rapidly into newly developed States.

The first step toward State participation in public education usually took the form of legislation which legally established the district system by giving to each district the right to elect school trustees, to establish a school, to levy local school taxes, and to select a teacher. In Connecticut this legal recognition came in 1776, and in Massachusetts during the period from 1789 to 1827. Indiana adopted the district system in 1816, Illinois in 1825, and Michigan in 1828.

The development and effect of local autonomy.—Under the district system, local school districts had practically supreme autonomy in every phase of educational effort. States sometimes prescribed minimum essentials. For example, an Ohio law of 1825 specified reading, writing, arithmetic, and other necessary branches of an English education. Nevertheless, local school boards often had entire jurisdiction over the prescription and execution of school curricula. Such authority led to some interesting but unfortunate variations in local school programs. In Ohio, some district trustees prohibited the teaching of anything other than reading, writing, and arithmetic, and some provided that the school might be taught in German. The power of certification of teachers was frequently made a function of the local district.

Individuality in school financial matters was, in some cases, carried to extremes. In Indiana in 1836 and 1837, householders were permitted to make individual contracts with teachers. In Illinois in 1827, no man could be taxed for school purposes without his written consent. In practically all cases the financial support of schools was a local matter, and any taxes levied for the purpose were usually supplemented by rate bills.

Such local autonomy resulted in progress as well as stagnation. The more progressive and the more populous centers greatly improved their educational offerings with the result that an independent development of public schools took place in the larger cities—a development which was later accentuated by the shifting of population from rural to urban communities.

• Even today there is a sharp contrast between cities and rural areas in respect to scope and quality of educational offerings.

State participation in the financial support of schools.—Variations between districts in the educational programs provided were due in large measure to variations in ability or effort to furnish financial support for education. The need for schools was generally recognized before there was any widespread willingness to be taxed for their support. Even if there had been no opposition to local school taxation, there were gross inequalities and inadequacies in the financial ability of the various local districts to finance an adequate school program. The first step toward relieving this situation was the granting of State funds to local school districts, usually upon condition that each local district accepting State grants raise a specified proportion of its total school funds through local taxation and meet at least a few minimum educational standards.

The prescription of State educational standards was at first stubbornly resisted by local school districts, but as the attractiveness of State school subsidies gradually overshadowed the desire for complete local autonomy, many school districts began to accept State apportionments and to accept the idea of the State's right to legislate on educational matters. At present, all but a few States are appropriating funds for the support of public schools. Since 1920, the amounts appropriated by the several State governments have increased greatly. In some States the appropriations for school purposes have been doubled in a few years' time.

j) *State control and direction of public education.*—Although school districts continued to be jealous of their local autonomy over a period of many years, the State was able gradually to extend its authority by making mandatory regulations which previously had been permissive or contingent upon acceptance of State funds. Generally, however, State authority has not been extended to the point of direct management of the affairs of local school districts. The various States have attempted to improve educational standards and to secure at least reasonable uniformity through laws or regulations concerning such matters as the certification of teachers, the prescription or suggestion of courses of study, the adoption or approval of textbooks, and the prescription of standards for school buildings.

k) *Development of larger units of administration and supervision.*—During the period when education was becoming a matter of State-wide significance, there developed a recognition of the need for securing coordinated educational effort in areas larger than most existing local school districts. Although this need could have been met by enlarging districts through consolidation, little progress was made in this direction until the second decade of the twentieth century. However, States very early attempted to meet the need by establishing agencies, usually officers or boards, to coordinate the efforts of districts in selected areas. These agencies acted as agents of the State in enforcing State requirements and in supervising local districts, and as representatives of the districts in dealing with the State. Since in

most northern and western States the counties constituted convenient geographical areas within which such agents might function, most of these States, beginning about 1829, made the county an intermediate (supervisory) unit. In a few States the township was made an intermediate unit, while in the New England States supervisory unions were formed without regard for the boundaries of political units.

At first the executive officer, usually the county superintendent, of an intermediate unit was in many cases a lay official and, even when a professional person, was, and still is, in most States, an elected officer. He had little or no direct control over the local districts but was supposed to use his influence to secure the establishment and improvement of schools. In other words, his powers were limited and were largely advisory and clerical; gradually these powers have been extended. In some States the powers and duties of the intermediate unit have been delegated to a county board of education which appoints the county superintendent.

Although a number of States in the South had adopted the district system and although there was the same need for supervision of local school districts in these as in the northern and western States, the tendency was to establish the county as a basic administrative unit rather than as an intermediate unit. In southern States the county had always been a very important political unit and when it was given jurisdiction over local school districts the tendency was to make its authority so strong that local school districts lost practically all autonomy and became sub-districts of the county, serving as a basic school administrative unit.

In all sections of the country, as previously indicated, the population centers tended to develop strong educational programs. One factor in this development was the superior educational leadership provided in urban areas. At first the work of schools within individual cities was uncoordinated, and in some cities there were even several separately organized school districts. Very early, however, cities began to develop organization for administering and supervising schools within their boundaries. Urban centers came to have well-coordinated school systems and, consequently, did not need to be supervised as closely by State agencies as school districts in rural areas. As a result, school districts including population centers have remained independent of the intermediate unit in northern and western States and independent of the county basic unit in most southern States.

EFFECT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNIT ORGANIZATION ON THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

The present organization of local school units in the United States is the outcome of the developments described. The introductory section of this chapter indicates existing administrative complexities, conflicts of authority, and operating inefficiencies which seem to be concomitants of such

organization. In practically every State the financial burden which some of the local school districts bear in attempting to raise enough money to offer a minimum educational program has brought many of them to the verge of bankruptcy.

A far more serious consequence of the existing organization of local school units is that these administrative and financial conditions are accompanied by inadequate and unbalanced educational opportunity. There are thousands of children for whom high-school facilities are not available. Kindergartens, health education, fine arts, gymnasiums, libraries, and adequate school laboratories are still wistful dreams in many schools. Less than half of all elementary teachers in the United States in 1937 had as much as 2 years of college training.

Many of the problems arising from deficiencies in the educational program have been carefully studied, and attempts have been made to solve them. Although progress has been made, persons dealing with these problems have come to realize that in many instances solutions depend upon basic changes in the organization of public education. Increasingly, in recent years, educators and laymen have become aware that many of the more pressing educational problems are, directly or indirectly, the results of defects in the existing organization of units for the support and administration of schools. There has been a realization that such problems as inadequate schoolhousing, inaccessible schools, restricted curricular offerings, poorly paid and poorly trained personnel can be solved, or at least directly approached, only to the extent that the machinery for the administration of public education—the organization of local school units—operates effectively and economically.

Organization and Operation of the Local School Units Project

The Local School Units Project as an example of a coordinated program of research is important, first, because of the close cooperation which has been maintained between the Office of Education and the 10 participating States; and, second, because the ultimate objective has been the practical improvement of the organization for administering and supporting public education in each of the 10 States. Data have been collected and organized, not only to secure much needed knowledge but to provide bases for determining the procedures for effecting changes in the organization of local school units.

REASONS FOR UNDERTAKING THE STUDY

Recognition of the need for improving school unit organization.—In the preceding chapter an attempt was made to indicate the effect of school unit organization on public education. It was pointed out that in recognizing the need for improving the organization of local school units, States have tried to offset some of the defects in the existing organization of school units by State grants to local units as means of equalizing educational opportunity. Local school units too small to provide even a minimum educational offering by their own efforts have been given financial assistance by the State. This procedure, while reducing some of the more extreme inequalities, has barely touched the basic difficulty—inefficient organization of local school units—and, in effect, has tended to perpetuate it by enabling unsatisfactory units to continue in existence.¹

The problems of State aid and support of schools are always present when school-district organizations are discussed. The two issues are inseparable. Plans of State aid in operation have often been responsible for the reluctance of many local areas within States to consider a change in school-district boundaries. Equalization funds have been distributed to school districts that have little justification and as a result have made reorganization practically impossible. The usual plans devised to provide special financial aid to poorer districts have tended to perpetuate undesirable types of school systems rather than to bring about a type of school district large enough to warrant independent existence.

Due to the financial stringency of the past few years, when schools were required to increase educational services on reduced incomes, attention was

¹ Engelhardt, Fred; Zeigel, William H., jr.; Proctor, William M.; and Mayo, Scovel S. District organization and secondary education. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1932. (Office of education, Bulletin 1932, no. 17. Monograph No. 8. p. 71.)

focused sharply on the administrative machinery whereby funds, provided for the support of education, are translated into educational services. The problems of local school administration became so insistent during these years that States were forced to take practical steps to improve school unit organization.

Recognition of the need for careful study as a basis for improving school units.—In practically every State there is some legal provision for improving school unit organization by transfer of territory, by the subdivision of units, or by the merger of units. Two of the outstanding weaknesses in most laws relating to the modification of school district boundaries are: (1) Existing provisions for modifying school unit organization frequently are rendered ineffective by restrictive requirements or complicated procedures for making even simple boundary changes; and (2) the laws provide no means for planning and coordinating changes in school unit organization to insure that the changes will contribute either toward the general improvement of the administrative organization of public education in the State as a whole or to a more effective provision for educational services.

Improvement in the educational program of a local unit or of a State depends upon careful planning based upon definite information revealing the status of schools and school districts. Before a program of reorganization of local school units or of the administrative structure of public education in the State can be effectively planned, it is necessary to make studies, of the strengths and weaknesses of existing educational organization.

A number of States have carried on such studies, usually in limited areas, as bases for reflecting the needs for improvement. During the past several years many States, in realizing the need for conducting similar studies, recognized that the studies should be carried on systematically in a number of States under the direction of some central coordinating agency.

PURPOSES AND ORGANIZATION OF THE LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS PROJECT

In 1935, 32 States requested the Office of Education to assume the responsibility for organizing an extended research program and guiding the States in the development of practical programs for securing improvement in school unit organization. In response to these requests, the Office of Education submitted an application for the authorization of a project to be financed from funds appropriated under the Emergency Relief Act of 1935. Budgetary provisions were included for the 32 States, but the funds made available limited the project involving the study of local school units to 10 States, namely: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.

The purposes of the project.—The purposes of the Local School Units Project are as follows:

1. To collect and organize data on educational conditions resulting from or directly concerned with the efficient and economical functioning of local school units.

2. To evaluate the data collected in terms of desirable criteria or minimum educational standards.
3. On the basis of the material collected and evaluated, to propose, when necessary, more satisfactory local school units.
4. To project a program for effecting the improvements proposed.
5. To disseminate information concerning the findings and proposals of the study.

The general program of the project, therefore, has been to study existing school units, evaluate them, and propose practical measures for their improvement.

The project organization.—In setting up an organization for conducting the study, each State was regarded as a unit of effort with a State project staff working in close cooperation with the State department of education. The chief State school officer nominated for appointment by the Secretary of the Interior a regular member of the State department staff to act as State Project Director and one or more specialists to act as associate and assistant directors. The State project staffs were assisted by State advisory committees and, in some instances, by county advisory committees.

Field workers were selected from relief rolls. In each county, one or more of these workers, under the direction of the county superintendent, collected and tabulated basic data on schools and school districts. The State project staff assumed the ultimate responsibility for supervising all field work.

At the peak of its activity, the project had on its rolls 10 State directors, 10 associate directors, 40 assistant directors, and 1,694 field workers. The total amount of funds allotted to the State projects was \$813,219.40. The allotments to the several States ranged from \$15,949.40 to \$180,046, depending upon the size of the State, the number of schools and school districts, the difficulty of securing data, etc.

The Office of Education, in order to fulfill its responsibility for guiding and coordinating the study, set up an Office Project staff, under the direction of a regular member of the Office of Education and composed of specialists who devoted full time to the work. An important auxiliary agency of this staff was the National Advisory Committee, composed of outstanding educators appointed by the Commissioner of Education and serving as consultants in formulating plans and procedures.

PROCEDURES FOR STUDYING LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Planning procedures.—In carrying on an extensive study of local school units in 10 States, careful planning of the procedures to be followed was necessary, particularly since the adopted purposes of the project required a consideration of most of the phases of public education. In June 1935, at a conference held in Washington, D. C., on the call of the Commissioner of Education, the problems of studying and reorganizing local school units were discussed and a series of recommendations concerning the procedures

to be followed were formulated.² On the basis of these recommendations a special committee of the Office of Education formulated a Handbook³ to be used as a basic guide in carrying on the work of the Local School Units Project. This Handbook briefly outlined the procedures recommended and contained a series of forms to be used in collecting and tabulating necessary data.

Although in the preparation of the Handbook care was taken to provide for all possible situations, it was realized that no one set of procedures or series of forms would be entirely applicable and usable in all of the 10 States participating in the project. In February 1936, shortly after the authorization of the Local School Units Project, a conference, attended by the chief State school officers of the project States, the State project directors, and the Office of Education project staff, was held in St. Louis, Mo. At this conference the Handbook was the basis for discussions and each State project staff worked out modifications of Handbook forms necessary to adapt them to the peculiar conditions in the particular State.

The selection of items to be studied.—Because of the time and financial limitations of the project, it was impossible to make an exhaustive survey of all the aspects of the work of the public schools. As a result, those factors most directly connected with efficient administrative operation received major attention. There has been a consistent regard, however, for the ultimate objective of improving the quality and extent of educational offerings. In general, the items on which information was considered to be necessary may be grouped as follows:

Data revealing the status of existing schools and school districts.—These data include such items as school population; the number and distribution of pupils by grades; the size of schools and the length of term; distribution of teaching, supervisory, and administrative personnel; trends in assessed valuations of taxable property for school purposes; school tax levies; school bonded indebtedness; transportation; adequacy of school buildings; current costs; and the size of school districts. The basic data were collected by field workers who tabulated them on the forms adopted for use in the respective States. The tabulations were then transmitted to the State project headquarters for organization, analysis, and evaluation.

In addition to the data which could be presented in tabular form, at least two maps were prepared for each county. One map showed school district boundaries; location of school buildings and grades taught in each building; highways; and natural barriers. The second map showed the distribution of school population by schools and by school districts. When possible, maps showing the status of school buildings, transportation routes, and land uses, also were prepared.

² Cook, Katherine M., ed. Reorganization of school units: a report of the proceedings of the conference called by the Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C., June 1935. Washington, United States Government printing office, 1935. (Office of education, Bulletin 1935, no. 15.) 91 p.

³ Alves, H. F., et al. Handbook of procedures for planning the reorganization of local school units. Washington, Office of education, 1936. mimeographed. (Circular no. 156.) 54 p.

All maps were prepared in basic form by field workers and transmitted to the State project headquarters where they were redrawn by draftsmen.

Data revealing the legal provisions governing existing school unit organization.—This information was gathered by the State project staff and was usually based on the State school code, on its interpretation by the courts, and on current practices in conforming to the legal prescriptions.

Data concerning the present programs of local and State school support.—In part, this information was gathered for each school district by the county workers and, in part, on a State-wide basis by workers in the State project headquarters. It was organized to indicate local and State ability to finance the existing as well as the proposed educational program.

The items indicated in the preceding paragraphs should be considered as merely illustrative. All States gathered data on the same basic items, but since some phases of school unit organization constitute greater problems in some States than in others, all States did not emphasize the same items. Each participating State found one or more problems peculiar to itself and made special studies of such problems.

Basic data collected in the counties were assembled at the State project headquarters, where they were organized to reveal the status of existing school units and were used in an evaluation of existing educational conditions in the State as a basis for formulating practical plans for improving existing conditions.

EVALUATION OF EXISTING EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS

The necessity for minimum desirable standards.—Before existing educational conditions could be evaluated, it was necessary to set up criteria or desirable standards for the organization, size, and location of schools; for the organization and size of school districts; and for the services to be rendered by schools and school districts. Minimum standards were needed to evaluate existing school units and to serve as a guide for proposing more satisfactory attendance areas and administrative units.

Determining tentative desirable standards.—In determining minimum standards, the State project staffs consulted the educational literature on the subject. Both the many studies revealing the characteristics of schools which at present are offering adequate educational services and the large body of more theoretical discussion about the desirable characteristics of schools and of school districts, were used as guides.

It was recognized, however, that standards for schools and school districts should be adapted to the particular conditions within a State or subdivision of a State. Some of the local and State factors considered by State project staffs in determining minimum standards are: (a) Topographic, economic, and population factors and (b) legal prescriptions or standards in regard to size of schools, qualifications of teaching personnel adequacy of school buildings, and the like. As a result of the consideration

of such factors, the standards determined for each project State differed in details from those determined for every other project State. There was however, a uniformity in the principles underlying and the factors considered in each set of standards. In the following sections some illustrations of these principles and factors are given.

Minimum standards for attendance areas.—Some general principles for the reorganization of school units were suggested by the conference held in Washington in June 1935.⁴ Some of the recommendations applying to attendance areas are:

Principles for reorganizing attendance areas.—The following general principles are suggested as pertinent to the organization or reorganization of attendance areas:

(a) The attendance area includes all the children attending or eligible to attend a single school. In general, it should be considered an elastic subdivision of an administrative unit. The areas of the attendance unit will probably vary from State to State and from locality to locality, depending upon roads and climatic conditions, population density, age of the children involved, educational leadership, and other related factors.

(b) The elementary attendance area should, insofar as possible, be large enough to meet the following minimum criteria:

Make possible a school with at least one grade per teacher with a desirable ratio of 30 pupils per teacher. The pupils, however, should not have to walk more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 miles to or from school or ride on a school bus more than 1 hour (preferably including time of walking to the bus) each morning or evening, or be transported over roads that present extreme hazards.

(c) The high-school attendance area may be subdivided as occasion demands into junior and senior high school attendance areas, which may, in turn, comprise several elementary school attendance areas. The optimum size of the unit will depend largely on density of population and facilities for transportation; but it should, except under unusual circumstances, be large enough to meet the following minimum criteria:

Make possible a junior high school with at least 300 pupils and 10 teachers, a senior high school of 300 pupils and 10 teachers, or a junior-senior high school of 300 pupils and 10 teachers. The pupils, however, should not have to walk more than 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles to or from school, or ride on a school bus more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours (preferably including time of walking to the bus) each morning or evening. It is recognized that wherever density of population permits or transportation is feasible, high school attendance units large enough to make possible the development of considerably larger schools are desirable.

⁴ Cook. Op. cit., pp. 16-18.

The minimum size standards indicated should be regarded as merely suggestive.

In all cases where it is practicable, larger schools than those required by the minimum standards should be established. Where the topography of the country, road conditions, and the community life of the different areas make a smaller school desirable or necessary, schools smaller than those called for by the minimum standards must of necessity be established. It should be pointed out here that some authorities in rural education look with favor on the establishment of elementary schools having only one or two teachers and two to four grades of work. Their chief interest is to form attendance areas which will have a sufficient number of pupils to constitute full teaching units and to keep the schools for small children near their homes. They hold that the formation of school units large enough to provide an adequate program of education is either undesirable or unattainable in rural areas.

The decisions concerning such matters in this project were left to the respective States.

The standards for attendance areas determined by the State project staffs were not, of course, limited only to the number of pupils and teachers. Some of the other factors for which standards were determined are location of schools, transportation, adequacy of school buildings, etc. Some principles applying to the determination of standards for these items are:

Location of schools.—The general topography, including streams and other natural barriers, soil conditions, the present and probable future conditions of the roads, and the existence of community activities, should be considered as determining factors in the location of schools. Where the removal of the school would do too great violence to certain well-established community enterprises and attitudes, a school should not be removed, although at the time it may not meet the standards of the minimum size of schools.

Schools should be located in relatively permanent centers of population. Permanency of population is to be judged, not alone by the growth of population in the past, but also by present factors that will probably influence the stability, growth, or decline of population in the future.

Schools should be located near the principal center of population so as to be convenient to the maximum number of pupils affected and on the most suitable site available.

If it can be demonstrated, that, in the long run, the abandonment of usable schoolhouses will be more economical, the present buildings should be abandoned without regard to their present conditions and new buildings on new locations provided.

Transportation.—Transportation of pupils at public expense should be kept at a minimum by the location of school buildings so as to permit the maximum number of children to walk to school but should

be provided for all pupils who do not live within walking distance of school.

School buildings.—The school buildings should be planned from a functional point of view, i. e., they should be built with definite educational services in mind.

The building should be arranged and constructed so as to be free from fire and accident hazards. It should be properly lighted, heated, and ventilated, and so oriented as to facilitate such provisions.

The buildings should be equipped in such a manner as to make possible the maximum of health, safety, and instructional efficiency of both pupils and teachers.

The school site should be easily accessible, well-drained, free from hazards to health and safety, free from disturbing noises, and should have ample playground facilities. There should be a minimum of 1 acre for each 50 pupils, and a minimum of 5 acres for any school having 250 or more pupils.

If, by alterations or additions, present school buildings can be made to meet the standards set up, then remodeling should be considered. Otherwise, new buildings, located on suitable sites, should be recommended.

Minimum standards for administrative units.—The recommendations of the conference held in Washington in June 1935, also included some suggestions applying to the organization of administrative units.⁴ Some of these are:

Principles for reorganizing administrative units.—The following principles are suggested as pertinent to the organization for reorganization of administrative units:

(a) An administrative unit should comprise 1 or more attendance areas (ordinarily 2 or more) offering educational facilities at least through the twelfth grade. (Only under exceptional circumstances, due to such factors as extremely sparse population or rugged topography should an administrative unit comprise only an elementary or an elementary-junior high school attendance area.) Administrative units comprising elementary-junior-senior high school and junior college attendance units may be recognized for the larger centers of population.

(b) An administrative unit should be sufficiently large to warrant the provision of all essential and desirable administrative and supervisory services except those provided directly by the State. Ordinarily, several elementary junior-senior high school attendance units will be involved.

(c) The boundaries of the school administrative unit need not be coterminous with the boundaries of any political subdivision of the State. An administrative unit may include part of a county, a county, or two or more counties or cities, or a city and part of a county.

⁴ Cook. *Op. cit.*, pp. 17-18.

(d) If the principle of State support of a minimum educational program is recognized and applied, there will be little occasion for organizing administrative units in terms of their ability to be self-sustaining. Emphasis can then be placed increasingly on the optimum unit for the efficient and economical provision of the desirable educational offerings.

(e) The State should make provisions for any administrative unit to contract or arrange with any larger administrative unit for the education of children who need more highly specialized types of educational opportunity than are provided in their own unit.

In general, the State project staffs considered it necessary to emphasize the importance of securing administrative units of sufficient size to provide adequate administrative and supervisory service but also large enough to provide for maximum local support of schools. Several of the State project staffs favored Dawson's recommendation of approximately 1,600 pupils and 46 teaching units as the minimum size of administrative units.⁶ Although a compromise with this minimum has been necessary in many instances, the State staffs have attempted to avoid proposing many very small administrative units. In practically all instances, proposed standards call for administrative units of sufficient size to permit the organization of schools large enough to provide approved educational services. The standards also usually require that administrative units contain whole attendance areas; that is, schools jointly maintained by two or more school districts should be avoided in order to eliminate possibilities of jurisdictional conflict.

Minimum standards for fiscal units.—The following general principles, pertinent to the organization or reorganization of school fiscal units or local units of financial support of schools are suggested in the fifteenth *Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence*.⁷

Principles for reorganizing units of local school support

(a) Tax units for public schools should be organized for the support of all public education for people up through at least twenty years of age. In other words, every local section of a State should be required to participate in the financial support of public education through what is now recognized as the secondary school period.

(b) School tax units should be independent of all other municipal and quasi-municipal organizations.

(c) School tax units should be so organized as to guarantee the exertion of a minimum financial effort toward the support of public education by every local area of the State.

(d) In determining the reasonable minimal financial effort that is to be required of local areas in the support of public schools, the total

⁶ Dawson, Howard A. Satisfactory local school units. Field study no. 7. Division of surveys and field studies, George Peabody college for teachers, Nashville, Tenn. The college, 1934. p. 81.

⁷ National Education Association, department of superintendence. The improvement of education. In fifteenth Yearbook. Washington, the association, 1937. p. 135.

tax burden of the area included in the school tax unit should be considered.

(c) In the establishment of school tax units, governing legislation should differentiate between taxes for current expenses and taxes for programs of capital outlay.

PROCEDURES FOR PROPOSING MORE SATISFACTORY SCHOOL UNITS

Planning procedures.—As the collection of basic data by field workers was nearing completion, a conference was held in Washington in August 1936 to consider the procedures to be followed in formulating project proposals. The conference was attended by the chief State school officer from each project State, the State project directors and their associates and assistants, the National Advisory Committee, and the Office of Education project staff. The members of this conference prepared and adopted a series of reports presenting certain factors and principles to be considered and recommending procedures to be followed in completing the work of the project. These reports covered the following topics:

1. Objectives of Studies of Local School Units as Related to School Programs of Education.
2. Projected Relationships of Proposed Local School Administrative Units to the State and Its Existing Educational Subdivisions.
3. Principles and Procedures Necessary to Assure Practical Outcomes from Studies of Local School Units. Part I—Securing Public Support. Part II—The Legislative Program.
4. State Reports on Organization of Attendance Areas and Local School Administrative Units.
5. Suggested Office of Education Reports Relating to the Local School Units Project.

It was expected that the steps taken in formulating proposals in the several States would vary slightly, as a result of local conditions, from the conference recommendations. Although there has been some variation among the States, the procedures followed, in general, have involved the following steps:

1. The planning of specific but tentative school attendance areas and school administrative units within each county. There was no intention of recommending, as a universal policy, that the county be made the basic unit of local school administration.

Because of the tremendous detail involved in working out specific proposals for individual school attendance areas and school administrative units, it was necessary to subdivide States into convenient geographic areas for study and for formulating proposals. It happens that in the 10 States studied, the counties constitute such geographic areas.

2. The preparation of financial schedules (a) to show the cost of making the proposed changes and (b) to contrast the current expenses

of the existing and of the proposed organizations on the basis both of the existing and of the needed additional educational services.

3. The projection of a tentative program for carrying the proposed changes into effect. This involved (a) plans for securing local support for the proposals and (b) a program for securing the necessary legislation.

In carrying out the steps outlined above, each State project staff worked in close cooperation with its respective State department of education. This was especially necessary at this point in order to insure the integration of recommendations and proposals of the project with the State program of education in a form which would be of practical use to the State department.

Planning satisfactory attendance areas and administrative units.—When considering the possible reorganization of school units in any selected area, the first step was to set up a tentative plan for the location of needed schools. With the aid of basic maps and with the aid of pupil personnel and other data revealing the status of existing schools, desirable high-school attendance areas were determined. Elementary attendance areas within the selected high-school attendance areas were then determined. In connection with these procedures, recommendations were made as to the schools that should be retained and possibly enlarged by consolidation with others, and as to those that should be abolished.

It is apparent that the determination of the elementary and high-school attendance areas was necessary before intelligent consideration could be given to problems relating to and involving required administrative, supervisory, and instructional services, needed physical plant facilities, transportation, and the ability to meet financial responsibilities in proposed local school units. Since these items all relate to the functions of local units of administration, the proposals for desirable administrative units could be made only after satisfactory attendance areas had been determined. This seems to be the most logical procedure to follow in proposing satisfactory attendance areas and administrative units.⁸

In most cases, proposed attendance areas and administrative units were determined only after consultation, by the State project staff, with members of the State department of education and with officials of the local school units involved in the proposed changes.

The procedures described resulted in tentative plans for the location of attendance areas with definite information about school population, grade distribution of pupils, classroom teachers, etc., for schools to be retained as well as for those not to be retained. When the final plan for proposed organization had been agreed upon, maps of each county were prepared, showing the boundaries of the proposed administrative units, the boundaries of the proposed attendance areas, the location and size of each proposed school building, the distribution of school population, and the planned bus

⁸ It should be noted that this statement applies only to the sequence of procedures in formulating proposals. It does not necessarily apply to the sequence of procedures in effecting the proposals.

routes. These maps were designed to contrast the proposed school units with the existing school units.

Planning a financial program for the proposed organization of school units.—In projecting a financial program for a proposed organization of schools and school units, two estimates of expenditures were made. In the first place, it was necessary to estimate the immediate cost, including capital outlay, of effecting the proposals; and, in the second place, it was necessary to estimate the cost of operating the proposed schools and school districts. In each case, consideration had to be given to the share of the financial cost to be borne by local school units and by the State.

Estimates of the immediate cost of putting the proposed organization into effect included such items as the alteration of old buildings or the cost of new buildings, the purchase of needed transportation equipment, the employment of bus drivers, and in some cases the employment of additional or special teachers.

The cost of operating the proposed organization of school units was calculated on the basis of estimated cost per teaching unit and the probable cost of transporting children not living within walking distance of the proposed schools. These costs were estimated by the State project staff on the basis of prevailing costs. Since the current costs of the proposed educational program included expenditures for administrative, supervisory, and instructional services, as well as expenditures for maintenance and operation of the school plant, auxiliary services, and fixed charges, the estimated costs within each administrative unit were distributed in accordance with accepted classifications used in recognized budgetary procedures.

In allocating the share of immediate and current costs of the proposed organization to be borne by the locality and by the State, it was necessary to determine the amount of income from local sources, which was calculated from the assessed valuation of property in accordance with any constitutional or statutory prescriptions or limitations relating to current expenses for schools. The income from State and Federal sources was estimated on the basis of existing and of expected provision for funds for school purposes from these sources, and on the basis of existing or proposed methods of distributing these school moneys to the educational subdivisions of the State.

One important phase in these considerations was a comparison between present current costs and the estimated current costs of the proposed organization of school units. In making such comparisons, it was necessary to distinguish between the costs actually chargeable to the reorganization itself and the costs chargeable to increases in educational services which the proposed organization would be expected to provide.

Another important phase was the determination of methods of distributing State funds to local school districts. In general, the following principles appear pertinent: (1) local school administrative units should contribute to the total educational cost upon some equitable basis; (2) State funds

should be distributed only to units so organized that the funds would be used in the most efficient manner possible; (3) the State should be prepared to grant additional aid to school organizations not efficiently organized when such sub-standard organizations are necessary because of local geographic or other factors; and (4) the method of apportioning State funds should be such that local school units will be encouraged to form voluntarily more effective organizations.

PROJECTING A PROGRAM FOR EFFECTING PROJECT PROPOSALS

Planning procedures.—The representatives attending the conference at Washington in August 1936 recommended procedures for formulating project proposals as well as certain principles for carrying proposed changes into effect. It was recognized that the assurance of practical outcomes of project proposals depended upon the consideration of all the factors contributing to and resulting in the existing situation in a particular State. Although the States recommended different steps for securing improvement in the existing organization of public education, they all observed certain general principles:

(a) The initiative for securing specific action on any or all project proposals was assumed by the State departments of education. Only to the extent that the program evolving out of project work is made a part of the State program of education can practical outcomes be hoped for.

(b) Careful attention was given to determining what parts of the proposed program are to be carried through by voluntary action either by the boards of existing school units or by action of the citizens in areas containing one or more local school units.

(c) Equal care was taken in determining what part of the program was to be effected by legislative action. This involved also a consideration of the type of legislative action to be taken; in other words, whether mandatory or permissive legislation is needed.

The proposed-project program as a part of the program of the State department of education.—Although the officially appointed personnel of the State project staffs assumed responsibility for the prosecution of the study program in every instance, this project was considered of such significance that the chief State school officer and his staff members were so actively interested in the work that each activity of the project was coordinated with and often made a contributing part of the total program of the State department of education. A continuing effort to achieve proposed improvements in public-school organization has been made a definite phase of the work of the State department.

Proposals to be effected through local action.—The support of local school officials and lay citizens is necessary for the successful achievement of any proposed change, whether it is to be accomplished by local or by State action. Such support is particularly necessary if any or all proposals are

to be effected by local action. Because of the long-standing tradition of local control of schools, all project States have recommended that, wherever possible, proposed changes should have the sanction of the localities affected. It has been recognized, however, that certain safeguards must be observed. School districts covering small areas and containing only small groups of citizens should not be permitted to nullify improvements desired by and of benefit to larger groups of citizens in other areas. Questions of policy affecting school unit organization which are of interest to the people of the State as a whole should be decided by the State as a whole. The problem of the rights of localities to determine policies affecting schools within those localities is part of the larger problem of the rights of minorities under a democratic system of government. Its solution in any State will depend on conditions and traditions in the State.

In all cases, as wide a dissemination as possible of the data collected by the project staff is being made, and local discussion of project procedures is being encouraged. Only by such dissemination of information and such discussion can local support for recommended changes be secured. Insofar as possible, States have attempted to facilitate the securing of local support by securing local cooperation in formulating the proposals.

Proposals to be effected by legislative action.—The principle already stated—that matters concerning the total State educational program should be decided by all the people of the State—was applied in determining the parts of the total proposed program to be effected by legislative action. Even in those States where the final decision on specific proposals is to be left to the localities affected, legislative action is necessary in order to facilitate the effecting of such proposals by the locality. The principal change in State laws which most project States have found necessary is the simplification of existing cumbersome and restrictive procedures for changing the boundaries of school districts.

A second type of legislative action which has been found necessary in all States has already been referred to; namely, the establishment of a method of apportioning State school funds to encourage local school units to make needed improvements in organization. A number of the project States have found that existing procedures for apportioning school funds definitely tend to prevent such improvement in organization.

Some, although probably not many, of the proposed changes will have to be made by mandatory legislation. Mandatory changes in the organization of local school units are likely to be regarded with suspicion and most educators hesitate to recommend mandatory laws. It should not be overlooked, however, that in many of the areas in which States regulate educational matters, mandatory legislation has been necessary. Such items range from the adoption of textbooks to certification of teachers. The extent to which mandatory legislation is used in effecting proposed local unit organization will depend largely on conditions in a State.

In working out the legislative program in each State, it was necessary to determine the sequence in which project proposals were to be effected. In

a preceding section of this chapter, it was stated that the logical sequence for *proposing* more satisfactory school units was, first, to determine satisfactory attendance areas and, second, to determine satisfactory administrative units. Unless the boundaries of proposed attendance areas have been at least tentatively determined, it is difficult, if not impossible, to determine boundaries of proposed administrative units that will not divide the territory of given attendance areas. Once both the proposed attendance areas and the administrative units have been determined, there does not seem to be any reason why the actual organization of the proposed administrative units cannot accompany, or perhaps even precede, the organization of the proposed attendance areas. The sequence to be followed in effecting proposals will depend, in large measure, upon conditions within a particular State. Two illustrations may be given. In two States, the proposals were formulated in accordance with the sequence of procedures previously indicated, namely, attendance areas and then administrative units. In one State, most administrative units are already relatively large but most attendance areas are small. In this State, the emphasis in effecting project proposals will naturally fall upon the reorganization of attendance areas, although it will, of course, be necessary to make some modification of administrative unit boundaries. In the other State, there are thousands of very small administrative units, each of which contains a single 1-teacher school. It is obvious that in this second State, it will be impossible to reorganize attendance areas without reorganizing administrative units. Since it is always more difficult to modify the boundaries of administrative units than to change those of attendance areas, the emphasis in this State will primarily fall upon the reorganization of administrative units.

DISSEMINATION OF THE FINDINGS OF THE LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS PROJECT

One important outcome of the Local School Units Project is the publicizing of existing educational conditions in respect to local school units as a means of securing intelligent discussion of current educational problems and as a means of securing practical solutions for many of these problems. The work of the project has resulted in publications which have had three different purposes: (1) To describe and evaluate the procedures followed in conducting the project; (2) to present the data on existing schools and school units collected by the project; and (3) to present the programs for organizing more satisfactory schools and school units.

Each State project staff has prepared a report for each county studied. Although these county reports present detailed information on present schools and existing school units, their primary purpose is to present recommendations for changes in the school unit organization within the county. They are designed to form the basis of the program for effecting the recommendations and will have their greatest use in the hands of local school officials, board members, and citizens. In most cases, the suggested

changes were proposed only after a conference of the State project staff and members of the State department of education with representatives of school units within the county.

Each State project has also issued a State project report which summarizes the data on present schools and school units and which suggests a State-wide program for needed modification of the existing local organization. The discussion of this program not only involves a summary of the recommendations contained in the county reports but also (1) a justification of the changes and an evaluation of what they mean to the State, both financially and in terms of educational services; and (2) recommendations for legislation needed to effect changes on a State-wide basis without jeopardizing the rights and interests of localities. These State reports can be secured from the State department of education in each of the 10 States.

While State project staffs were organizing, analyzing, and evaluating data collected by field workers for the purpose of formulating project proposals, they were also sending to the Office of Education project staff a series of reports revealing the status of existing school units and illustrating the methods being used to determine plans for reorganizing such school units. These reports have formed the basis for two Office of Education project publications.

One publication resulting from this 10-State project is entitled *Principles and Procedures in the Organization of Satisfactory Local School Units*. Based on a searching analysis of the results of techniques actually used in many situations, this publication has been made possible only because of the experience of the project in using such techniques and because of the wealth of materials which the project has been able to assemble in the central office at Washington. It is hoped that the aforementioned publication will be of value to those conducting similar studies.

The remaining chapters of this publication are also based on the reports submitted by the State project staffs to the Office of Education project staff. Chapter III is an attempt to clarify some of the problems involved in presenting the existing State-wide organization of local school units. Each of the 10 chapters from chapter IV to chapter XIII, inclusive, deals with a project State. The existing organization of school units within the State is discussed from the standpoint of the effect of that organization upon the total educational program of the State. In addition, an attempt is made to evaluate certain factors, principally legal provisions affecting local school unit organization, which must be considered in attempting to secure improvement in the State-wide organization of local school units.

Chapter XIV discusses and summarizes, from the standpoint of the 10 States as a group, the information presented in the 10 State chapters. Chapter XV, based on the State project reports, briefly summarizes some of the findings and proposals of the several State projects and is intended to illustrate concretely the procedures followed by the 10 State project staffs in working out programs for improving the organization of public education in the States.

Nature and Operation of Local School Administrative Units

AN ANALYSIS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Major factors in the operation of school units.—Any study of attendance areas, fiscal units, or administrative units must include, in addition to detailed information about each unit itself, a consideration of the operation of school units as elements in the administrative machinery of a State school system and as autonomous instrumentalities for performing certain designated functions.

The operating efficiency of any administrative organization depends to a large degree upon: (1) The definite assignment of jurisdiction and responsibility; (2) the cooperation between all divisions of the organization; and (3) the number of focal points of responsibility. An analysis of any administrative organization must be based, therefore, not only upon the extent to which a particular unit of the organization performs the functions assigned to it but also upon the extent to which the operating relationships between the unit and other units may facilitate or hinder its performance of the assigned function. Such a consideration of operating relationships is particularly necessary in order to comprehend and evaluate the existing organization of local school units as an administrative structure.

An examination of operating relationships requires that consideration be given to the agents or agencies between whom the relationships lie rather than to the geographical areas within which the agents or agencies have jurisdiction. From this viewpoint, attendance areas, in spite of their confused overlappings geographically, are found to have relatively few complex relationships. In most States the agent having jurisdiction over an attendance area is the board of education of the administrative unit in which the attendance area wholly or partly lies.

Similarly, the functions which distinguish a fiscal unit are performed by a board or officer who performs such functions as a part of his responsibility in connection with some other unit such as a school administrative unit or a political unit. There are instances, as in Tennessee, where within an administrative unit a fiscal unit has been created for the specific purpose of raising funds for the erection of school buildings but which, except for turning over to the administrative unit the funds thus raised, has no connection with the actual administration of schools. Somewhat similar cases are found in large cities where the financial officer of the municipal government is responsible for levying and collecting taxes for school purposes. Where such situations occur, they can be described most conven-

iently if considered in connection with the relationships for the operation of the school administrative unit concerned.

The relative complexity of operation of administrative units.—School codes recognize and distinguish a large number of classes of school administrative units but relatively few classes of attendance areas and of fiscal units. The greatest complexity of operating relationships is found between school administrative units because the functions of the board or officer of an administrative unit involve not only the relationships of that unit to other administrative units but also, quite generally, the relationships of attendance areas and fiscal units to the administrative unit and to each other.

Since, ultimately, the administrative unit is the most influential agency in providing educational services, a careful analysis of the operation of administrative units is basically necessary for the establishment of a satisfactory organization of local school units. Such an analysis is possible only if valid and adequate criteria for the classification of local school administrative units are available. Since these criteria must be based on an enumeration and a classification of the controlling factors in the administrative structure and in the operation of local school administrative units, they should indicate the particular position occupied by each type of unit with respect to the total organization of school administrative units in the State and with respect to other governmental units.

CLASSIFICATION OF LOCAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

The need for a classification of administrative units.—The first step in analyzing the administrative structure and operation of local school administrative units is the establishment of classifications upon the basis of which administrative units may be identified. This is necessary because the legal names of administrative units are, practically valueless for identifying them. In the 10 project States there are more than 50 legally authorized and designated classes of administrative units. In the country as a whole the number is still larger. It is not conducive to a clear understanding of the situation to attempt to think in terms of half a hundred or more classes of administrative units.

Although recognizing that a general classification of these units is fraught with difficulty, almost all writers describing the organization of administrative units have attempted to clarify the situation by means of some form of classification.

Identity with political units commonly used as basis of classification.—A basis frequently used for classifying administrative units is that proposed by Deffenbaugh and Covert.¹ They state:

... a distinction between school districts may be made in most cases on the basis of the general statutory limits for the boundaries. Accordingly, there are (1) the small local school district whose boundaries include only the territory of a single school community and

¹ Deffenbaugh, W. S., and Covert, Timon. School administrative units. Office of Education, Pamphlet No. 34, p. 1.

are not ordinarily coterminous with those of any civil unit: (2) the one whose boundaries are coterminous with those of a minor civil subdivision of the State, but generally smaller than a county, such as towns, townships, and cities; and (3) the one which is county-wide in extent.

The same classification is used by Dawson² and by a number of other writers. As a method of classifying districts it has the merit of simplifying a complex situation, although it does not indicate the relationships of the districts so classified and does not reveal the operation of the administrative organization of education in the State as a whole. In the project States, with the exception of a relatively small number of "city districts," the fact that a school district is coterminous with a particular kind of geographical or political unit seems to have little or no bearing on the powers and duties delegated to it or on its operation. Reports from personal interviews with members of the State Department of Education in each of the 48 States indicate that this statement applies throughout the country as well as in the 10 project States.

Confusion in classification.—A somewhat common confusion in the classification of school districts is found in the third class, namely, "the one which is county-wide in extent." Deffenbaugh and Covert give a table which includes States ". . . which provide for the entire administration of schools in some or in all counties on a county unit plan and States which provide for the administration of only certain activities of the county school system on a county unit plan."³ These two situations are not identical and from the standpoint of function or operation belong in separate categories. In a "county unit" system the county is a *school district* charged directly with the support and administration of schools. This county school district is identical in its nature and operation with all other school districts directly supporting and administering schools. In contrast, when the county is concerned with "the administration of only certain activities of the county school system" it is *not* a school district charged directly with the support and administration of schools, but a *supervisory unit* whose primary function is the supervision (but not the administrative control) of districts comprising the county. Such districts are charged with the support and administration of schools. Chamberlain and Meece⁴ have recognized these two situations. They state:

When viewed from the standpoint of the functions served, local school units may be classified as either basic or intermediate.

¹ Dawson, Howard A. *Satisfactory local school units: Functions and principles of formation, organization, and administration.* Nashville, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1934. (Field study no. 7) 180 pp.

² Deffenbaugh and Covert. *Op. cit.*, p. 11.

³ Chamberlain, Leo M., and Meece, Leonard E. *The local unit for school administration in the United States.* Lexington, University of Kentucky, 1936. (Bureau of School Service Bulletin, vol. VIII, No. 3) pp. 7-8.

That the classification of local school units as either basic or intermediate is essential to a clear understanding of the problem is readily appreciated when it is recognized that the county is employed in some fashion as a school unit in 40 States, but that its use in 12 States as a basic unit is radically different from its use in 28 other States as an intermediate unit.

Basic and intermediate units.—For the purpose of classifying administrative units in terms of their operating relationships the distinction made by Chamberlain and Meece seems valid. Accordingly, a primary classification of administrative units, as basic and as intermediate, is made.

The basic administrative unit.—A basic administrative unit is an area within which a single board or officer has the ultimate responsibility for the direct administration of all schools. It is a unit within which there are no other units for the administration of schools. The distinguishing features of a basic administrative unit are: (1) That its board or officer has the responsibility for, and partial or complete autonomy in, administering the schools within its boundaries; and (2) that its board or officer exercises no control over any other administrative unit.

The intermediate unit.—An intermediate unit is an area—comprising the territory of a number of basic administrative units—within which a board or officer has the responsibility for the supervision (but not for the complete control) of the fiscal, administrative, or educational functions of the basic administrative units within its boundaries. Thus, the distinguishing feature of an intermediate unit is that its board or officer has supervisory jurisdiction over basic administrative units. An intermediate unit may, in certain cases, maintain some schools directly but only in addition to its primary supervisory functions.

The classification of basic administrative units.—The classification of administrative units as basic or as intermediate helps to define more clearly the administrative structure within a State.

An examination of the operating relationships of basic administrative units reveals that these relationships, for the most part, do not lie between basic administrative units but (1) between the basic units and the State, or (2) between the basic units and the intermediate unit. Some basic units function autonomously, subject only to the regulation by the State; others are subject in one or more of their functions to the supervisory jurisdiction of an intermediate unit and are subject to regulation by the State. A classification indicating that a basic unit *is* or *is not* supervised by an intermediate unit should be of real assistance in revealing operating relationships. Accordingly, basic administrative units are classified as dependent or as independent.

The dependent basic unit.—A dependent basic administrative unit is an administrative unit which is, to any degree whatsoever, under either

the administrative or supervisory jurisdiction, or both, of an intermediate unit. The distinguishing feature of a dependent unit is that it is to some extent under the supervision of the board or officer of an intermediate unit but at the same time possesses some degree of local autonomy. Under this definition there will be a wide range in the degree to which the dependent unit is subject to control by the intermediate unit. In no case will the dependent basic unit be completely controlled by the intermediate unit.

The independent basic unit.—An independent basic administrative unit is an administrative unit which is entirely free from any control by an intermediate unit. Although in a few instances independent units may be required by law to submit reports to the officers of an intermediate unit, there is no implied authority for the intermediate unit to supervise any of the functions reported upon.

SOME COMPLEXITIES IN THE APPLICATION OF A CLASSIFICATION BASED UPON OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS

Any classification of administrative units based upon operating relationships between basic units and intermediate units obviously can be applied only to States where intermediate units exist. In States where there are no intermediate units, all administrative units are independent basic units. Generally, in States where all administrative units are independent, the county is an *important* basic unit. A county school administrative unit does not necessarily include all the territory of a political county even though the boundaries of the former are coterminous with the boundaries of the latter. Within a political county, there may be certain school administrative units, commonly comprising a city or town, which function as autonomously as the county administrative unit. *These usually are called independent units.* All territory not included in these independent units is included in the county administrative unit, with the result that both the county and the independent units function as independent basic administrative units.

The classification of administrative units suggested herein presents some difficulties when it is applied to a specific State, in establishing a line of demarcation (a) between the county as a basic unit and the county as an intermediate unit, and (b) between strong dependent units and weak independent units.

The line of demarcation between the county as a basic unit and the county as an intermediate unit.—The geographic area most commonly used as an intermediate unit is the county. In States not having intermediate units the geographic area commonly used as a basic administrative unit is the county (or the territory of the county outside of independent units). It is sometimes difficult to differentiate between county basic units and county intermediate units. In some county basic units there are subdivisions, often called subdistricts, which may be confused with dependent basic units under the supervision of a county intermediate unit. To determine

whether the county is a basic unit or an intermediate unit, it is necessary to decide whether subdivisions within the county are subdistricts or whether they are dependent basic units. The distinction depends almost entirely upon the extent to which these subdivisions exercise local autonomy.

Teachers in dependent basic units in Ohio are nominated by the superintendents of the county intermediate units, but the ultimate authority for appointing teachers so nominated rests with the boards of education of the dependent units, whereas, teachers in subdistricts of the county administrative units in North Carolina are nominated by subdistrict committees, but the ultimate authority for appointing them rests with the boards of education of the county administrative units. If a subdivision within a county possesses autonomy similar to that enjoyed in respect to the selection of teachers by the units in Ohio, but is still subject to supervision by the county, the subdivision may be regarded as a dependent basic unit and the county as an intermediate unit; but, if all functions of the subdivision are ultimately controlled by the county, as the appointment of teachers is controlled in North Carolina, the subdivision is a subdistrict and the county is a basic administrative unit.

The line of demarcation between strong dependent units and weak independent units.—If a scale could be prepared on which basic units were arranged according to the extent of their independence from the supervision of an intermediate unit, it would reveal a fairly constant gradation of degrees of autonomy, ranging from almost complete control by the intermediate unit to complete independence from any control except that exercised by the State. It might be argued, therefore, that differences in powers between basic administrative units are differences of degree rather than of kind. It is necessary, therefore, in classifying a basic administrative unit as dependent or as independent, to consider the effect of even nominal supervision by an intermediate unit upon the total situation in which the basic unit operates. This may be illustrated by a State in which:

- (a) The county is an intermediate unit with a county superintendent as its officer.
- (b) Within the county, there are "Class A" administrative units over which the county superintendent exercises absolutely no supervision of any kind or degree.
- (c) Within the county, there are also "Class B" administrative units over which the county superintendent has merely the responsibility for supervision of classroom instruction.

"Class A" units, of course, should be classified as independent units. Although "Class B" units have practically the same administrative powers in the actual management of school affairs as "Class A" units, the existence of an agent who is responsible for coordinating instructional effort in "Class B" units and who can exert some influence in guiding or advising the governing boards of these units in administrative matters may be regarded as a sufficient basis for classifying "Class B" units as dependent units.

ILLUSTRATIVE APPLICATIONS OF THE SUGGESTED CLASSIFICATION

The suggested classification seems rigid enough to serve as a basis for identifying local school administrative units in terms of their functional operating relationships and at the same time possesses sufficient flexibility to meet local variations. The application of this or any other classification depends largely upon the interpretation of existing conditions within a given State.

There have been two opportunities for testing the applicability of this classification: (1) In connection with the cooperative program with the 48 States of records and reports, staff members of the Office of Education, in conferences with members of the respective State departments of education, discussed the proposed classification from the standpoint of its applicability in each State—in general, the results of these conferences indicate that the school units in each of the States can be classified on the basis suggested in this chapter. (2) The Study of Local School Units in the 10 project States has provided an opportunity not only for testing the applicability of the proposed classification but for testing its value as a device for facilitating the analysis of the local school unit situation in a State, and for presenting the data revealing the status of school units. The results of the application of this classification to the 10 States are presented in the following 10 chapters. Each chapter, devoted to a single State, presents in detail information on school units in the State from the standpoint of their collective functioning as the administrative structure of public education in the State.

Status and Operation of Local School Units in Arizona

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Arizona ranks well above average in its economic ability and in its effort to provide and support public education. That its rank in educational opportunity provided is not as high as its rank in economic ability and effort is due largely to its large area, its sparse population, and the large proportion of certain ethnic groups in the population.

Although Arizona ranks fifth among the States in area, the density of population in 1930 was only 3.8 per square mile as compared with 41.3 for the United States. The result is that, while most of the school administrative units include large areas, they have relatively few pupils and teachers.

Another factor affecting school conditions is the very large number of Mexicans and Indians who constitute 26 percent and 10 percent, respectively, of the total population. This factor, to some extent, explains the relatively high percentage of illiteracy (10 percent) in the State, which is further reflected in the rapid falling off of the percentage of persons attending school in the grades above the elementary level.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The existing organization of administrative units in the State of Arizona has followed rather consistently a general pattern which was established in laws passed by the territorial legislature during the first 20 years of its existence. The chief contribution of the first territorial legislature, meeting in 1864, was to establish the university, to provide a perpetual common-school fund, and to specify that as soon as sufficient funds were accumulated and that as soon as there was necessity for it a common-school system be established. The significant features of the school laws passed during this early period are as follows:

1. Authority to establish schools in settlements of 100 or more people upon petition to the county board of supervisors. Thus, at the very outset, the principle that each small, compactly settled community should constitute a school district was established.
2. The provision of the law vesting the authority to establish school administrative units in the county board of supervisors and authorizing this board to levy a tax of not more than one-half of 1 percent on the district for the support of schools set a precedent for the control of school affairs by county authorities.

3. Provision was also made for the probate judge to serve as county school superintendent. This provision not only emphasized the importance of the county as a unit of school control, but also set a pattern of control of schools by a county official. Provision for the election of a county superintendent was made in first-class counties in 1897 and in all counties at the time of statehood in 1912.
4. A common-school fund was created, the source of which was to be the proceeds from the sale of public lands.

These laws passed by the territorial legislature were not put into effective operation in all counties; nevertheless, the principles established by them reflect the general line of development which the State has since followed in evolving its present organization of local school units.

From time to time the territorial legislature made provisions for the organization and modification of school districts. For example, the Assembly of 1883 passed a law providing for the creation of new districts on the petition of five taxpayers. The State was ready to take advantage of such a law and during the year 1885-86, 21 new districts were organized.

In his report of 1895 the State superintendent recommended the consolidation of local school districts, but it was not until 1913, one year after Arizona became a State, that the Legislature provided for such consolidation. A relatively large number of high-school districts were organized as a result of the legislative authorization in 1895 for the establishment of high schools in areas where elementary schools existed but in which no secondary school opportunity was available. These high-school districts were superimposed upon the existing elementary school districts.

During the period 1870 to 1912 the powers of the basic units and of the several county boards of supervisors were diminished and the influence of the county superintendent in the supervision of these basic units increased. As a result of these changes in the administration of such basic units, the county was established in 1912 as an intermediate unit. Since that date, although the county has played an important role in the administration of public education, the basic unit of organization has been the local district, and administrative jurisdiction of public schools has been vested in the district boards of education.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

INTERMEDIATE AND BASIC UNITS

When classifying existing administrative units on the basis of whether their primary function is the maintenance and administration of schools or whether such function is the supervision of other units, Arizona has two types, namely, basic units and intermediate units.

INTERMEDIATE UNITS

The county.—The county, serving primarily as an intermediate unit, acts as an agent of the State in supervising certain functions of underlying basic

administrative units, and, at the same time, acts as the representative of these units in dealing with the State. Its powers as an intermediate unit are largely restricted to such items as the making of school reports and the supervision of instruction in very small districts.

County accommodation schools.—The peculiar physical and geographical conditions in Arizona have caused the State to empower the county to perform the functions of a basic administrative unit only in respect to certain schools. Because of the many sparsely populated areas within the State, most counties have much territory which is not included in any school district. The county and, in particular, the county superintendent are specifically charged with the responsibility of providing for the education of all pupils in such unorganized territory. In localities with insufficient population to organize regular elementary districts the county superintendent may establish county accommodation schools. Although generally these schools are established temporarily in order to meet unusual circumstances, they sometimes become fairly permanent centers. The county superintendent is solely responsible to arrange for the support and control of accommodation schools. He is authorized to pay the cost of transporting high-school pupils who reside in unorganized territory to regularly organized high-school districts, but he is not authorized to pay tuition costs for such pupils.

TABLE 1.—Local School Administrative Units, School Enrollment, and Teaching Positions in Arizona, Distributed According to Type of Administrative Unit,¹ 1934-35

Type of administrative unit	Units		Enrollment		Teaching positions	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Common school.....	367	86.2	76,147	81.8	2,125	79.2
High school.....	59	13.8	17,004	18.2	559	20.8
Total.....	426	100.0	93,151	100.0	2,684	100.0

¹ Data not included for 32 county accommodation schools enrolling 499 pupils and employing 37 teachers.

² There are 8 additional common-school districts maintaining no schools, 6 of which transport pupils to other districts. The total number of school administrative units in Arizona is therefore 434.

BASIC ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

On the basis of level of work offered, basic administrative units may be classified as elementary-school districts, high-school districts, and junior college districts.

The elementary school district.—The elementary school district, generally referred to as the common-school district, and usually including territory in which there is a community center, is the basic unit for the maintenance of elementary schools in Arizona. These common-school districts, unless coterminous with cities, generally have only one school.

The high-school district.—The high-school district, the basic unit for the maintenance of high schools, bears the same relationship to the county and to the State as the common-school districts. As previously indicated, high-school districts are superimposed on elementary districts. The territory of a high-school district embraces only entire elementary districts (never parts of such districts). High-school districts may be classified as follows:

A single high-school district is coterminous with the territory of a single elementary district but separately organized from the underlying elementary district.

A union high-school district is a high-school district which embraces territory of two or more elementary school districts. There is only one high school in such a district.

A county union high-school district is a high-school district the boundaries of which coincide with the boundaries of the county. There is only one high school in such a district.

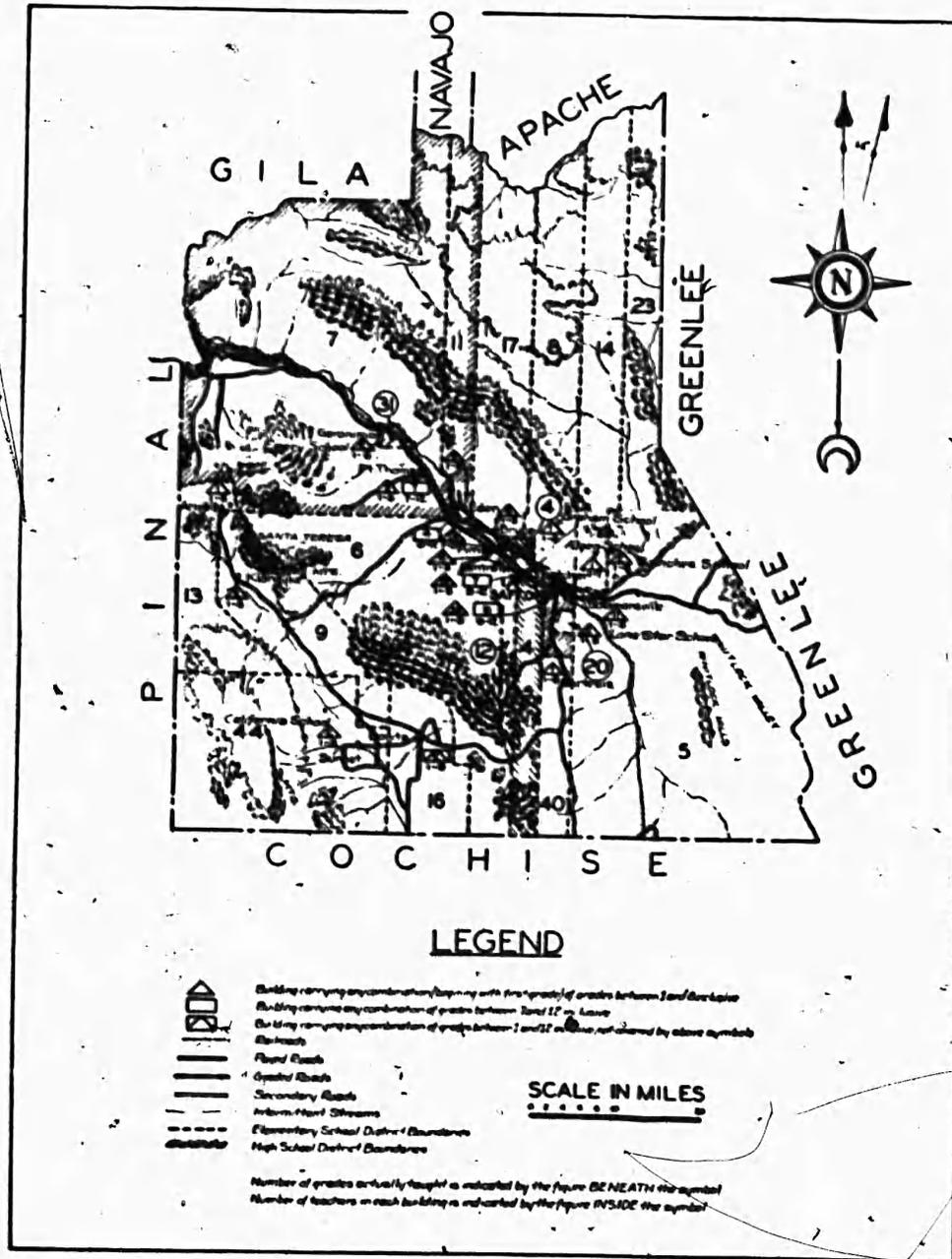
A county high-school district is similar to a county union high-school district except that the former may have several high schools. The high school or schools in a county high-school district are controlled by a single board of education and are supported by a tax levy spread uniformly over the entire county.

The junior college district is a basic unit for the support of a junior college. Each high-school district may, at the discretion of its governing board, support a junior college, but when a junior college district is organized it constitutes a separate administrative unit and is superimposed upon one or more high-school districts in the same way that high-school districts are superimposed upon elementary school districts.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

In 1934-35 there were 434 local school units in Arizona with an enrollment of 93,151 pupils and with 2,684 teachers. Twenty-five percent of these districts had fewer than 21 pupils enrolled; 65 percent, fewer than 100 pupils, and only 10 percent, more than 500. (See table 2.) Thirty-five percent of the districts had only one teacher, and 75 percent had five or fewer teachers. (See table 3.)

Most of the local administrative units comprise only one attendance area. The schools in these areas, generally, are very small: 36 percent have only one teacher, and 76 percent have five or fewer teachers.



MAP I.—Graham County, Arizona.

The Arizona State project staff proposes that 2 school districts replace the 22 present districts; that the number of 1- and 2-teacher schools be reduced from 10 to 2; and, when certain improvements affecting transportation are made, that the county be one administrative unit. The map shows the 22 schools and the 22 school districts as of 1935.

TABLE 2.—Local School Administrative Units in Arizona Distributed on the Basis of the Number of Pupils Enrolled,¹ 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with high schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0.....							18	1.8
1-5.....								
6-10.....	18	5.9			4	8.7	22	5.1
11-20.....	70	21.7	1	1.7	17	37.0	88	20.3
21-30.....	47	14.6	1	1.7	3	6.5	51	11.7
31-50.....	46	14.3	7	11.9	6	13.0	59	13.6
51-100.....	43	13.4	11	18.6	6	13.0	60	13.8
101-150.....	17	5.3	12	20.1	5	10.9	34	7.8
151-200.....	9	2.8	7	11.9	1	2.2	17	3.9
201-250.....	13	4.0	6	10.1			19	4.4
251-300.....	6	1.9	2	3.4			8	1.9
301-400.....	13	4.0	2	3.4	1	2.2	16	3.7
401-500.....	4	1.2	4	6.8			8	1.9
501-1,000.....	23	7.2	4	6.8	2	4.3	29	6.7
1,001-1,500.....	7	2.2					7	1.6
1,501-2,000.....	3	.9	1	1.7			4	.9
2,001-3,000.....	1	.3					1	.2
3,001-4,000.....								
4,001-5,000.....			1	1.7			1	.2
More than 5,000.....	1	.3			1	2.2	2	.5
Total.....	321	100.0	59	100.0	46	100.0	434	100.0

¹ Information not available on 32 county accommodation schools enrolling 499 pupils.
² Of these, 6 transport pupils to other units.

TABLE 3.—Local School Administrative Units in Arizona Distributed on the Basis of the Number of Teachers Per Unit,¹ 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with high schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0.....							18	2.0
1.....	132	41.0			22	48.9	154	35.5
2-3.....	125	39.1	25	42.3	20	42.6	170	39.2
6-10.....	25	7.8	24	40.7			49	11.2
11-20.....	23	7.2	6	10.2	3	6.4	32	7.3
21-30.....	10	3.1	2	3.4			12	2.8
31-50.....	3	.9	1	1.7			4	1.0
51-60.....	1	.3					1	.2
61-70.....								
71-80.....	1	.3					1	.2
81-90.....								
91-100.....			1	1.7			1	.2
101-150.....								
151-200.....					1	2.1	1	.2
201-250.....								
251-300.....	1	.3					1	.2
More than 300.....								
Total.....	321	100.0	59	100.0	46	100.0	434	100.0

¹ Information not available on 32 county accommodation schools employing 37 teachers, which would fall in the second and third intervals.
² Of these, 6 transport pupils to other units.

TABLE 4.—Schools, Enrollment, and Teachers in Arizona Distributed on the Basis of Number of Teachers per School, 1934-35

Teachers per school	Schools		Enrollment		Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.....	154	36.2	2,720	2.9	154	5.7
2.....	73	17.1	3,138	3.4	146	5.4
3-5.....	97	22.8	10,848	11.7	363	13.4
6-9.....	43	10.1	10,479	11.2	326	11.7
10 or more.....	59	13.8	65,966	70.8	1,695	62.2
Total.....	426	100.0	93,151	100.0	2,684	100.0
County accommodation schools.....	32		499		37	

The average area of the school districts in 1937 was 282 square miles. It is readily seen that because of the large areas already included in many of these local administrative units and because of the low density of population in the State, the problem of improving local school unit organization cannot necessarily be solved by increasing the size of such units. Correspondingly, Arizona presents a very striking example of a situation in which a small and widely scattered population makes the establishment of schools of desirable size very difficult, if not impracticable.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The State.

In Arizona less direct State control and supervision are exercised over local units than is the case in some other States. As a partial compensation for the high degree of authority enjoyed by local boards of education, the State has designated educational and governmental officers of the county to act as agents of the State in respect to certain matters in the administration of schools.

The County.

There are no county boards of education in Arizona. Responsibility for the educational administrative functions of the county is centered in the county board of supervisors and in the county superintendent of schools. The county board of supervisors exercises some jurisdiction over local school finances and the modification of school district boundaries. The county superintendent is charged with the general supervision of all the schools in the county, but his specific powers are limited and he has relatively little direct control over local school districts. Teachers in both elementary and high school districts are selected by the local board and are supervised by the chief executive officer, namely, the district superintendent or principal. In the smaller districts where there are no local educational executives, classroom instruction is supervised by the county superintendent. In the accommodation schools the county superintendent employs and supervises the teachers.

All types of administrative units must follow the program of studies issued by the State. Elementary school districts must use textbooks adopted and purchased by the State, while the high-school districts may select their own textbooks. These books remain the property of the State, and the local boards of trustees are held responsible for their proper care.

Boards of education in both elementary and high-school districts prepare school budgets, and no one else has any authority to alter them with respect to amount. The county superintendent has certain discretionary powers concerning the amount of funds to be supplied by the county. After the county superintendent has determined the county's share of each local school budget, it is mandatory that the board of supervisors levy taxes against the county and each particular district in order to raise the adopted budget. County support for schools is a per capita allowance and is the same for both elementary and high-school districts, except that the 1- and 2-teacher districts draw minima of \$1,250 and \$2,500, respectively. When considering the budgets which have been prepared by the local school districts, the county superintendent may include in the total county budget an allowance for the establishment of the county reserve fund. This reserve fund may be used (a) to support accommodation schools, (b) as an equalization fund for districts having a small assessed valuation, (c) to support recently organized school districts, and (d) for transportation in 1- and 2-teacher districts. State support for each local school district in Arizona is distributed upon the basis of average daily attendance. Funds for State support are appropriated by the Legislature and apportioned quarterly by the superintendent of public instruction to the various counties.

The county treasurer is the custodian of all school funds. Current and building funds are disbursed by vouchers of local boards of trustees authorizing the county superintendent to issue warrants against the county treasury. Bond interest and redemption funds are provided through mandatory levies by the board of supervisors. The county treasurer collects these along with other funds and is required to pay principal and interest for each district when due.

All school districts of a county make reports to the county superintendent who in turn makes certain reports to the State.

Elementary and High-School Administrative Units.

All types of elementary and secondary administrative units have practically the same powers and responsibilities. Administrative jurisdiction over schools is vested in the district board of trustees with authority to delegate powers to the district superintendent or principal.

In all basic units authority for employing and dismissing teachers resides in the district boards. The county superintendent has no authority to nominate teachers or to approve the selections of local boards.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF AGENTS AND AGENCIES PERSONNEL, CURRICULUM, FINANCE.

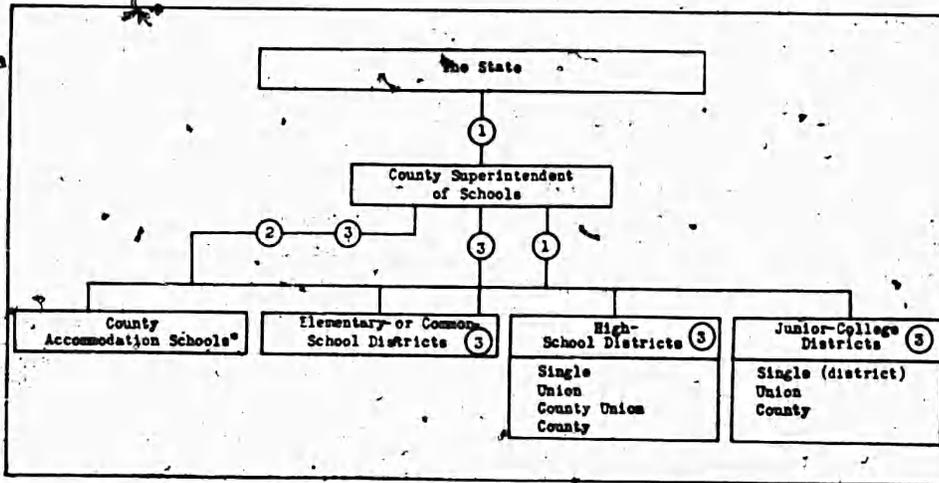


CHART I.—Arizona: Personnel

1. Teachers' certificates are issued by the State board of education. All certificates must be registered with the county.
2. The county superintendent employs teachers for the county accommodation schools. In all other schools this is a function of the local units.
3. The county superintendent supervises the classroom work in county accommodation schools and in other schools employing fewer than five teachers. In all other schools supervision is a function of the basic units.

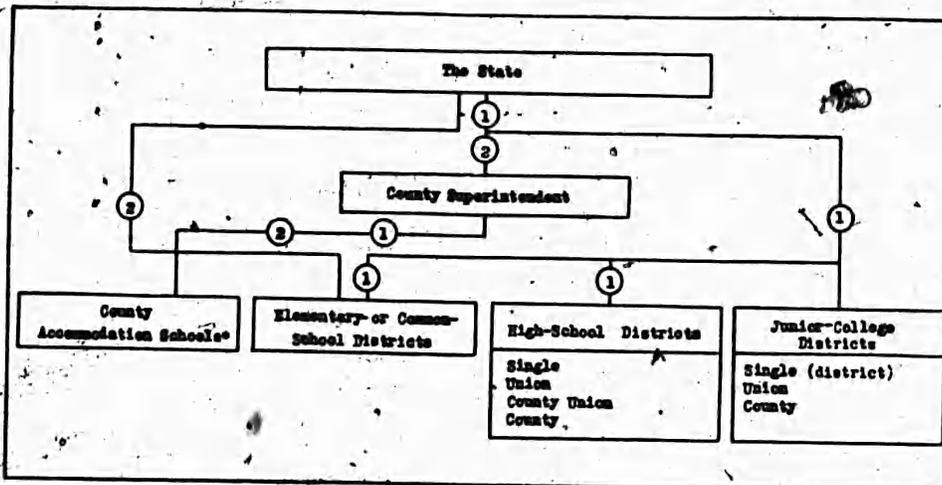


CHART II.—Arizona: Course of study and textbooks.

1. Basic units determine courses of study which must conform to State standards.
2. The State selects and purchases all elementary textbooks. These texts remain the property of the State. Secondary schools select whatever texts they desire.

* Schools maintained on a temporary or semipermanent basis in sparsely settled regions at discretion of county superintendent, and are administered entirely by him.

OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN ARIZONA CONCERNING
AND RECORDS AND REPORTS, 1936

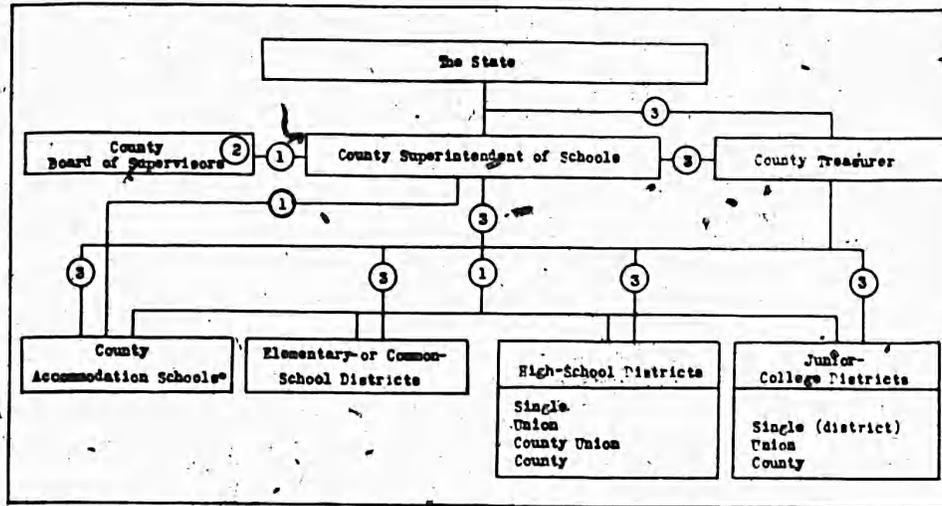


CHART III.—Arizona: Financial.

1. Budgets are prepared by the basic units. Copies are sent to the county superintendent on the basis of which a consolidated budget for the county is presented to the county board of supervisors. As the administrative officer of the accommodation schools the county superintendent prepares and executes this budget.
2. Tax rates are fixed by the county board of supervisors.
3. State support is sent from the State to the county. County support for 1- and 2-teacher schools is raised by a county-wide tax. With the exception of sinking funds all school funds are handled by the county treasurer. Vouchers are issued by the basic units and warrants on the county treasurer are issued by the county superintendent.

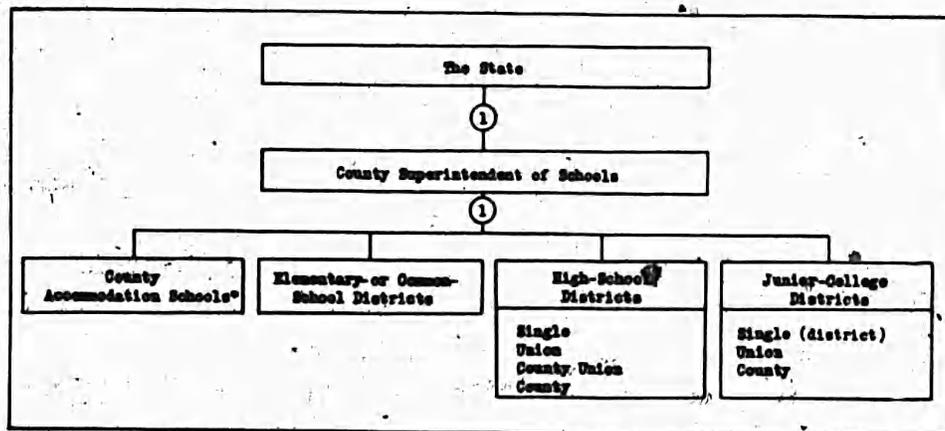


CHART IV.—Arizona: Records and reports.

1. All reports are sent from the basic units to the county superintendent, who sends a summarized report to the State.

* Schools maintained on a temporary or semipermanent basis in sparsely settled regions at discretion of county superintendent and are administered entirely by him.

District boards have rather wide discretionary powers with respect to a number of auxiliary activities. They may furnish transportation and fix tuition rates, and may provide health services by employing school physicians, dentists, and nurses. Arizona has a compulsory school attendance law, but, since school districts are not required to employ attendance officers, supervision of school attendance is a discretionary matter.

PROCEDURES FOR CHANGING THE BOUNDARIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Existing procedures for changing the boundaries of local school administrative units in Arizona may be classified as: (1) Those affecting the organization of new districts, (2) those changing the boundaries of existing districts, and (3) those dissolving existing districts.

Elementary, high-school, or junior college districts may be created out of unorganized territory or by subdividing existing districts. Necessary funds for operating newly created elementary districts may be taken from the county school reserve fund, but operating funds for newly created high-school and junior college districts must come from tax levies collected specifically for these purposes. When proposed annexations or consolidations of entire districts are submitted to election, a majority vote in the entire area affected determines the question. This provision has proved to be more satisfactory than one which commands a majority vote in each of the districts involved.

The legal provisions for changing boundaries of administrative units in Arizona are seemingly simple, although this simplicity is more apparent than real. Theoretically, there is an opportunity for a professionally trained official to work along the lines of a far-seeing program. In actual practice, the possibilities of these legal provisions are not very likely to be realized. The fact that the county superintendent may influence changes in school district areas prior to the time he certifies boundaries each year, and the fact that such boundaries may be modified upon petition of as few as 10 electors, make for a certain degree of flexibility in reallocating the territory of administrative units. However, the fact that the county superintendent is an elective officer and the fact that his acts in respect to boundary changes are in some cases subject to the final approval of a governmental board, the county board of supervisors, make it unlikely that any widespread reorganization will take place. This is especially true if proposed changes in boundaries are likely to incur the opposition of groups motivated more by personal financial considerations than by regard for the establishment of an effective organization of school units.

TABLE 5.—Legal provisions for changing boundaries of local school administrative units in Arizona, 1930

Under his authority to certify district boundaries between April 1 and July 1 each year	By county superintendent ¹		By county board of supervisors ¹		On petition—		By vote
	Of parents of 10 children living more than 4 miles from a school-house	Of 15 percent of parents in a territory having more than 250 school children	On petition of 10 or more electors	Of a majority of electors of a district wishing to be annexed and approval of board of adjoining districts ²	Of two-thirds of the electors of a district		
1. Make any changes in boundaries, annexation of districts, or transfer of territory of districts within the county. ⁴	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	1. Create new district.	1. Create new district by subdividing old district.	1. May, at discretion of board, change boundaries of any district.	1. Annex one district to another. 2. Annex common-school district to high-school district.	1. Detach district from union high-school district. ³		1. Form consolidated district. 2. Form any type high school district. ³ 3. Form union or county junior college district.

¹ All boundary changes, other than by majority petition or majority vote, are subject to final approval by the county board of supervisors, whose decisions may not be appealed.
² Whether the county superintendent has any discretion in these cases is not stated.
³ These changes may be nullified by the petition of a majority of the electors of the annexing district if filed within 15 days after the transmittal of the original petition.
⁴ Provided he notifies the boards of the districts affected and gives them opportunity to protest.
⁵ Certain conditions in regard to location of schoolhouse, contiguity of remaining territory, etc., must be fulfilled.
⁶ Except a high-school district coterminous with an elementary district not meeting certain requirements, such a high-school district may be established by the State board of education upon petition of a majority of electors of the district.



FACTORS ENCOURAGING AND DISCOURAGING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Although the basis for distributing school funds does not tend to discourage the organization of larger school districts, it does not especially encourage reorganization. The provisions of the law which enable the county superintendent to levy a county-wide tax in order to relieve distressed districts, in effect, tend to subsidize small inefficient districts and to encourage their continuance. Many of the administrative units embracing large territory are extremely small when measured either by the number of pupils enrolled or by the number of teachers employed.

The sparse population and the large area of Arizona have made the problems involved in consolidating schools and in transporting pupils extremely difficult. Furthermore, these factors have been important in the development of a high degree of local autonomy. That this local autonomy has been a handicap to district reorganization is clearly indicated by the fact that, although in some counties the population is concentrated within relatively small areas, these populated regions are divided into a number of administrative units small in area. There is a great need for setting up procedures whereby, on the basis of consideration of all the factors involved, a long-term program for the reorganization of local school administrative units may be worked out in a democratic and an efficient manner.

Status and Operation of Local School Units in Arkansas

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Whether the economic ability of Arkansas is measured by its wealth per capita, by its per capita taxpaying ability, as revealed by an application to the State of the second model tax plan of the National Tax Association, by its income per capita, or by its retail sales per capita, Arkansas ranks among the three or four States having the least economic power.

There are few densely settled regions. Sixty percent of the population lives on farms and another 20 percent in very small communities. Twenty-six percent of the population is Negro. The ratio of children to adults is one of the highest in the United States. Only three other States have a larger proportion of children of school age. There are 753 persons 5 to 20 years of age for each 1,000 persons 21 to 65 years of age in Arkansas, as contrasted with a ratio of 574 to 1,000 in the entire United States.

In light of the foregoing facts, it is evident that Arkansas faces the problem of offering school opportunity to a relatively large number of children under decidedly limited economic circumstances.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The period 1829-1920.—Under Act 69 of the Territorial General Assembly of 1829, school district organization of Arkansas took the form of the township system. The first departure from this system came in 1853 when Little Rock was granted certain special powers with respect to its schools. In 1869 legislation was effected which made possible the creation of school districts in territory embracing an incorporated city or town. The Constitution of 1874, adopted when home-rule was restored after the Reconstruction Period, established the present district system. Each school district was made an administrative unit under the control of a 3-member board elected by the people. Although in rare cases an administrative unit was divided into attendance areas, usually a new administrative unit was established whenever a new school was organized.

In addition to the common-school district and the special district embracing incorporated communities, various other types of local school districts were created during the period from 1907 to 1915. Provisions were made for the establishment of consolidated and of joint districts in two or more counties in 1911, and of special rural districts in 1919. The major difference among these districts was in their power of borrowing money. A large

number of the 5,112 school districts of Arkansas in 1920 served as attendance areas as well as administrative and fiscal units.

The establishment of the county as an intermediate unit.—One of the most important steps in the development of school district organization in the State was the establishment of the county as an intermediate unit in 1919. In that year the General Assembly provided for a county board of education and a county superintendent of schools for each county. In 1920, when the county boards and the county superintendents began to function, there were 5,112 school administrative units with 6,488 attendance areas. Of the schools in these areas, 74.3 percent were 1-teacher schools; 21 percent, 2-, 3-, and 4-teacher schools; and 4.5 percent, 5-or-more teacher schools.

Authority of county superintendent increased.—Following the establishment in 1920 of county boards of education, accompanied by increased authority in the office of the county superintendent, the number of administrative units by 1933 had been reduced 29.6 percent and the number of attendance areas, 20 percent. The number of 1-teacher attendance areas was reduced 32.5 percent; of 2-, 3-, and 4-teacher attendance areas increased 5.8 percent; and of 5-or-more teacher attendance areas increased 53.7 percent.

Office of county superintendent abolished.—In 1933 the county boards of education were abolished and the county superintendents were replaced by county examiners. These changes have greatly impaired the educational program by removing all provision for real educational and financial supervision, guidance, and coordination. It seems apparent that the Act of 1933 will tend to retard consolidation of existing school districts and increase rather than decrease the number of school units. During the biennium 1934-36, only 20 consolidations were made, while 31 dissolutions of previously consolidated districts were effected.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Intermediate and basic units.—Legally, both intermediate and basic types of local school units are found in Arkansas. Practically, there is only the basic type. The counties in Arkansas may be classified as intermediate units and the local school districts as dependent basic administrative units. The local school districts are so nearly autonomous, however, and their relationships to the county so few, that they are practically independent. Conversely, the Arkansas county is a very weak form of intermediate unit.

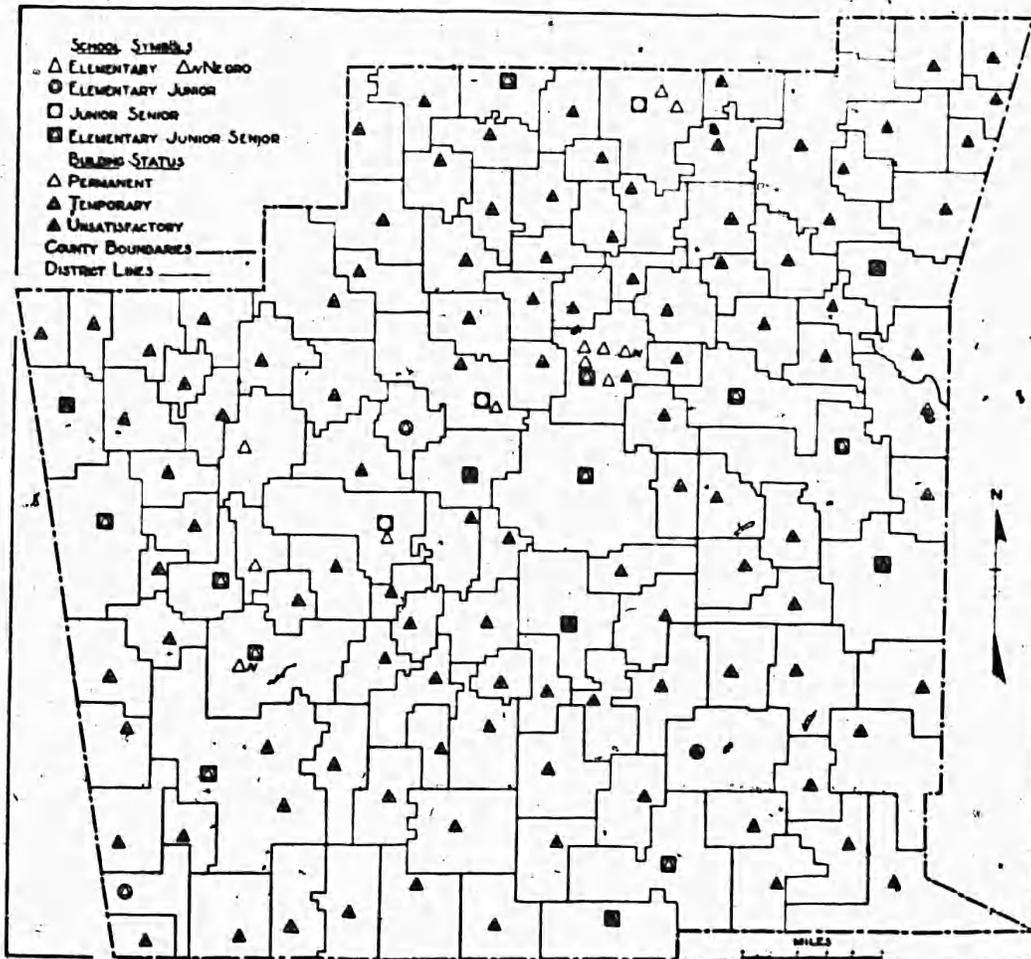
TABLE 6.—Local school administrative units, school enrollment, and teaching positions in Arkansas, 1934-35

Type of administrative unit	Units		Pupils enrolled					
	Number	Per-cent	White		Negro		Total	
			Number	Per-cent	Number	Per-cent	Number	Per-cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
School district	3,134	100.0	352,794	76.1	110,899	23.9	463,693	100.0

Type of administrative unit	Teaching positions					
	White		Negro		Total	
	Number	Per-cent	Number	Per-cent	Number	Per-cent
1	10	11	12	13	14	15
School district	10,079	81.1	2,345	18.9	12,424	100.0

Intermediate units—the county.—When in 1919 the Legislature made provision for county boards of education and created the office of county superintendent, it obviously intended to make the county an intermediate unit; when in 1933, these county school officers were eliminated, the county ceased to be an intermediate unit in any real sense. Theoretically, all the powers of the county board of education were then transferred to the county court, and all the powers of the county superintendent to the county examiner. Therefore, the county legally retains its jurisdiction over all basic units within the county boundaries with respect to certain factors, such as change of school district boundaries, records and reports, supervision of instruction, and approval of the budgets of school districts with less than 2,500 population. In practice, however, the transfer of powers created a situation which makes it impossible for the county to exercise any effective control over basic units.

Basic administrative units.—In 1921 the Legislature abolished the then existing classification of basic units and extended to all local administrative units the same legal status, powers, and name. At that time the school districts were classified as follows with respect to the number of school directors and with respect to the procedure involved in budgetary approval:



MAP II.—Washington County, Arkansas.

Washington County, in the northwest corner of the State, is one of the largest counties—area 955 square miles—and one of the most populous of the mountain counties in Arkansas. Of the 129 districts in 1936, 91 maintained only 1-teacher schools. The map shows the 129 districts in the county as of 1936. The proposed plan of organization calls for a single administrative unit for the county with a reorganization of attendance areas to include 9 senior high schools, 12 junior high schools, and 20 elementary-school attendance areas for white children, and 2 elementary-school attendance areas for Negro children of the county.

Classification according to the number of school directors

1. Rural school districts having 150 pupils or fewer and having a board of 3 members elected for a term of 3 years.
2. School districts having more than 150 pupils, but not containing a city of the first class and having a school board of 5 members elected for a term of 5 years.
3. School districts having a city of the first class within their boundaries and having a school board of 6 members elected for a term of 3 years.

The variation in the number of board members in no way affects the administrative and supervisory powers of the school district. With the

exception of budgetary procedures, the small administrative unit with only 3 school board members has the same powers and responsibilities as the large school district with 6 members. Variations in budgetary procedures are dependent on total population in that the district with less than 2,500 population must have its budget approved by the county court, while the district with more than 2,500 population must have its budget approved by the board of education.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Number.—In the school year 1934-35 there were 3,134 local school administrative units with 463,693 pupils enrolled and with 12,424 teachers. Most of these units are so small that it is impossible or impractical to offer a sound functional public-school program. In light of the fact that most of these units serve both as attendance areas and administrative units, it similarly is impossible or impractical in most of them to offer essential administrative and supervisory services.

Size.—In 1934-35, 10 percent of the school districts had fewer than 20 pupils; 27 percent, fewer than 30; 75 percent, fewer than 100; and only 6 percent, more than 500. (See table 7.) Fifty-two percent of the districts had only 1 teacher; 84 percent, fewer than 6; 92.5 percent, fewer than 11; and 7.5 percent, more than 10. (See table 8.) The mean area of school districts in the State was 17 square miles.

TABLE 7.—Local school administrative units in Arkansas distributed on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled,¹ 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0.....					43	1.2
1-5.....	11	0.5			11	.4
6-10.....	24	1.0	2	0.3	26	.8
11-20.....	270	11.5	2	.3	272	8.7
21-30.....	488	20.8	11	1.5	499	16.0
31-50.....	787	33.5	35	4.8	822	26.2
51-100.....	553	23.5	101	13.8	654	20.8
101-150.....	135	5.6	94	12.8	229	7.3
151-200.....	46	2.0	74	10.1	120	3.8
201-250.....	14	.6	67	9.1	81	2.6
251-300.....	6	.3	49	6.7	55	1.8
301-400.....	12	.5	71	9.7	83	2.7
401-500.....	2	.1	44	6.0	46	1.7
501-1,000.....	3	.1	110	15.0	113	3.6
1,001-1,500.....			40	5.5	40	1.3
1,501-2,000.....			13	1.7	13	.4
2,001-3,000.....			12	1.6	12	.4
3,001-4,000.....						
4,001-5,000.....			2	.3	2	.1
More than 5,000.....			6	.8	6	.2
Total.....	2,351	100.0	733	100.0	3,127	100.0

¹ Information not available for 7 local school administrative units. In Arkansas there are no units maintaining high schools only.

LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 8.—Local school administrative units in Arkansas distributed on the basis of the number of teachers per unit,¹ 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0					43	1.4
1	1,606	68.3	20	2.7	1,626	52.0
2-5	716	30.4	251	34.3	967	30.2
6-10	25	1.1	228	31.2	253	8.2
11-20	2	.1	126	17.3	128	4.1
21-30			58	7.9	60	1.9
31-40			22	3.0	22	.7
41-50			11	1.5	11	.4
51-60			6	.8	6	.2
61-70			1	.1	1	
71-80			1	.1	1	
81-90						
91-100			2	.3	2	.1
101-150			4	.5	4	.1
151-200			1	.1	1	
201-250			1	.1	1	
251-300						
301-350						
351-400						
401-450			1	.1	1	
Total	2,351	100.0	733	100.0	3,127	100.0

¹ Information not available for 7 local school administrative units. In Arkansas there are no units maintaining high schools only.

TABLE 9.—Local school administrative units in Arkansas distributed on the basis of area, 1934-35

Square miles per unit	Number of administrative units	Percent	Square miles per unit	Number of administrative units	Percent
Less than 2	10	0.3	71-80	21	0.7
2-5	602	19.2	81-100	39	1.2
6-10	1,205	38.5	101-150	17	0.5
11-15	528	16.8	151-200	7	.2
16-20	212	6.8	201-250	3	.1
21-25	128	4.1	251-300	2	.1
26-30	82	2.6	301-600	1	
31-40	112	3.6	More than 600		
41-50	69	2.2			
51-60	50	1.6	Total	3,134	100.0
61-70	26	.8			

TABLE 10.—Local School Administrative Units in Arkansas Distributed on the Basis of Number of Attendance Areas Per Unit,¹ 1934-35

Attendance areas per unit	Units with schools for whites only		Units with schools for Negroes		Units with schools for whites and Negroes		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
No school							43	1.4
One elementary school	1,880	75.6	121	72.4	161	37.4	2,162	69.1
Two or more elementary schools	53	2.1	21	12.6	14	3.3	88	2.8
One elementary school and one high school with coterminous attendance areas	449	18.1	16	9.6	191	44.4	656	21.0
Two or more elementary schools and one high school	94	3.8	6	3.6	59	13.7	159	5.1
Two or more elementary schools and two or more high schools	11	.4	3	1.8	5	1.2	19	.6
Total	2,487	100.0	167	100.0	430	100.0	3,127	100.0

¹ Information not available for 7 administrative units.

TABLE 11.—Schools, Enrollment, and Teachers in Arkansas Distributed on the Basis of Number of Teachers Per School, 1934-35

Teachers per school	Schools		Enrollment		Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	2,747	57.7	102,297	22.4	2,747	22.5
2	994	20.9	69,623	15.2	1,988	16.3
3-5	517	10.9	71,224	15.6	1,908	15.6
6-9	264	5.5	69,766	15.3	1,863	15.2
10 or more	241	5.0	143,942	31.5	3,728	30.4
Total	4,763	100.0	456,852	100.0	12,234	100.0

1 Information not available for 7 administrative units.

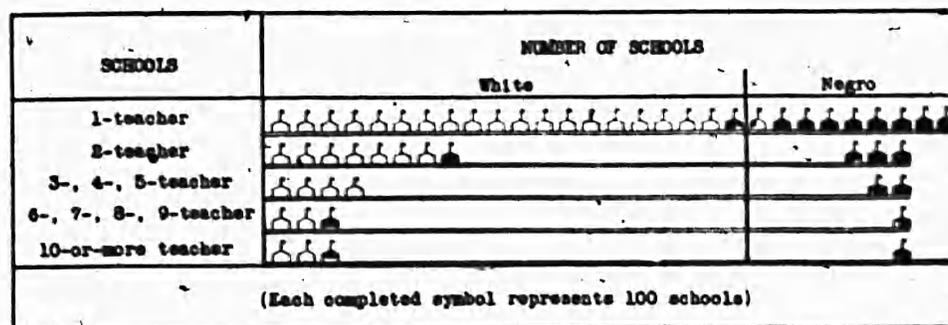


FIGURE 1.—Number and size of schools in Arkansas in 1935 (3,497 white schools; 1,278 Negro schools).

Approximately 20 percent had less than 6 square miles and almost 60 percent had less than 11 square miles. (See table 9.) About 69 percent of these local units had only one elementary school, while an additional 21 percent had one elementary and one high school with coterminous attendance areas. (See table 10.) Most of the schools are small. About 58 percent have only 1 teacher, 21 percent have 2, and only 5 percent have more than 10.

Need for reorganization.—The preceding analysis of the existing status in 1934-35 of local school units in Arkansas indicates the need for reorganization of the local administrative structure of public education. It is highly desirable that attendance areas be enlarged so that individual school enrollments will be large enough to permit the offering of an adequate educational program. Similarly, it is desirable that administrative units embrace areas of sufficient size that essential administrative and supervisory services may be offered at a relatively reasonable cost and on an efficient basis.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The State.—Although, as is true in all States, ultimate authority over public education in Arkansas lies with the State, the jurisdiction of the local school district in Arkansas is more comprehensive and powerful than

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF AGENTS AND AGENCIES PERSONNEL, CURRICULUM, FINANCE

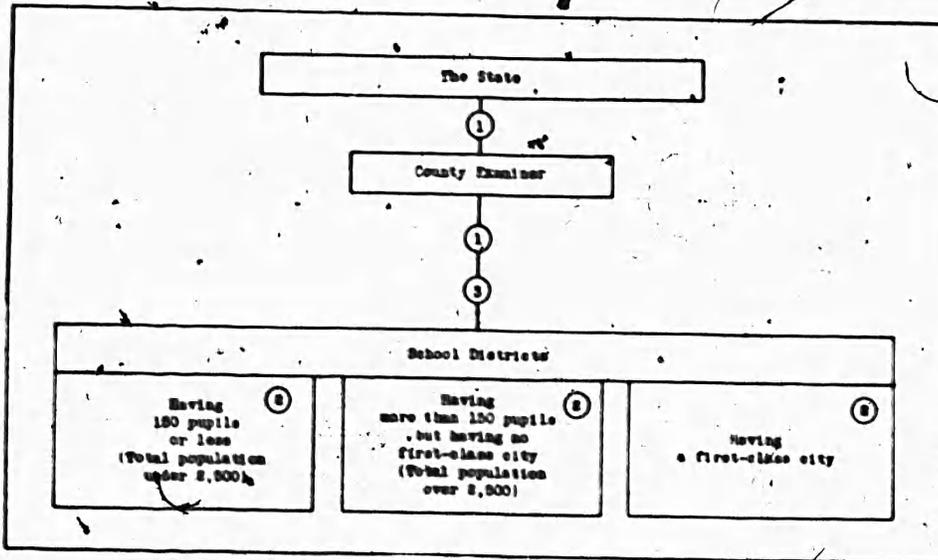


CHART V.—Arkansas: Personnel.

1. County examiner administers State examination for teacher certificates and issues certificates. He has no discretionary power in the granting of certificates.
2. Selection of teachers is a function of the basic units.
3. County examiner is authorized, but not required, to supervise instruction.

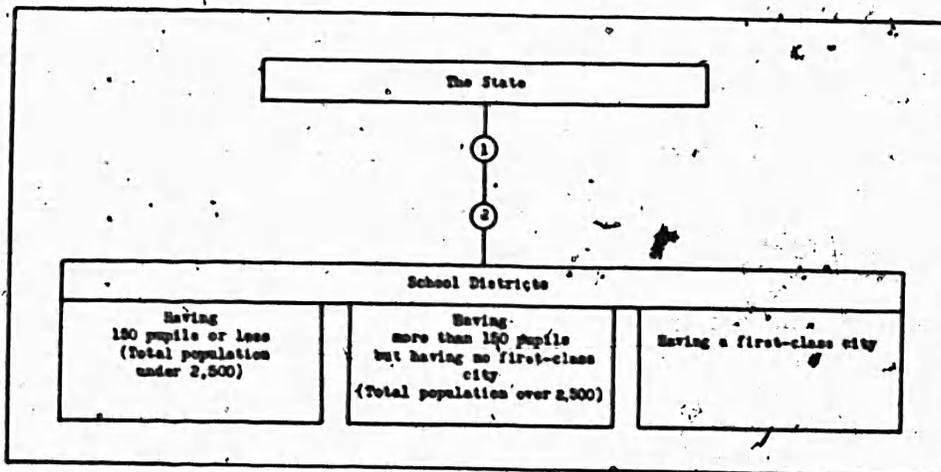


CHART VI.—Arkansas: Course of study and textbooks.

1. The State prepares a course of study but basic units are not required to follow it.
2. Each basic unit must use State-adopted textbooks for elementary schools and may select any texts for high schools.

OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN ARKANSAS CONCERNING
AND RECORDS AND REPORTS, 1936

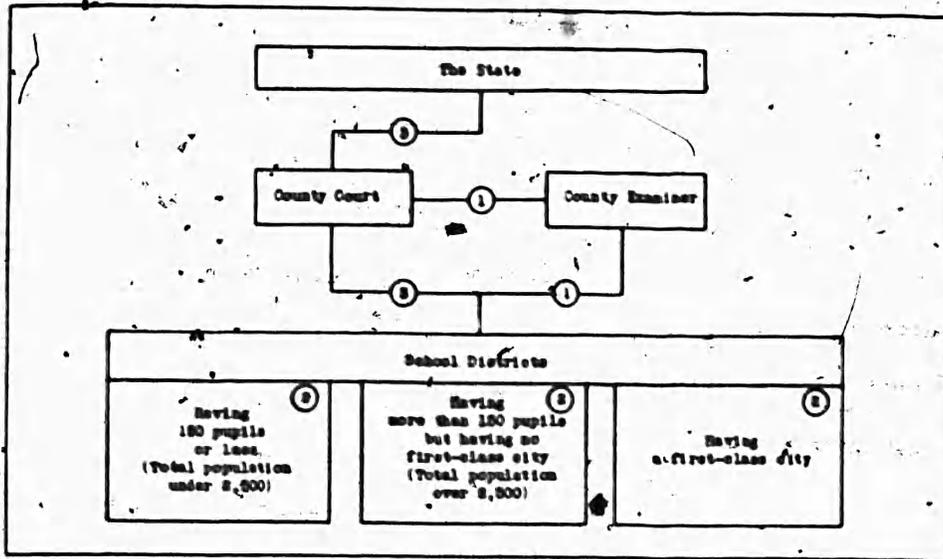


CHART VII.—Arkansas: Financial.

1. The county court approved budgets in districts with population less than 2,500. Budgets are prepared in districts of this type which do not employ a principal or district superintendent by the county examiner. In other districts the budget is approved by the local board of education.
2. Tax rates are fixed by the basic units within a maximum limit established by the State.
3. State funds are apportioned by the county court according to criteria established by the State.

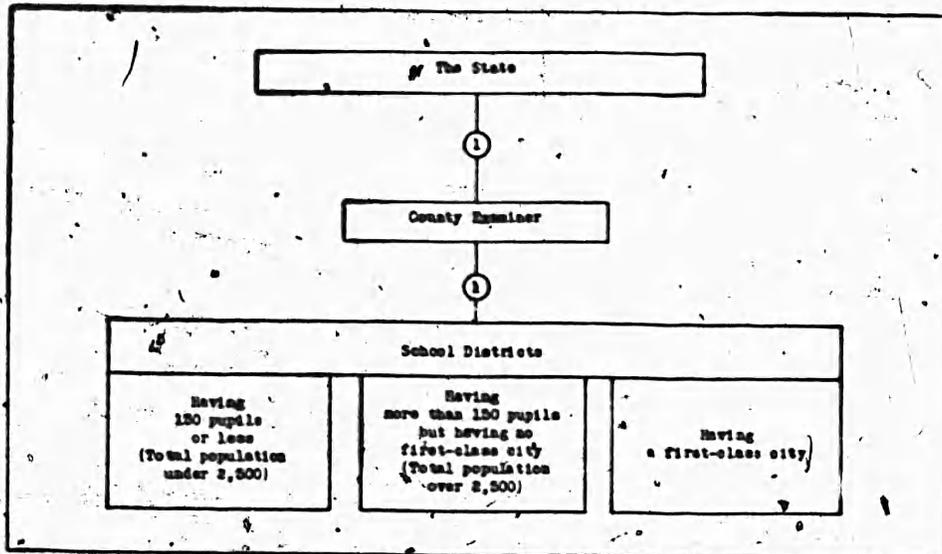


CHART VIII.—Arkansas: Records and reports.

1. Each basic unit makes a report to the county examiner who sends a report for the entire county to the State.

in many States. Most of the functions exercised by the State in the control and direction of schools are rather flexible. The State does not directly operate any elementary or secondary schools. It prepares a course of study, the use of which is optional with the local districts but which, however, is usually followed. The State may or may not consider and approve plans for school buildings and equipment. It selects and adopts elementary textbooks, which, must be used by all elementary schools; prescribes rules for the certification of teachers; requires the submission of reports by school districts through the county examiners; apportions State funds to local districts through the county court; limits local school tax rates; prescribes procedures for the modification of school district boundaries; and approves school bond issues. In actually exercising administrative direction, the State was materially weakened by the abandonment of the county intermediate unit plan and by the consequent division of authority between the county examiner and the county court.

The county.—As previously stated, the position of the county as an intermediate unit in Arkansas is very weak. It does not directly support or administer any schools, and its supervisory powers are limited. At the present time the educational functions of the county are assigned in part to the county court and in part to the county examiner. Such duality of administrative responsibility immediately makes probable certain difficulties in the supervision of basic local school units by the county.

Powers and duties of the county examiner.—The position of the county examiner is distinctly untenable. Prior to July 1, 1937, the county examiner, required to be an active member of the teaching profession, was elected for a term of 2 years by vote of the teachers residing in the county. He had to remain active in the teaching profession, and the only time he was legally required to devote to his duties as examiner, was on Saturday of each week, when he was required to keep his office open. A recent law provides that after July 1, 1937, the county examiner must devote full time to his duties, except that in some counties he may remain active in the teaching profession, but must employ a full-time clerk.

The county examiner is authorized but not required to visit schools in the county in a supervisory capacity. When he is an active member of the teaching profession he can, of course, devote little, if any, time to supervision of instruction. About the only contact the examiner now has with teachers is in the administration and holding of examinations for teachers' certificates. These examinations are prepared and graded by the State department of education, and teachers' certificates are issued only when authorized by the State.

The county examiner must provide school districts, superintendents, principals, and teachers with report blanks furnished by the State.

board of education. All basic administrative units are required to make monthly and annual reports to the county examiner who, in turn, forwards them to the State. Due to the absence of adequate clerical assistance, the present conditions under which educational statistics are collected in Arkansas are very poor. The county examiner is required to keep in his office a map of the districts in the county showing the location of schoolhouses, a record of contracts made with teachers by the basic units (the school districts), and a record of contracts made by these units with dealers for supplies.

Powers and duties of the county court.—The jurisdiction of the county court over school units is confined almost entirely to matters of finance, to school district boundary modifications, and to the supervision of school elections. The county court is authorized to apportion the general school funds of the county on the same basis on which common-school funds are apportioned. In practice, the control of the county court over school finances consists only of the approval of the budgets of any school districts with less than 2,500 population. If such a district does not have a principal or superintendent, the county examiner usually prepares the budget for submission to the board of education before it is submitted to the county court. Since the administration of school finances is not a function of the county examiner, it is not surprising that basic data with desirable interpretations concerning the financial status of school districts are not readily available.

It can be seen that there is very little connection between the educational functions of the county examiner and the county court. It is also evident that the dual nature of the administrative structure of schools within the county in Arkansas leaves much to be desired. Neither the county court nor the county examiner has any authority over school buildings, equipment, and supplies; selection and appointment of teachers; the program of education; selection of textbooks; the classification, examination, and promotion of pupils; and the provision of such services as transportation, payment of tuition, school health services, and attendance supervision.

The school district.—Authority for the direction and operation of each school district is vested in a local board of education. Such boards are authorized to appoint superintendents or principals, but in actual practice, particularly among the smaller districts, such officers are seldom appointed. The number of board members varies in accordance with school population of the districts, but all boards of education have practically the same powers and duties. Local boards of education function almost autonomously in administering school districts. The few instances where State or county authority either limits or directs the powers of the local boards have been pointed out above.

PROCEDURES FOR CHANGING BOUNDARIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

When compared with existing provisions for changing the boundaries of local school units in some States, the procedures for modifying local school units in Arkansas seem simple.

In 1935 legislative action authorized the creation of new districts, consolidation of existing districts, the transfer of territory from one district to another, and the dissolution of districts by vote of a majority of the electors in each district affected. Provision for the expression of the will of the majority of the electors was authorized in two ways:

- (1) Through an election called by the county court in each district concerned on presentation of a petition of 10 percent of the electors in the area affected. The county court has no discretion in changing school district boundaries after such changes have been approved by a majority vote in an election.
- (2) Through a petition to the county court by a majority of the electors in each school district affected. Contrary to the legally established procedure in the first case, in this instance the county court has full discretion concerning the modification of school-district boundaries. Even though a majority of the electors in each school district affected has authorized modification of school-district boundaries by petition, the county court may make the change only if it deems such change best for the interest of the territory affected.

When a proposed modification of district boundaries involves the dissolution of one or more districts and the annexation of territory to an adjoining district, a petition of the majority of the electors of the district wishing to be dissolved and the consent of the board of directors of the district to which territory is to be annexed are required. Experience in other States indicates that the requirement of a majority of the electors in *each* area affected, in contrast to the requirement of a majority in the entire area affected, reduces the probability of effecting desired changes.

FACTORS ENCOURAGING AND DISCOURAGING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The existing factors which discourage desirable organization of local school units are as follows:

- (1) The relatively poor economic condition of the State.
- (2) Excessive bonded indebtedness with attendant heavy interest burden.
- (3) Variation in financial ability of local districts.
- (4) Existing legislation governing school bonded indebtedness.
- (5) Some aspects of the present methods of apportioning State funds to local school districts.

(6) The requirement of an expression of will by a majority of electors in each district affected by proposed changes in school-district boundaries.

(7) The absence of essential administrative structure in the county.

Some of these factors are not peculiar to Arkansas. It seems generally true that extreme variation in the financial ability of local school districts always retards the formation of larger and more efficient units. Arkansas is not alone in being in a poor economic condition to support education nor in having an extremely heavy educational burden. The financial problem in the State is accentuated, however, by the excessive bonded indebtedness, incurred in building highways, which requires that an unduly large proportion of public funds must be devoted to interest payments and reduction of the highway debt. As a result, public funds which might be used for educational purposes are already earmarked. Existing regulations which require that when districts consolidate the resulting "new" district must assume the bonded indebtedness of all territory, further complicate the financial problem and tend to reduce the likelihood of enlargement of school districts.

The present methods of apportioning State funds to school districts tend both to encourage and to discourage the reorganization of districts. The State pays to school districts the difference between the amount per pupil provided through local taxation, and a State-established minimum expenditure per child in average daily attendance. Since small districts receive no material benefits from these grants, local school directors are encouraged to enlarge districts in order to have more children in average daily attendance. On the other hand, the apportionment of the State common-school fund on a census basis provides no incentive for enlarging school districts.

The recent history of Arkansas shows that the most important factors now retarding the reorganization of school units are: (a) The absence of an agent or agency responsible for stimulating and coordinating changes in the organization of school districts, and (b) the requirement of a majority vote in each district concerned to effect changes in school district boundaries. During the period from about 1920 to 1932, a great many small, inefficient districts were eliminated by consolidation into larger and more effective units. These improvements were due in part to the fact that county boards of education and county superintendents, working in conjunction with members of the State department of education, were able to survey local school districts and to plan practical programs for improving their organization. From 1920 to 1927, the number of districts was reduced from 5,112 to 4,711. In 1927 a law was passed permitting boundary changes to be made after a majority vote in the entire territory affected by the proposed changes. As a result of this law and the activity of the county school officials the rate at which districts were eliminated increased. In 1932 the Act of 1927 was repealed; and in 1933 the county boards of education and the

Office of county superintendent were abolished. In 1932 consolidation of school districts practically ceased, and since 1933 the number of school districts has increased as previous consolidations have been dissolved. The following tabulation shows how abruptly the process of consolidation was checked.

<i>Year</i>	<i>Number of districts</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Number of districts</i>
1910.....	5, 110	1930.....	3, 703
1920.....	5, 112	1931.....	3, 112
1927.....	4, 711	1932.....	1 3, 086
1928.....	4, 594	1933.....	3, 086
1929.....	4, 367	1934.....	3, 134

¹ Many of the consolidations made in 1932 were under way when the Act of 1931, repealing Act 156 of 1927, became effective.

Some of the factors which encourage the reorganization of local school units are:

- (1) The recognition of the existence of the problem as reflected in the present procedures for modifying school district boundaries.
- (2) Certain aspects of the methods of apportioning State funds to local school districts. Attention is called to the fact that this matter operates both favorably and unfavorably.
- (3) The increasing consciousness among both professional and lay leaders of the inadequacies of the present public-school program in the State.
- (4) An increased consciousness among both professional and lay leaders of the necessity for realizing the maximum value for each dollar expended for public schools.

Because of its poor economic position, its large school population, and its wide rural areas, it is peculiarly essential that Arkansas have an administrative organization which makes possible the provision of necessary school services to all children at an expenditure which conserves as much as possible the limited financial resources of the State. It seems likely that this result can best be attained by a renewal of the attempt to secure State-wide improvement in the organization of local school districts. Undoubtedly, such a renewal will be possible as the existing laws affecting changes in school district boundaries are modified and as effective agents and agencies are established to provide services similar to those formerly rendered by the county superintendents and the county boards of education.

Status and Operation of Local School Units in California

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

California is in a better position to support and administer schools than are most other States. Although the population in the State has been increasing rapidly—65 percent since 1920—the increase has been largely in the adult population. At present the proportion of population of school age in California is the lowest of any in the 48 States. There are only 399 persons 5 to 20 years of age for each 1,000 persons 21 to 65 years of age, as compared with 574 for each 1,000 in the United States as a whole. Less than 23 percent of the total population of California is of school age. In 1930, 73 percent of the total population lived in urban centers and another 16 percent, in villages. Only 11 percent of the population lived on farms. The economic ability of the State to support education is relatively high.

In view of the above facts, it is not surprising to find that California ranks high in respect to educational opportunity provided. In 1930 approximately 98 percent of all persons 7 to 13 years of age, about 97 percent of all persons 14 to 15 years of age, and about 82 percent of all persons 16 to 17 years of age, were attending school. These figures indicate that in California not only an extremely high proportion of the children of school age attend school, but they remain in school longer than in most other States.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Elementary school districts in California were first organized, followed some time later by secondary school districts, and more recently by junior college districts. At the same time that these developments were taking place, the county intermediate unit was evolving.

Early free public schools were established by communities working through local political bodies. As a result of this, the Legislature, which in 1855 established districts and authorized local taxation for the support of education, legalized existing local school units by making each city and each town or township a school district. In general, the boundaries of such districts were determined by the area from which children were drawn to form a school. Not until 1866 were these schools made entirely free for every child.

From the time of their establishment, school districts concerned themselves almost entirely with the provision for elementary education. In spite of an increasing demand for secondary education, this continued to be their principal concern. By local initiative high schools were established in some communities. Because of the very nature of the school district organization in the State, the small size of districts, and certain restrictive features in the

regulations for granting State funds to districts, most of them, however, found it impossible to support high schools. Finally, when in 1891 a law was passed providing for separately organized high-school districts, the original school districts were legally restricted to the support of elementary schools.

Although legal provision for secondary education did not develop until after the establishment of the free public-school system, early high schools, like the early elementary schools, were first provided on a community basis. Until 1902, State funds could not be used for high schools; before that date advantage was taken of the legislature's interpretation of the term "common schools" as including primary, intermediate, and grammar schools. Some "grammar" schools offered high-school work along with the regular elementary program.

In 1891 the Union High School Act enabled several elementary school districts to combine their assessed valuations and to organize high-school districts. These, administered separately from elementary districts, were established at a rapid rate. An amendment to the Constitution in 1902 and an Act of 1915 provided that high schools were to be entirely free.

After the granting of State support to high-school districts in 1902, a tendency developed in the direction of the "upward extension of high schools." In 1907 legislation was enacted which permitted high-school districts to offer post-graduate courses approximating the first 2 years of college work but received no county or State funds for this purpose. In 1921 legislation was passed, permitting the organization of separately administered junior college districts to serve one or more than one high-school district.

Two problems resulted from the way in which school administrative units developed in California: (1) Securing larger administrative units, and (2) providing means for coordinating the work of schools on the three different levels: Elementary, secondary, and junior college. Although a permissive unionization law was passed in 1891, relatively little progress has been made in the consolidation of small elementary school units. Extra-legal devices, such as the election of boards of identical personnel, were resorted to in order to secure coordination of schools, but it was not until the passage of the *Unified School District Law* in 1935 (see page 61) that there was any legal authorization for the establishment of administrative units to maintain schools on two or more levels. The smallness of the original elementary school districts and the difficulty of enlarging such districts account for the triadic system of basic administrative units which characterizes the public-school system in California.

The county was established as an intermediate unit in 1852, when the county assessor was made ex-officio county superintendent of schools. Later the office of county superintendent was made elective but only gradually was the office given administrative authority beyond that of visiting schools and supervising instruction. The responsibility of the county

superintendent has fluctuated as successive legislatures have increased or diminished his powers and duties. At the present time, the State department of education almost always works through the office of the county superintendent in dealing with all types of basic administrative units. In fiscal matters, since organized districts were first established, these local units have been obliged to operate through the county auditor, the county treasurer, and the county superintendent of schools.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Although the provisions of the California School Code are not entirely clear and although legal interpretations, permissive exceptions, and local connotations of terms make it exceedingly difficult to determine administrative relationships, school administrative units in California may be classified as basic and intermediate. Each county constitutes an intermediate unit; all other administrative school units are basic.

TABLE 12.—*Local school administrative units, school enrollment, and teaching positions in California distributed according to type of administrative unit, 1935-36*

Type of administrative unit	Units		Enrollment		Teaching positions	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Elementary units:						
City.....	21	0.7	35,911	2.6	1,084	2.5
Regular.....	2,367	79.4	228,930	16.6	8,256	19.3
Joint.....	52	1.7	3,861	.2	138	.3
Union.....	204	6.8	40,607	2.9	1,458	3.4
Joint union.....	8	.3	2,178	.2	75	.2
Suspended.....	36	1.2				
Total.....	2,688	90.1	311,487	22.5	11,011	25.7
High-school units:						
County.....	5	.2	2,369	.2	76	.2
Union.....	212	7.1	177,528	12.7	6,153	14.4
Joint union.....	24	.8	10,082	.8	395	.9
Total.....	241	8.1	189,979	13.7	6,624	15.5
Elementary-high-school units:						
City elementary-high.....	37	1.2	857,679	62.1	24,298	56.9
Regular elementary-high.....	18	.6	24,069	1.7	819	1.9
Total.....	55	1.8	881,748	63.8	25,117	58.8
Grand total.....	2,984	100.0	1,383,214	100.0	42,752	100.0

¹ In addition to the elementary-school districts and high-school districts for which data are presented in this table, there are 17 separate junior college districts and 20 combined high-school and junior-college districts. High-school statistics for the 20 combined districts are tabulated under high-school classifications in this table.

² Six additional regular elementary-school units report no schools maintained as they have contracts with other districts for the education of their children. The total number of elementary- and high-school administrative units in California is therefore 2,990.

³ Suspended districts are those whose average daily attendance has been 5 pupils or fewer. They remain suspended for 2 years, after which they are lapsed and their territory is added to a contiguous district. Pupils of a suspended district are transferred to the nearest adjacent district.

Intermediate unit—the county.—The intermediate unit has relatively little authority but plays an important role in facilitating the administration of the State school system and in rendering services to the basic administrative

units. A more exact interpretation of the position occupied by the county in the California public-school system will be made after the discussion of its functions in the section on Operating Relationships of Local School Units in California.

Basic administrative units.—The basic units may be classified with respect to the level of school work they are legally authorized to offer, as elementary school districts, high-school districts, and junior college districts.

Each type is an administrative organization for the support and control of the particular level of education indicated by its name and is administered separately from districts offering different levels of work. Although a high-school district covers territory also included in one or more elementary districts, it has its own controlling board and is administratively separate in all respects from the elementary district or districts upon which it is superimposed. Similarly, a junior college district covers the territory of one or more high-school districts. Prior to July 1, 1936, there were no legal provisions for the coordination of administration or of educational offerings of elementary and high-school districts or of high-school and junior college districts. There were, however, some communities where such coordination was secured on a voluntary basis by the election of the same persons as members of the board of an elementary district and of the board of the high-school district superimposed upon the elementary school district. A similar device was sometimes used to secure coordination between a high-school district and a junior college district. Such extra-legal arrangements were called "combined districts." The manner in which they have been legalized as unitary (or "unified") districts will be described in another section. (See page 61.)

Districts or administrative units on the several levels have legal names indicating differences in structure but not in function.

The elementary school district.—The principal types of elementary school districts are *city elementary districts*, *regular elementary districts*, and *union elementary districts*.

A city elementary district is a single district embracing a city or a city and its adjacent territory; a regular elementary district is a single district other than a city elementary district; and a union elementary district is one formed by the union of two or more regular elementary districts. A regular elementary district embracing territory in more than one county is known as a *joint elementary district*, and a union elementary district similarly embracing territory in more than one county is known as a *joint union elementary district*. An elementary district whose average daily attendance has dropped to five pupils or fewer and whose pupils have been transferred to an active adjacent district is known as a *suspended elementary district*.

The high-school district.—High-school districts may be classified on the basis of the number or kind of elementary districts upon which they are superimposed.

A regular or "district"¹ high-school district is coterminous with a regular or union elementary school district having an average daily attendance of 100 or more. A *city high-school district* is superimposed upon a city elementary school district or upon a city and adjacent elementary districts. In either case this high-school district has a separately organized board although its personnel is the same as that of the board of the city elementary school district. A *union high-school district* is one superimposed upon two or more separate elementary districts within a county; a *joint union high-school district* is one superimposed upon two or more elementary districts not all within the same county. A *county high-school district* is one whose boundaries coincide with the boundaries of a county. It is administered by its own board and is not under the control of the city school authorities.

The junior college district.—A junior college district may be superimposed upon a single high-school district of any type or upon two or more high-school districts. In the first case, the junior college is governed by the high-school district board; in the second case, the junior college district is separately organized and is governed by a junior college board.

The legal designations of districts described above do not indicate differences in functions except as to level of schools which may be maintained. In other respects all districts possess practically the same powers and all function in about the same way.

Attention has already been called to the fact that prior to July 1, 1936, there were certain extra-legal combinations—the so-called "combined" districts designed to make possible the coordination of work on more than one level. Such situations existed where a city elementary district and a city high-school district were coterminous and were administered by boards separately organized, but composed of the same personnel. The same situation also existed where a regular or union elementary district and a high-school district were coterminous and were administered by boards of the same personnel. In some instances, the same individuals were elected not only to the elementary and high-school district boards but also to the board of the junior college district. Where these conditions existed they were the result of purely voluntary action by the local community in an effort to simplify and improve school administration. The Unification Act, effective July 1, 1936, gave legal sanction to such arrangements by providing that where an elementary and a high-school district, or an elementary, high-school, and junior college district, had coterminous boundaries and governing boards of the same personnel, the two or three superimposed districts become a single *unified district*.

¹ So designated by State department of education.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Of the 2,990 administrative units in California in 1935-36, 2,694 were elementary districts, 241 high-school districts, and 55 "combined" elementary-high-school districts.² These units enrolled 1,383,214 pupils and employed 42,752 teachers. Most of these administrative units are small in terms of the number of pupils enrolled and of the number of teachers employed.

There are 2,652 separate elementary districts in the State, exclusive of the suspended districts and those having no enrollment. Approximately 15 percent of the districts have an enrollment of 10 or fewer pupils; 36 percent, 20 or fewer; approximately 80 percent, 100 or fewer; and only about 5 percent, more than 500 pupils. (See table 13.) About half (48.4 percent) of these elementary districts have only 1 teacher; almost 85 percent, 5 or fewer teachers; and less than 2 percent, more than 40 teachers. (See table 14.)

TABLE 13.—Local school administrative units in California distributed on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled, 1935-36

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with high schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0.....	42	1.5					42	1.4
1-5.....	35	1.3					35	1.2
6-10.....	362	13.4					362	12.1
11-20.....	567	21.1					567	19.0
21-30.....	318	11.8	1	0.4			319	10.7
31-50.....	317	11.8	1	.4			318	10.6
51-100.....	430	16.0	14	5.8			444	14.9
101-150.....	183	6.8	31	13.0			214	7.2
151-200.....	93	3.4	22	9.1			115	3.8
201-250.....	63	2.3	14	5.8	1	1.8	78	2.6
251-300.....	44	1.6	10	4.2			54	1.8
301-400.....	64	2.4	23	9.5			87	2.9
401-500.....	37	1.4	16	6.6	1	1.8	54	1.8
501-1,000.....	91	3.4	54	22.4	5	9.1	150	5.0
1,001-1,500.....	27	1.0	19	7.9	7	12.7	53	1.8
1,501-2,000.....	13	.4	13	5.4	1	1.8	27	.9
2,001-3,000.....	6	.2	12	5.0	9	16.3	27	.9
3,001-4,000.....	1	.1	6	2.5	3	5.5	10	.3
4,001-5,000.....			3	1.2	3	5.5	6	.2
More than 5,000.....	1	.1	2	.8	25	45.5	28	.9
Total.....	2,694	100.0	241	100.0	55	100.0	2,990	100.0

¹ These units were established to maintain elementary schools only, but maintain no school.

² Each so-called "combined" district comprised one high-school district and one or more elementary districts. (See pages 60-61.) On July 1, 1936, 36 of the "combined" districts became unified districts.

TABLE 14.—Local school administrative units in California distributed on the basis of the number of teachers per unit, 1935-36

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with high schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0.....	42	1.6					42	1.4
1.....	1,302	48.4					1,302	41.5
2-5.....	944	35.0	11	4.6			955	31.9
6-10.....	191	7.1	59	24.4	1	1.8	251	8.4
11-20.....	115	4.3	65	26.9	1	1.8	181	6.1
21-30.....	47	1.7	42	17.4	3	5.5	92	3.1
31-40.....	16	.6	20	8.3	5	9.2	41	1.4
41-50.....	18	.7	12	5.0	2	3.6	32	1.0
51-60.....	11	.4	8	3.3	4	7.3	23	.8
61-70.....	3	.1	4	1.7	2	3.6	9	.3
71-80.....	2	.1	6	2.5	4	7.3	12	.4
81-90.....	1		4	1.7	1	1.8	6	.2
91-100.....	1		4	1.7	1	1.8	6	.2
101-150.....			4	1.7	7	12.7	11	.4
151-200.....	1		2	.8	5	9.1	8	.3
201-250.....					1	1.8	1	.0
251-300.....					4	7.3	4	.1
301-350.....					2	3.6	2	.1
351-400.....								
401-450.....					1	1.8	1	.0
451-500.....								
More than 500.....					11	20.0	11	.4
Total.....	2,694	100.0	241	100.0	55	100.0	2,990	100.0

¹ These units were established to maintain elementary schools only, but maintain no school.

The situation is considerably different in the high-school districts. Of the 241 separate high-school districts, only 2 have 50 or fewer pupils; almost half (45 percent), more than 500 pupils; and 23 percent, more than 1,000 pupils. (See table 13.) About 29 percent of these high-school districts have fewer than 11 teachers; about 44 percent, more than 20 teachers; and 13 percent, more than 50 teachers. (See table 14.) It is evident, therefore, that high-school districts are larger than elementary districts and are more likely to be of a size which makes possible the provision of adequate educational service.

Of the 55 "combined" elementary-high-school districts, about 45 percent have more than 5,000 pupils and 87 percent, more than 1,000 pupils. About 56 percent employ more than 100 teachers. (See tables 13 and 14.)

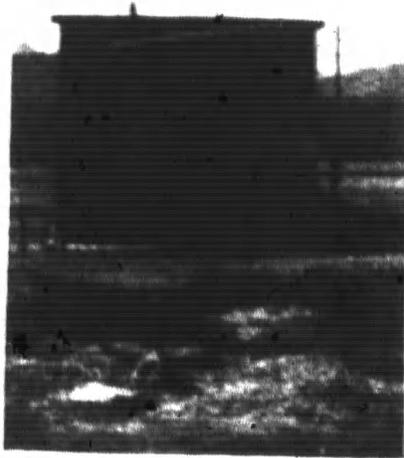
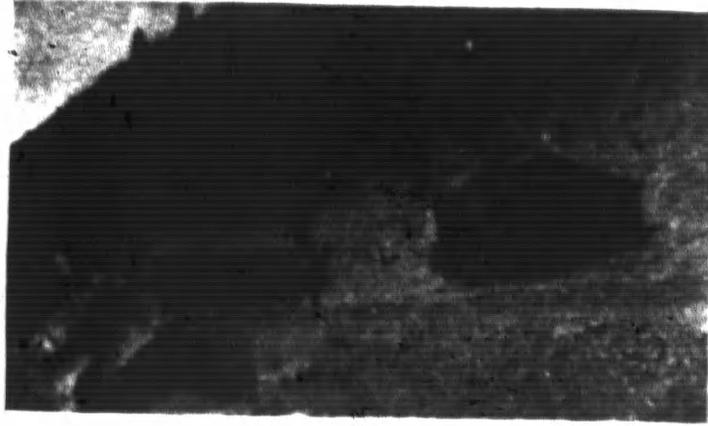


FIGURE 2.— Three small schools in Siskiyou County, Calif. *Upper:* A 1-room elementary school which accommodates 38 pupils. *Center:* Grass Lake School (which structure was formerly a saloon). *Lower:* Happy Camp Log Cabin High School.

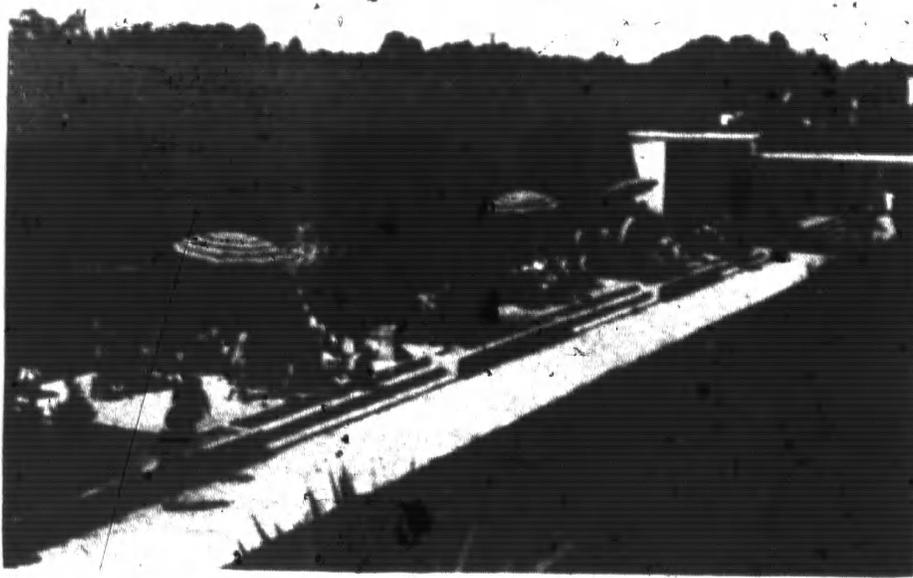
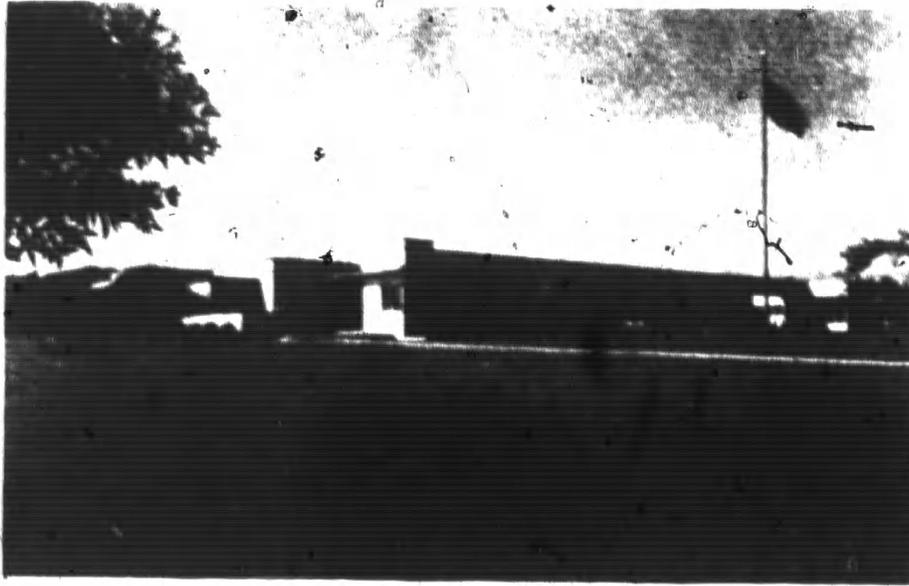


FIGURE 3.—A modern elementary school building in an administrative unit of satisfactory size. Roosevelt Elementary School, Santa Monica, Calif. *Upper*: Front elevation. *Lower*: Close-up of classroom exteriors showing arrangement for outdoor classes.

Many elementary districts in California are small in area and have only one school. Of the 2,652 separate elementary districts considered above, 2,367 are known as "regular" elementary districts. The principal characteristic of this type of elementary unit is that each is a single district which has grown up around an elementary school and which has never merged with another elementary district.

TABLE 15.—Schools, enrollment, and teachers in California, distributed on the basis of number of teachers per school, 1934-35

Teachers per school	Schools		Enrollment		Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.....	1,455	33.0	23,996	2.3	1,455	3.9
2.....	515	11.7	25,319	2.5	1,030	2.8
3-5.....	672	15.3	73,458	7.1	2,571	6.9
6-9.....	528	12.0	113,470	10.9	3,944	10.6
10 or more.....	1,235	28.0	799,178	77.2	28,110	75.8
Total.....	4,405	100.0	1,035,021	100.0	37,110	100.0

TABLE 16.—Elementary schools, enrollment, and teachers in California, distributed on the basis of number of teachers per school, 1934-35

Teachers per school	Schools		Enrollment		Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.....	1,452	37.2	23,522	3.6	1,452	6.7
2.....	510	13.1	25,199	3.8	1,020	4.7
3-5.....	639	16.4	71,170	10.8	2,426	11.1
6-9.....	446	11.4	102,326	15.5	3,316	15.2
10 or more.....	855	21.9	437,854	66.3	13,623	62.3
Total.....	3,902	100.0	660,071	100.0	21,837	100.0

TABLE 17.—High schools, enrollment, and teachers in California, distributed on the basis of number of teachers per school, 1934-35.

Teachers per school	Schools		Enrollment		Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.....	3	0.6	74	0.2	3	0.1
2.....	5	1.0	120	0.3	10	0.1
3-5.....	33	6.6	2,288	0.6	145	1.0
6-9.....	82	16.3	11,144	3.0	628	4.1
10 or more.....	380	75.5	361,324	96.4	14,787	94.8
Total.....	503	100.0	374,950	100.0	15,273	100.0

It should be noted that about 50 percent of the elementary schools have only 1 or 2 teachers, while 75 percent of the high schools have 10 or more teachers. (See tables 15, 16, and 17.) These figures, along with the facts showing the size of administrative units, indicate that there is a positive

relationship between the size of the administrative unit and the size of the schools supported by it.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS.

The State.—In California, as in other States, the ultimate responsibility for the provision of public education resides with the State. Although much of the State's authority has been delegated to local administrative units and many duties have been assigned to county officers, the State has retained much direct control over certain elements of the educational system of the State. State regulations affecting all administrative units are, for the most part, concerned with matters in which uniformity is sought and which directly affect the ultimate services rendered by the public schools to the pupils. The State prints and provides textbooks for elementary schools and approves a list of basic high-school textbooks; controls the certification of teachers; approves plans for school buildings; and prescribes the reports to be made by basic administrative units. It requires the teaching of 12 specified subjects, with the option of 3 others, for which the State department of education has prepared teaching outlines and helps; specifies the time that shall be devoted to the fundamental subjects in the elementary grades; and requires that all high-school and junior-college courses of study be approved by the State department of education.

The county.—The county in California is an intermediate unit in the sense that it assists the State in looking after the basic school units and assists the basic school units in the exercise of their powers and duties. The county authorities concerned in the functioning of a county as an intermediate unit are the county board of education, the county superintendent of schools, the county board of supervisors (the governing body of the county as a political unit), the county auditor, the county assessor, and the county treasurer.

The county board of education is composed of the county superintendent and four other persons, a majority of whom must be experienced, certified teachers. It has certain very-nominal duties in respect to the certification of teachers, courses of study, textbooks, and supplies. Since these matters are largely governed by State regulations, the county board of education is of comparatively little importance in the supervisory administration of basic school units.

The county superintendent of schools is an elective officer in all but two counties. His principal duty is the enforcement of school laws and of the rules and regulations of the State department of education. He renders certain services to basic administrative units, especially the supervision of instruction in small units. His office is a general clearing house for all records and reports and for all matters connected with the State's participation in the support and administration of schools. Although the county superintendent has little direct authority over the operation of local basic units, his office occupies a strategic position in the State public-school system, and, when occupied by a capable individual, can play a significant role in the administration of public education.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF AGENTS AND AGENCIES PERSONNEL, CURRICULUM, FINANCE.

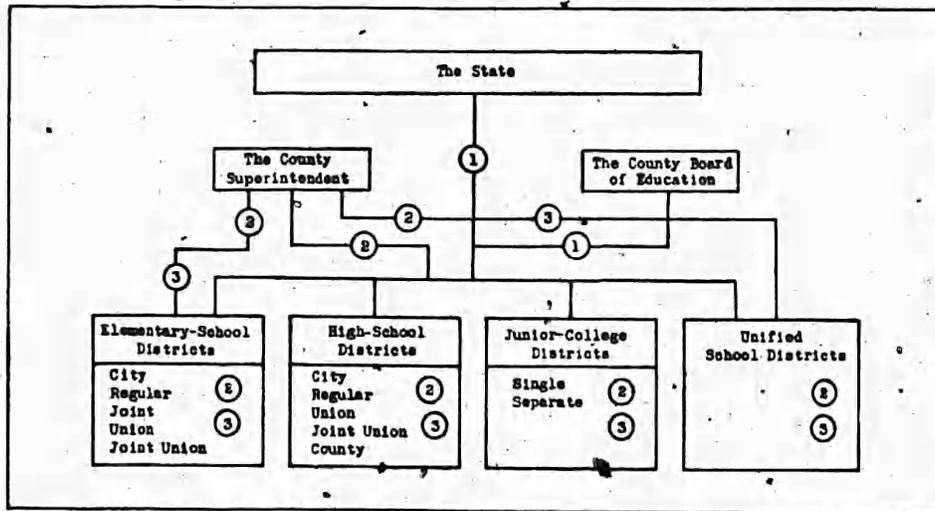


CHART IX.—California: Personnel.

1. In practically all cases the State certifies teachers and issues certificates. Although the county board of education has authority to examine candidates for certification, it rarely exercises this power.
2. The selection and appointment of teachers are functions of the controlling boards of the local basic units. All teachers employed in the county must register with the county superintendent.
3. The county superintendent supervises instruction in elementary districts with less than 300 average daily attendance and in elementary schools of unified districts having less than 1,500 average daily attendance in the elementary schools. All other districts must furnish their own supervisory service or contract with the county superintendent to provide it.

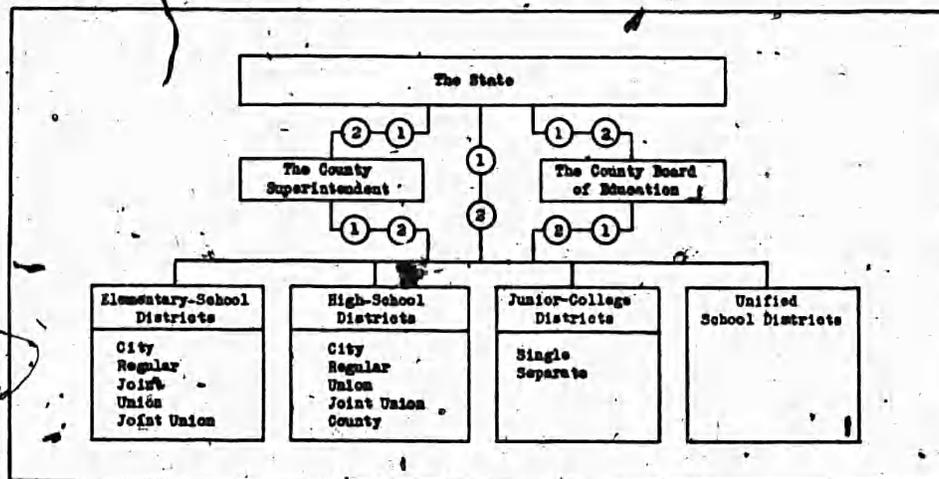


CHART X.—California: Course of study and textbooks.

1. State law requires the teaching of 12 elementary school subjects with the option of 3 others and prescribes time allotments. The State department of education formulates courses of study for these subjects. All high-school courses of study must be approved by the State. The county board of education prepares courses of study for the schools of the county. Such courses of study are only suggestive and follow State regulations. The county superintendent enforces the use of the State minimum courses of study and regulations relating thereto.
2. The State prints and provides textbooks for elementary schools, and approves a list of high-school textbooks from which basic textbooks for class work must be selected. Supplementary high-school textbooks may be selected without reference to the State lists. The county board of education prepares lists of supplementary textbooks from approved lists furnished by the State department of education. The county superintendent enforces the use of State-approved and State-printed textbooks.

OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN CALIFORNIA CONCERNING AND RECORDS AND REPORTS, 1936

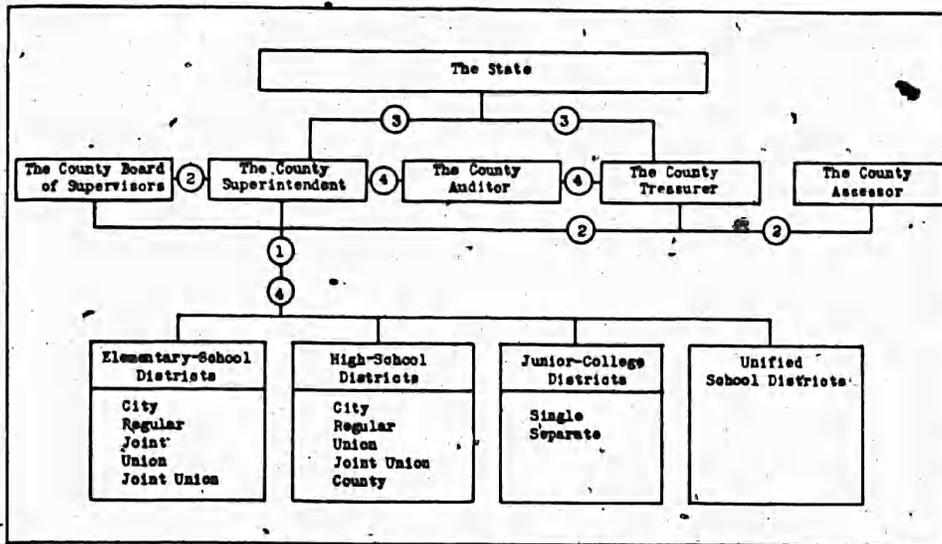


CHART XI.—California: Financial.

1. School budgets are prepared by the basic districts and submitted to the county superintendent for his approval.
2. The county superintendent computes the amount of district budgets which must be raised by local taxation and certifies this amount to the county board of supervisors which computes the rate of taxation necessary in each district. The county assessor and county treasurer assess and collect the local taxes.
3. On the basis of information submitted by the county superintendent the amount of State funds to be allotted to each district is determined. State funds for all districts in the county are transmitted to the county treasurer.
4. State and local funds for all districts are held by the county treasurer. Orders for expenditures of district funds are issued by the district board, and after being charged and signed by the county superintendent and county auditor become warrants for payment by the county treasurer.

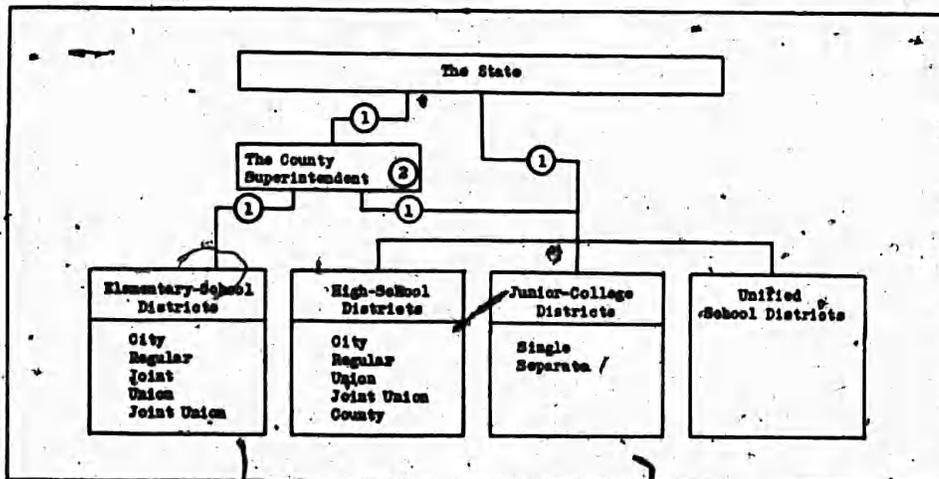


CHART XII.—California: Records and reports.

1. Elementary-school districts report information on pupils, teachers, textbooks, etc., to the county superintendent who in turn reports to the State. Other districts also report to the county superintendent but in addition report directly to the State.
2. Financial records for all basic units are kept by the county superintendent.

The county auditor, the county assessor, and the county treasurer are principally concerned with the fiscal administration of the basic administrative units. The county board of supervisors is largely concerned with the procedures for changing school district boundaries.

Powers in respect to teachers.—The certification of teachers is now almost entirely a function of the State and although the county board of education may still examine teachers who do not have State credentials, such examinations are held infrequently and usually only in an emergency. No county officer has any control over the employment or dismissal of teachers.

Powers in respect to the supervision of instruction.—The county superintendent has the responsibility for supervising classroom instruction in elementary districts having fewer than 300 pupils in average daily attendance and in the elementary schools of unified districts having fewer than 1,500 elementary pupils in average daily attendance. Larger districts must either provide their own instructional supervision or contract with the county superintendent to provide it.

The county board of education is authorized to prepare a course of study for the schools of the county but, since the State prescribes the subjects to be taught and the corresponding time allotments and formulates courses of study, there is little left for the county board of education to do. The county superintendent is responsible for seeing that the State regulations pertaining to this matter are carried out by the basic administrative units.

Similarly, the duties of the county board of education in respect to the preparation of lists of supplementary textbooks have been made nominal because of State activity in this field.

Powers in respect to finances.—School budgets are prepared by the basic administrative units and under the School Code must be submitted to the county superintendent for his approval. This is largely a routine matter, since, although the School Code states that the county superintendent may return a budget to a district for change, there is nothing in the law requiring the district to make the suggested change. The county superintendent compiles the district budgets and computes the amount to be raised by local taxation. He certifies this amount to the county board of supervisors which computes the rate of taxation for school purposes necessary in each district. The county assessor and the county treasurer attend to the assessment and collection of the taxes.

The funds for all districts in the county are held by the county treasurer. All orders by district boards of education for the expenditure of district funds must be charged and signed by the county superintendent and the county auditor and, when so signed, become warrants for payment by the county treasurer.

Records and reports.—All districts must file with the county superintendent reports embodying information concerning attendance, appointment of teachers, and textbooks used. These reports from ele-

mentary school districts are compiled and transmitted by the county superintendent to the State department of education. Reports from high-school and junior college districts, although submitted to the county superintendent, are not transmitted by him to the State, since these districts also report directly to the State.

In evaluating the county as an intermediate unit in California, it may be noted that, as a result of the combined activities of the several county school officers, the county is an important factor in the operation of public schools although it does not exercise much direct authority over the details of administration in basic administrative units. The procedures for drawing up school budgets, for levying and collecting school taxes, and for handling school funds make the financial phase of the administration of schools in all types of school districts the concern of the county superintendent, the county auditor, the county assessor, the county treasurer, and the county board of supervisors. The county superintendent has the general duty of enforcing school laws and the rules and requirements of the State department of education in every type of school district within the county. Although in many instances the performance of this duty may be perfunctory, the fact that it exists makes the county superintendent an agent of the State and creates a situation which enables capable county superintendents to exercise important educational leadership. The fact that the office of the county superintendent is the clearing house for a great mass of routine connected with the administration of the State school system also enables him to keep in close contact with educational affairs in all districts in the county. The relationships between the basic administrative units and the several county officials are sufficiently distinct and sufficiently important to warrant classifying basic administrative units as dependent units. It should be kept clearly in mind, however, that they constitute a comparatively strong form of dependent unit.

Basic administrative units.—Offsetting the control retained by the State as a whole, and administered by the State department of education and the county officials, is the more intimate and local control of the schools left to the district boards.

The local school districts on any one educational level have practically the same powers and duties in the administration of the schools as those on any of the other levels. These powers and duties include the selection, appointment, and dismissal of teachers and other employees; the determination of the extent and adequacy of the school offering; the making of budgets; the issuing of bonds within limits defined by the School Code; the selection of sites and making of plans for school buildings in conformity with State requirements; the selection of supplementary textbooks and library books from State-approved lists; the purchase of standard school supplies and apparatus; the providing, in an elementary district with an average daily attendance of 300 or more, for instructional supervision; the use in a smaller unit of the instructional supervision provided by the State through the

county superintendent's office; the approving or disapproving by a two-thirds vote of any change in district status that might be suggested by the county superintendent and county board of supervisors, except where a school district is suspended or lapsed because of an average daily attendance of five or fewer pupils.

PROCEDURES FOR CHANGING BOUNDARIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

In California, changes in school district boundaries may be authorized in one of two ways. Some types of boundary changes may be authorized by the county board of supervisors, and other types by a vote of the electors residing in the district or districts concerned. Although, in a few instances, the county board of supervisors may make changes on its own initiative, in the main, it can act only after being petitioned in one of several ways. (See table 18.)

The county superintendent has no power to authorize boundary changes, but under certain conditions he can recommend that changes be made. For example, when schoolhouses are less than 3 miles apart, the county superintendent may recommend to the county board of supervisors that the districts be merged.

An election is usually necessary to create high-school or junior college districts. An election is also necessary to detach an elementary district from one and to attach it to another high-school district. In this case, two-thirds of the heads of families in the elementary district must petition the county board of supervisors to call an election which must then be carried by a two-thirds majority. An election is also necessary to annex other districts to a unified district.

In making a general evaluation of the procedures for changing boundaries of administrative units in California, certain facts should be noted:

- (1) Although there are several procedures for changing school district organization, practically, all of them must be instituted within the localities desiring change.
- (2) Most of the procedures, and especially those which must be followed in organizing larger administrative units, are complicated and cumbersome and difficult to carry through.
- (3) Under the California constitution a school district being annexed cannot assume any part of the bonded indebtedness of a district to which it is annexed unless such an assumption is authorized by a two-thirds vote of the electors of the district being annexed. The practical result of this provision of the constitution is that, irrespective of the many types of procedures for changing boundaries, most annexations and consolidations depend upon a two-thirds vote in an election.

LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 18.—Legal provisions for changing boundaries of local school administrative units in California, 1936

By county board of supervisors¹

On petition

Automatic changes	Of a stipulated number of the heads of families in the proposed district	Of a majority of the heads of families in districts meeting certain other qualifications	Of a majority of the heads of families plus agreement of the local governing boards	Of the governing board of one district if children of another district attend the petitioning district	On agreement of local boards of two or more districts	On recommendation of county superintendent	On its own initiative
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Create elementary district when city or incorporated town above sixth class is created. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Change boundaries of elementary district. 2. Create elementary district. 3. Form joint elementary district. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Form single elementary district by merger of contiguous elementary districts. 2. Form joint elementary district by merger of districts. 3. Change boundaries of city elementary district by annexing contiguous territory. 4. Annex union high-school district to contiguous city high-school district. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Annex elementary district to union or joint-union elementary district. 2. Annex elementary district to high-school district. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Annex elementary district to high-school district. 2. Annex high-school district to junior college district. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Annex high-school district to junior college district. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Form single district by merger of contiguous districts when schoolhouses are less than 3 miles apart. 2. Form joint elementary district by merger of districts. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Attach lapsed elementary district to contiguous district. 2. Annex elementary district (outside any high-school district) to high-school district.

		By election					
		Called on petition to the county board of supervisors					
		Of a majority of the heads of families in each district	Of a majority of the local board of a district	Of two-thirds of the board of each district	Of a majority of the electors	Called by the county superintendent on his own initiative	On petition to the State board of education, by the local board or board of the districts desiring changes
Automatic changes	1	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Create elementary district when city or town above sixth class is created.		1. Form union elementary district. 2. Form joint union elementary district. 3. Form city elementary or high-school district. 4. Transfer elementary district from one high-school district to another high-school district. 5. Form consolidated district.	1. Form consolidated district.	1. Form union or joint-union high-school district. ²	1. Form city or district high-school district. 2. Form county high-school district. (Only 50 taxpayers need petition.) Form consolidated district.	1. Form consolidated district.	1. Form junior-college district.

¹ Under the California constitution a district being annexed cannot assume bonded indebtedness of district to which it is annexed without assumption being authorized by a two-thirds-vote of the electors of the district being annexed. Therefore, these procedures may be used only: (a) Where there is no bonded indebtedness; (b) where the terms of annexation do not require the assumption of the bonded indebtedness; and (c) if an election is held authorizing such assumption.

² Concurrent action in 2 counties is necessary to form a joint district.

³ This annexation fails if protected by a majority of the elementary district electors within 60 days.

⁴ If a certain percentage of the electors protest, an election must be held.

⁵ Annexation cannot be made if the high-school district is governed by an appointive board. Instead a tax is levied on the elementary district for the benefit of the high-school district.

⁶ Two-thirds of the heads of families must petition and the election must be carried by a two-thirds majority.

FACTORS ENCOURAGING AND DISCOURAGING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The general situation in California seems to be unfavorable to the organization of more satisfactory local school units. In recent years the State has greatly raised the standards of instruction and has greatly increased the amount of money expended for the support of schools. The increase in the amount of State subsidies, however, has not been accompanied by any significant changes in the organization of the administrative units. Furthermore, although a number of bills have been introduced in the biennial sessions of the Legislature looking to the enlargement of school districts and to the unification of the educational programs of the different levels, most of these efforts have been of no avail. There seem to be two reasons for this situation. First, there are practically no important factors operating in an effective manner to encourage the organization of more satisfactory administrative units. Second, there are important factors operating to discourage any progress in that direction.

The system of apportioning State funds to local administrative units definitely tends to encourage the continuance of existing administrative units. There is evidence that the money which the State now grants to local school districts, in effect, tends to subsidize inefficient district organization. State funds are apportioned to districts on the basis of \$1,400 for each unit, or fraction of a unit, of 35 pupils in average daily attendance. It is possible, therefore, for all school districts requiring only one teacher to maintain, without a local tax, a minimum school program on State support. In 1934-35, 59 percent of the elementary districts and 4 percent of the high-school districts levied no tax either for current expenditure or for capital outlay.

Two or more small elementary districts may gain by unionizing since State aid is apportioned to each component part of a union as though it were still an active separate district. Each component part is entitled to \$1,400. A union district, thus constituted, receives a substantial sum for the operation of its school. To some extent this tends to encourage districts to form larger units of administration, but even this incentive has not been a strong enough inducement to effect the enlargement of many administrative units. It is conceivable and even likely that a number of small elementary districts that are now paying no tax might group themselves together into a union elementary district and still levy no local tax. Normally, however, such a union district may be expected to levy some local tax to support the enriched educational program, which is one of the objectives to be gained by unionization.

A very important factor in the lack of progress in the enlargement of school districts in California is the existing regulations for changing boundaries. There are a number of legal provisions for altering school districts but very little use is made of them. In themselves these provisions are

cumbersome and include requirements difficult to meet. This is particularly true of the laws providing for consolidation or merger of school districts. The more important of these obstacles have been discussed in the preceding section of this chapter.

In contrast with the difficulties in the enlargement of districts, the regulations for the creation of new and very small elementary districts are relatively simple. On petition of the heads of families which have a total of 15 children of school age residing in a territory 5 miles from a schoolhouse, a new elementary district may be created by the county board of supervisors. This procedure for the creation of new districts constitutes a threat to the existence of a district which has been formed from several districts and in which all pupils are transported to a central school. It is possible for small groups of parents and the county board of supervisors to break up the outlying portions of a large district into a number of small districts, none of which would have more than 15 pupils in average daily attendance. Such small districts may continue in existence as long as the average daily attendance exceeds 5.

Even if the procedures for changing boundaries were less cumbersome and rigid, they would still be permissive in nature and dependent upon local initiative. In practically all cases a group of local petitioners or a local board of education must take the first step before any boundary changes can be submitted either to the county board of supervisors or to an election. At the present time there is no agent or agency in position to encourage the institution of boundary changes or to coordinate changes so that they will really constitute a step toward the organization of more satisfactory local units of school administration.

Status and Operation of Local School Units in Illinois

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Illinois is one of the densely populated States, but it faces many problems arising from unsatisfactory school district organization, particularly in rural areas which have a relatively low density of population. Seventy-two percent of the population of the State live in urban areas. More than half of the total population is located in nine cities, each of which has more than 50,000 population, with 44 percent in Chicago alone. Only about 13 percent live on farms and another 13 percent in villages. Since urban centers usually constitute separate administrative units, it is evident that a very large proportion of the population is located in administrative units which permit the establishment of schools of satisfactory size. Most of the area of the State is rural and, consequently, the problem of school district organization in rural territory is State-wide.

Illinois ranks relatively high in its ability to support public education, although the percentage of State funds spent for school purposes is relatively low. The large number of small schools in Illinois is due, apparently, more to inefficient school district organization than to the inability of the State to finance public education.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

When Illinois entered the Union in 1818, it accepted the school requirements of the old Northwest Territory and of the Federal Government and granted in each congressional township the sixteenth section of land or its equivalent for the use of public schools. Public schools were established by the early settlers wherever they congregated, without paying particular attention to district boundary lines.

A law of 1825 made it obligatory on the county commissioners court, when properly petitioned, to form common-school districts with at least 15 families in each district. In 1833 a law provided that at a public meeting in each district three district school directors be elected for a term of 3 years. In 1855 a law provided for the election of three district school directors every 2 years. In addition to the common-school districts established by the county commissioners court, 27 districts have been chartered by the legislature.

In 1818 the first State legislature provided for the appointment by the county commissioners court of three township trustees for each school township. As common-school districts were established, the township trustees were given certain supervisory authority over the local districts. In 1837 the appointment of a township school treasurer by the county commissioners court was made mandatory. This officer handled the funds of all local school districts within the township. A law of 1845 provided that

the township trustees were to be elected by the voters in the township and were to appoint the township treasurer.

In 1845 provision was made by the legislature for the qualified voters of each county to elect a school commissioner for a 2-year term. Amendments affecting election dates were made in 1847, 1849, and 1855. In 1865 the title of school commissioner was changed to county superintendent and the term of office lengthened to 4 years. Various unimportant revisions were made until 1915 when requirements of good character, engagement in educational work, teaching experience, and holding of State supervisory certificate were added.

Legislation creating and affecting high-school districts has been enacted in practically every session of the legislature from 1890 to 1937. Briefly, the growth of high-school districts has come from local needs and from demands of the people desiring, and in most cases, securing organization of territory for the purpose of providing instruction in grades 9 to 12.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Types of administrative units.—Administrative units in Illinois may be classified as intermediate units, sub-intermediate units, and basic units. With the exception of Chicago, all basic units are dependent, although there is some variation in the degree of dependency. Dependent units may be classified as common-school districts (which may offer elementary school work only or both elementary and high-school work) and high-school districts (which offer high-school work only).

Intermediate units—the county.—The authority exercised by the county superintendent makes the county in Illinois a strong intermediate unit. The county superintendent is the agent of the State in all its dealings with all basic administrative units. He is the administrative and supervisory officer in most common-school districts. Moreover, his powers and duties are such that, to some extent, every school official or teacher in all other administrative units within the county is responsible to him.

TABLE 19.—Local school administrative units, school enrollment, and teaching positions in Illinois distributed according to type of administrative unit, 1934-35

Type of administrative unit	Units		Enrollment		Teaching positions	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Common school: ¹						
(a) Units maintaining elementary schools (grades 1-8).....	10,750	91.4	1,037,751	75.6	34,164	72.4
(b) Units maintaining elementary and high-school grades.....	482	4.1	201,705	14.8	7,234	15.3
Total, common school.....	11,232	95.5	1,241,456	90.4	41,398	87.7
High school.....	524	4.5	131,864	9.6	5,781	12.3
Grand total.....	11,756	100.0	1,373,320	100.0	47,179	100.0

¹ There are 11,453 common-school districts in Illinois, 221 of which maintain no school. The total number of school administrative units in Illinois is therefore 11,977.

Sub-intermediate units—the school township.—The school township is a geographical unit 6 miles square. It functions as an intermediate unit between the county and the basic school districts. The township board of trustees decides whether proposed changes in the boundaries of common-school districts may be made. In case of appeal, its action is subject to review by the county superintendent. It is also the fiduciary in apportioning and disbursing the school funds of all basic units.

Dependent basic units.—All basic districts, except Chicago, are dependent, and their transactions with the State are conducted through the county superintendent of schools. They may be divided into common-school districts and high-school districts. This classification is not based entirely on services rendered, since all common-school districts are authorized to offer high-school work.

The common-school district.—The preceding paragraph indicates that the name "elementary district" is not a true description of the common-school district in Illinois. Although common-school districts have the legal right to maintain high schools, only about 4 percent of 11,441 common-school districts in the State offer high-school work. (See table 20.) A common-school district which is included in a high-school district may properly be referred to as an elementary district.

TABLE 20.—Grades of work offered in common-school districts in Illinois, 1937¹

Grades of work offered	Common-school districts	
	Number	Percent
1-8	10,979	95.96
1-9	3	.03
1-10	79	.69
1-11	200	1.75
1-12	180	1.57
Total	11,441	100.00

¹ No information for 12 districts.

Although common-school districts may be classified, as designated in the law, as *common-school districts*, *consolidated districts*, *community consolidated districts*, and *special charter districts*, there is little real difference between the administrative operation of these various types. The classification suggests methods of district organization rather than differences in administrative authority and responsibility.

If a common-school district has less than 1,000 population, it is governed by a *board of directors* of three members (in the case of consolidated districts, of five members). If it has more than 1,000 population, it is governed by a *board of education* with seven or more members. Boards of directors may not employ a district superintendent and the districts are, therefore, under the direct supervision of the county superintendent. In 1933 there were 10,859 common-school districts each having less than 1,000 population. Of this number, probably 10,000 or more

employed only one or two teachers. In the same year there were only 1,080 districts, with boards of education indirectly supervised by the county superintendent.

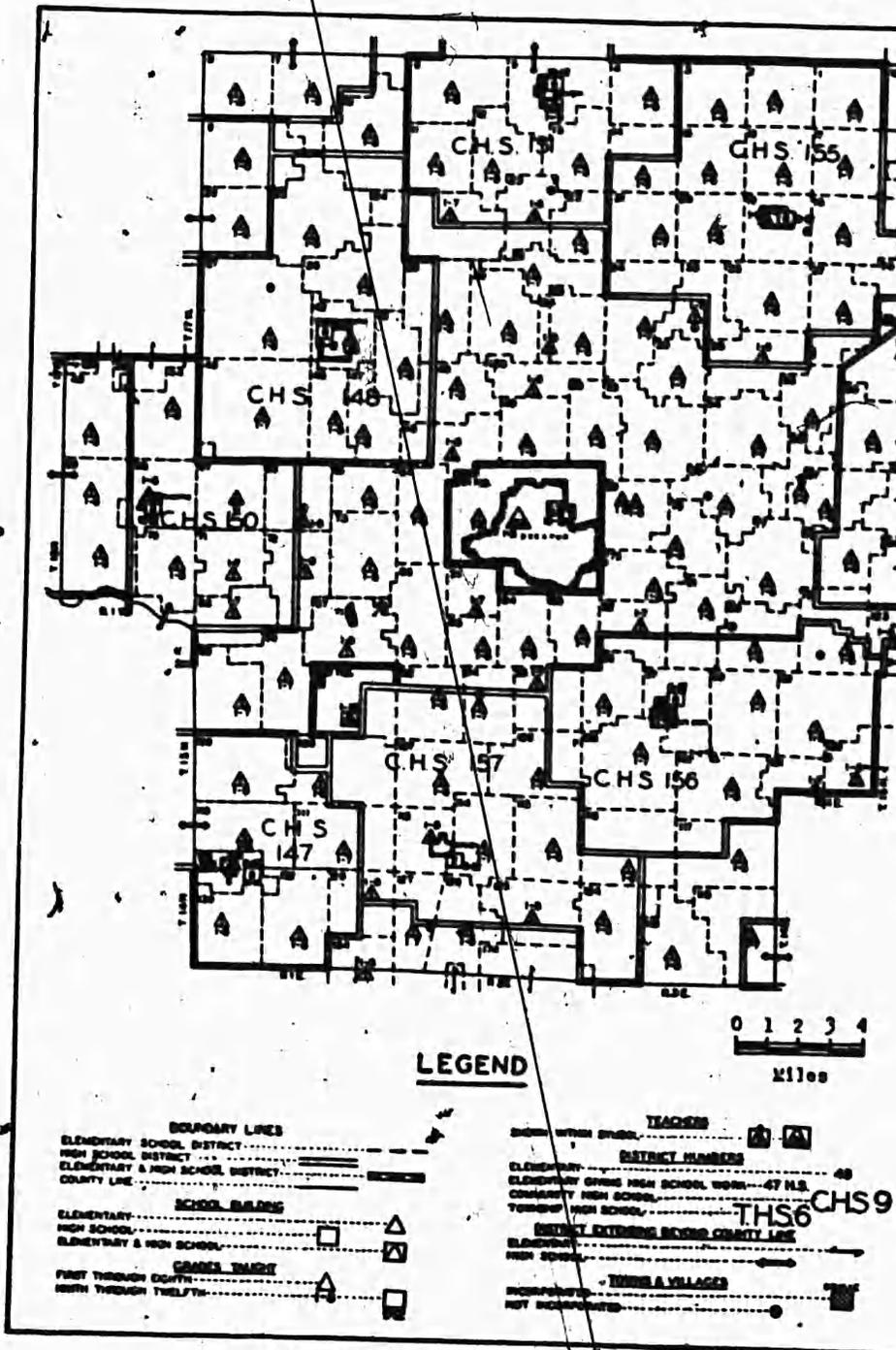
The high-school district.—There are four different types of high-school districts in Illinois: *Community, township, validated, and special charter* high-school districts. As is the case with the common-school districts, the differences between the various types of high-school districts are not significant. For example, validated township high-school districts (validated by the Legislature after the law under which they were created was declared unconstitutional) function in the same manner as township high-school districts, although established by a different method. All high-school districts have the same relation to the county superintendent as the common-school district having more than 1,000 population. The board of education of each high-school district employs a principal who acts as chief executive officer. In fact, the principal of a high-school district in Illinois performs the combined functions of a superintendent of schools and an individual building principal.

High-school districts usually include all or portions of the territory of several common-school districts, but are separately organized from the underlying districts and are governed by separate boards of education. The boundaries of high-school districts need not and usually do not follow the boundary lines of elementary districts. An example is a certain community high-school district, which includes 10 complete elementary districts and parts of 16 others.

It is possible for a single elementary district to be divided between two or three high-school districts. As a result, the number of areas with different school tax rates within a given district may be increased. Such would be the case when the territory of an elementary district with a uniform tax rate is divided between two high-school districts which differ in tax rates.

The non-high-school district—A special type.—All the territory within a county not included in a high-school district or in a common-school district offering 4 years of high-school work, constitutes a non-high-school district. The non-high-school district is not an administrative unit in any real sense and does not operate a high school. It has a board of education composed of three elected members and the county superintendent, who is ex-officio secretary but who has no vote. The sole function of this board is to pay the tuition of high-school pupils living in the non-high-school district who attend a recognized high school maintained by a common-school or high-school district. For this purpose, the board may levy a tax which is limited by law to a rate of 50 cents on each \$100 assessed valuation. This rate may be increased up to 75 cents by a referendum vote. If funds are available after tuition charges are paid, the non-high-school district board may provide transportation for the pupils whose tuition it pays, provided that such trans-

portation has been authorized by a vote of the electors of the non school district.



MAP IV.—Macon County, Illinois.

This map shows present status of districts and schools as of 1936.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

In 1934-35 in Illinois there were 11,977 school districts. Of the 11, common-school districts, 221 maintained no schools, 10,750 offered o

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elementary work, and 482 offered 8 years of elementary work and 1 or more years of high-school work. In the same year there were 524 separately organized districts which maintained only high schools. (See table 19.)

Many school administrative units in Illinois are found to be small with respect to the number of pupils enrolled, the number of teachers employed, and area. This is particularly true in common-school districts maintaining only elementary schools. About 25 percent of these elementary districts have 10 or fewer pupils; 76 percent, 20 or fewer; and 97 percent, 100 or fewer. One-half of these districts (51 percent) enroll between 11 and 20 pupils. Only about 1 percent enroll more than 300 pupils. (See table 21.)

TABLE 21.—Local school administrative units in Illinois distributed on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled, 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with high schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0.....							1,221	1.8
1-5.....	455	4.2	3	0.6			459	3.8
6-10.....	2,205	20.6	3	.6	1	0.2	2,208	18.4
11-20.....	5,465	51.0	6	1.1	1	.2	5,472	45.8
21-30.....	1,368	12.7	8	1.5	2	.4	1,378	11.5
31-50.....	542	5.0	27	5.2	14	2.9	583	4.9
51-100.....	329	3.1	166	31.7	118	24.5	613	5.1
101-150.....	176	1.6	100	19.1	88	18.3	364	3.0
151-200.....	46	.4	69	13.2	45	9.3	160	1.3
201-250.....	31	.3	33	6.3	33	6.8	97	.8
251-300.....	16	.1	18	3.4	34	7.1	68	.6
301-400.....	19	.2	24	4.6	39	8.1	82	.7
401-500.....	14	.1	18	3.4	27	5.6	59	.5
501-1,000.....	36	.3	28	5.3	36	7.5	100	.8
1,001-1,500.....	21	.2	10	1.9	12	2.5	43	.4
1,501-2,000.....	14	.1	4	.8	4	.8	22	.2
2,001-3,000.....	7	.1	2	.4	9	1.9	18	.2
3,001-4,000.....	3		4	.8	4	.8	11	.1
4,001-5,000.....	1				1	.2	2	
More than 5,000.....	2		1	.1	14	2.9	17	.1
Total.....	10,750	100.0	524	100.0	482	100.0	11,977	100.0

¹ These 221 are common-school districts which maintain no school but have the legal right to maintain elementary grades only or elementary grades and one or more high-school grades.

The small size of common-school districts is evident when measured by the number of teachers employed. About 90 percent of these districts each have only 1 teacher; 96.8 percent, 5 or fewer; 98.3 percent, 10 or fewer; and 1 percent, more than 20. (See table 22.) These districts are small in area. Seventy-four percent range from 1 to 5 square miles in area, and 98 percent, from 1 to 10 square miles. (See table 23.) The mean area of common-school and high-school districts is 5 square miles. High-school districts are usually established to include territory in portions of two or more elementary districts and are, consequently, larger in area. About 53 percent are from 26 to 50 square miles in area. (See table 23.)

Although high-school districts are small in size, they are, on the whole larger than elementary districts. Thirty-two percent enroll between 50 and

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100 pupils; 73 percent, 200 or fewer; and about 9 percent, more than 500. (See table 21.) There are only a few high-school districts with only 1 teacher, but 31 percent have fewer than 6 teachers, and another 43 percent, between 6 and 10. Only about 1.3 percent of the high-school districts have more than 100 teachers. (See table 22.)

TABLE 22.—Local school administrative units in Illinois distributed on the basis of the number of teachers per unit, 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with high schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0.....							221	1.8
1.....	9,695	90.2	5	1.0			9,700	81.1
2-5.....	713	6.6	156	29.7	188	39.1	1,057	8.9
6-10.....	162	1.5	227	43.5	171	35.6	560	4.7
11-20.....	77	.7	88	16.8	54	11.3	219	1.8
21-30.....	32	.3	16	3.0	16	3.3	64	.5
31-40.....	22	.2	10	1.9	12	2.5	44	.4
41-50.....	16	.1	7	1.3	6	1.2	29	.2
51-60.....	7	.1	5	1.0	5	1.0	17	.1
61-70.....	8	.1			2	.4	10	.1
71-80.....	6	.1	2	.4	2	.4	10	.1
81-90.....	4	.1	1	.2	5	1.0	10	.1
91-100.....					1	.2	1	
101-150.....	3		5	1.0	6	1.2	14	.1
151-200.....	2		1	.2	5	1.0	8	.1
201-250.....	1		1	.2	3	.6	5	
251-300.....	1				1	.2	2	
301-350.....	1				2	.4	3	
351-400.....								
401-450.....					2	.4	2	
451-500.....								
More than 500.....					1	.2	1	
Total.....	10,750	100.0	524	100.0	482	100.0	11,977	100.0

¹ These 221 are common school districts which maintain no school but have the legal right to maintain elementary grades only, or elementary grades and one or more high-school grades.

TABLE 23.—Local school administrative units in Illinois distributed on the basis of area,¹ 1934-35

Square miles per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with high schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.....	72	0.7					72	0.6
2.....	486	4.5			36	7.8	522	4.5
3.....	1,109	10.3			60	13.0	1,169	10.0
4.....	4,054	37.7	11	2.2	69	15.0	4,134	35.3
5.....	2,259	21.0	4	.8	65	14.1	2,328	19.9
6-10.....	2,562	23.8	46	9.1	131	28.4	2,739	23.4
11-25.....	192	1.8	54	10.7	63	13.7	309	2.6
26-50.....	11	.1	265	52.7	33	7.2	309	2.6
51-75.....	6	.1	98	19.5	1	.2	105	.9
76-100.....	2		21	4.2	2	.4	25	.2
101-250.....			4	.8	1	.2	5	
Total.....	10,753	100.0	503	100.0	461	100.0	11,717	100.0

¹ 2 counties whose aggregate of administrative units is 260 are not included in this table. In these 2 counties there are approximately 218 units with elementary schools only, 21 units with high schools only, and 21 units with elementary and high schools.

The number of common-school districts supporting both elementary and high-school grades is relatively small when compared with the number supporting only elementary grades but the former are, in general, larger in size. About 25 percent range from 50 to 100 pupils; about 50 percent, 50 to 200; and almost 17 percent, more than 500. Thirty-nine percent have from 2 to 5 teachers; nearly 75 percent, 2 to 10; and about 85 percent, from 2 to 20. About 4 percent have more than 100 teachers.

These figures indicate that all types of school districts in Illinois are rather small in size and that, particularly among the common-school districts, there is a high proportion of extremely small districts. Of the common-school districts supporting only elementary schools, 97.4 percent have only one school; 99.2 percent of the high-school districts have only one school; and 82.5 percent of the common-school districts having both elementary and high-school work have only one elementary and one high school, frequently housed in the same building. (See table 24.)

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The State.—Although the ultimate authority over public education in Illinois resides with the State, it does not maintain any schools directly. It has made the county superintendent its agent and through him maintains supervision over basic administrative units. In addition, it exercises certain regulatory powers as in the issuance of teachers' certificates, apportionment of State subsidies to local units, and change of district boundaries.

TABLE 24.—Local school administrative units in Illinois distributed on the basis of number of attendance areas per unit,¹ 1934-35

Attendance areas per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with high schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
One elementary school.....	10,694	97.5					10,694	89.3
Two or more elementary schools.....	277	2.5					277	2.3
One high school.....			520	99.2			520	4.4
Two or more high schools.....			4	.8			4	
One elementary school and one high school with coterminous attendance areas.....					398	82.6	398	3.3
Two or more elementary schools and one high school.....					73	15.1	73	.6
Two or more elementary schools and two or more high schools.....					11	2.3	11	.1
Total.....	10,971	100.0	524	100.0	482	100.0	11,977	100.0

¹ Derived and compiled from the Illinois school directory and the statistical report of the Office of Public Instruction for the year 1935 but issued in 1936.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF AGENTS AND AGENCIES
PERSONNEL, CURRICULUM, FINANCE.

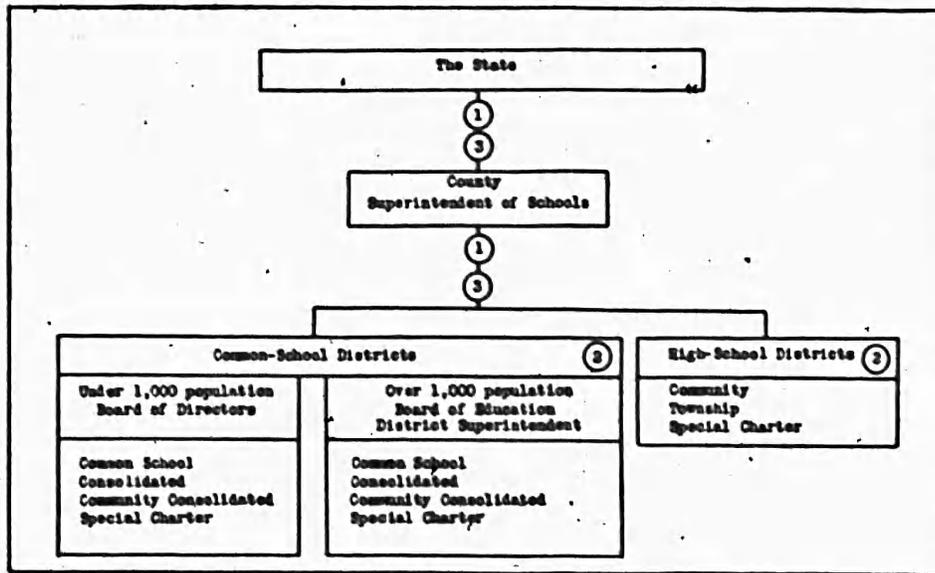


CHART XIII.—Illinois: Personnel.

1. County superintendent acts as clerical agent of State board of examiners in the certification of teachers.
2. Employment of teachers is a function of the basic unit.
3. County superintendent directly supervises districts with boards of directors. County superintendent acts through board of education in an advisory capacity.

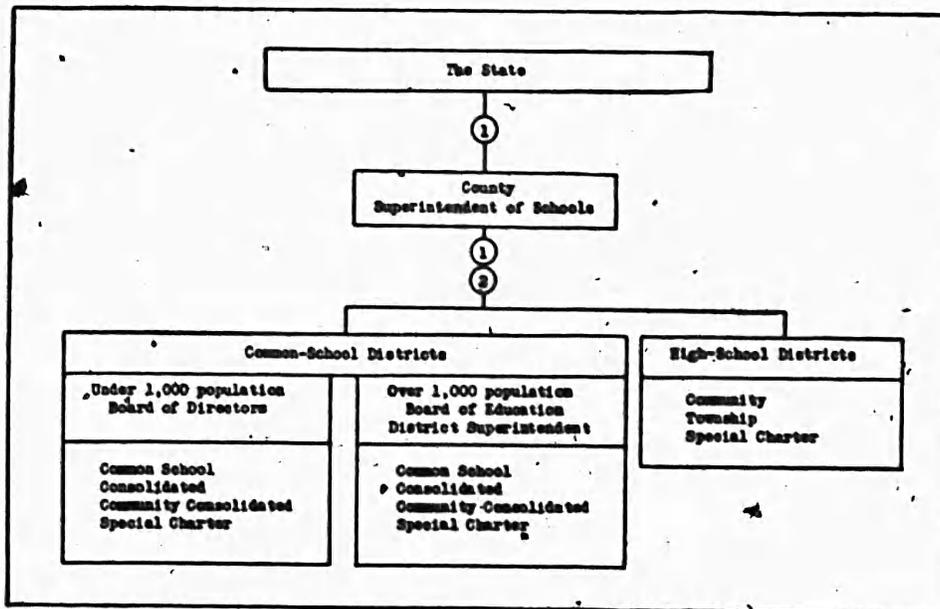


CHART XIV.—Illinois: Course of study and textbooks.

1. County superintendent enforces State standards in respect to the course of study.
2. County superintendent supervises selection of textbooks.

OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN ILLINOIS CONCERNING AND RECORDS AND REPORTS, 1936

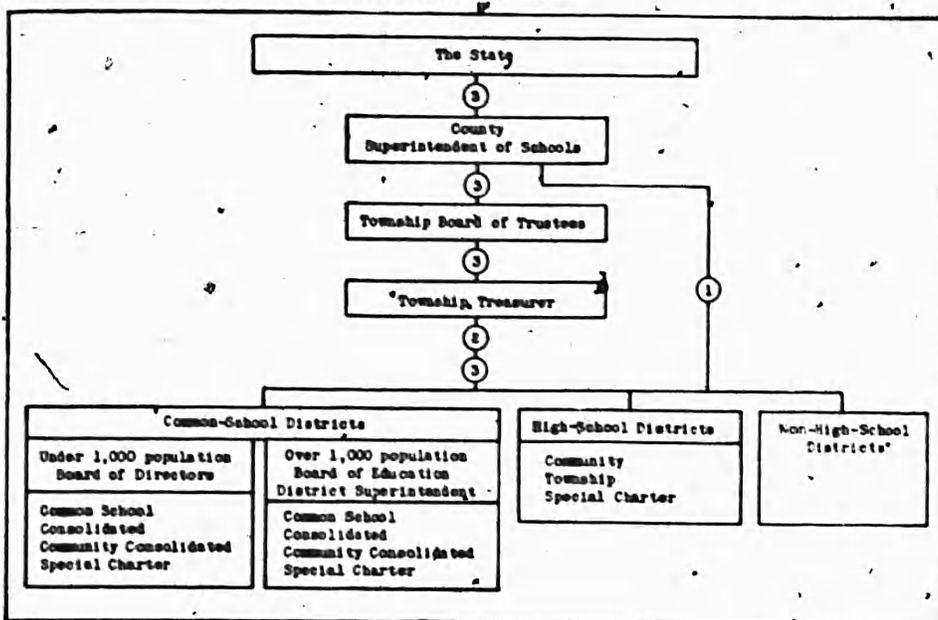


CHART XV.—Illinois: Financial.

1. Budgets are prepared by each basic unit, approved by the county superintendent and executed by the basic units.
2. Taxes are levied by each basic unit, collected and distributed by the school treasurer who is appointed by the township board of trustees. A maximum rate is fixed by the State.
3. The State distributive fund is sent through the county superintendent to the school treasurer.

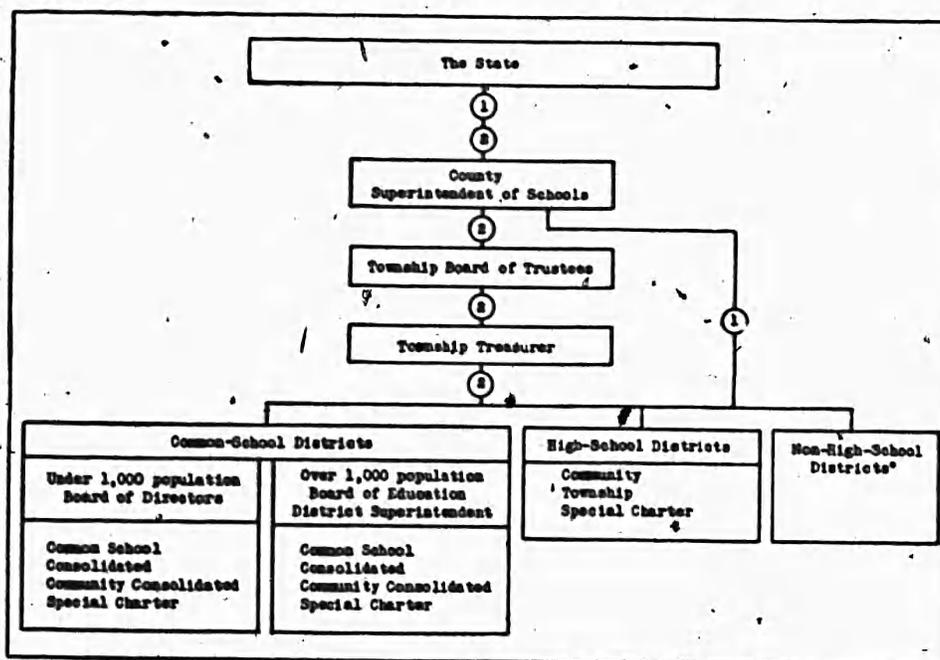


CHART XVI.—Illinois: Records and reports.

1. Each basic unit submits supervisory and teaching personnel, attendance, and other necessary reports to the county superintendent who in turn sends a summarized report to the State.
2. Financial records for common-school districts, high-school districts, and non-high-school districts are kept by each township treasurer who transmits financial reports to the county superintendent, who summarizes them and reports to the State.

*Non-high-school districts do not maintain high schools but do levy a tax to pay high-school tuition.

The county.—The county in Illinois is the territory over which the county superintendent, as the agent of the State, exercises his administrative and supervisory authority. The county superintendent is in a strategic administrative position with respect to public education. He directly supervises a great many of the common-school districts and exercises an advisory supervision over all other districts. School officials and teachers of all districts are responsible to the county superintendent.

Although the county superintendent acts as the clerical agent of the State in giving examinations for teachers' certificates, he does not issue certificates himself.

Although the legal authority for the employment and dismissal of teachers is vested in the governing boards of the basic school districts, the county superintendent frequently exercises rather strong advisory influence in connection with these matters.

The county superintendent directly supervises classroom instruction in common-school districts having populations of fewer than 1,000, visits other common- and high-school districts to confer and advise with the principals and teachers, and conducts teacher institutes as a means of improving the professional quality of the teaching personnel of the county.

The State does not adopt textbooks, but the county superintendent exercises supervisory authority in the selection of textbooks by basic units. He does not have any direct control over the courses of study by basic school units but is authorized to enforce State standards in respect to the course of study.

Although the county superintendent has no control over the levying of district school taxes, the budget of each basic school unit must be submitted to him for approval. In determining the amount of State funds to be distributed to each school district he must apportion funds according to a formula prescribed by law. He receives the State funds and transmits them to the treasurers of the school townships to be credited to the local school districts under the jurisdiction of each school township. The county superintendent also audits the accounts of the treasurers of the school townships and directs the manner in which they shall keep their books and accounts.

The county superintendent exercises no control over the purchase of supplies and equipment by the local school districts. He approves the plans for all school buildings erected within the county boundaries and is authorized to enforce State standards in respect to school buildings, particularly in respect to sanitation and safety. He may condemn buildings that are insanitary or unfit for occupancy.

Each basic school unit and each school township must submit to the county superintendent each year a detailed report covering school finances, supervisory and teaching personnel, attendance, etc. The county superintendent, in turn, summarizes these reports and submits them to the State.

From the preceding discussion it can be seen that, although many of the duties assigned to the county superintendent in Illinois are clerical and routine in nature, he occupies a significant position in respect to the general oversight of the conduct of school affairs. He is the duly constituted agent of the State in all its relationships with school districts within the county. In addition to his direct administrative and supervisory control over the smaller common-school districts, he is able to exercise a considerable amount of influence over all administrative units. He may remove from office any school director for willful failure to perform his official duties. In all controversies arising under the school law which come to him directly or which may be appealed to him from the decision of the township board of school trustees, he renders an opinion. No matter pertaining to the public schools within the county may be submitted or appealed to the State superintendent until it has first been passed on by the county superintendent.

The school township.—The school township, which is also known as the Congressional Township, includes all school districts lying within its boundaries. The common-school district lines do not necessarily coincide with the school township lines but the school district is included in that school township in which the school building is situated. Each school township is governed by a board of three trustees. Although the school township cannot itself maintain schools, all school property within the township is deeded to the township board of trustees. The powers of the school township are strictly limited to financial matters and to control of boundary changes.

The school township is the fiduciary in the collection and distribution of the school funds of the districts under its control. The board of trustees elects a school treasurer who is the ex-officio treasurer of the board of each district within the school township. This treasurer receives, through the county superintendent, the State distributive funds for his township and the district funds raised by local school taxes, and places to the credit of each underlying basic unit the State and local funds belonging to it. District funds are then paid out by the school treasurer on order of the district school boards.

The school treasurer, who is bonded, must keep a detailed account of the receipts and expenditures of each district in the school township and

must submit his accounts to the county superintendent for auditing. Each year he must submit to the county superintendent a detailed report of the financial condition of each district under the jurisdiction of the school township.

The school township has control over the creation and consolidation of common-school districts within its boundaries and over the transfer of territory between such districts. The acts of the township board of trustees in respect to the change of boundaries are subject to the review and approval of the county superintendent in cases where the decisions of the board are appealed by the persons interested.

The dependent district.—There are no distinctions between the powers and duties of basic administrative units—common-school and high-school districts—except in regard to supervision of instruction. Common-school districts with less than 1,000 population have a board of directors of three to five members and may not employ a superintendent. Common-school districts with more than 1,000 population and all types of high-school districts have boards of education of seven or more members and may employ a superintendent.

Each school district must conform to State laws in respect to the enforcement of the compulsory attendance law and in respect to physical examination of pupils. It is free, however, to add to these services as, for example, by the employment of a visiting teacher in place of a truant officer or by the provision of medical and dental services. It need not have the approval of the county superintendent in order to provide such additional services.

Although any district is free to provide transportation for pupils within the district, it usually may be provided only when authorized by a vote of the electors of the district. When a common-school district sends its elementary pupils to another district (or to other districts) it may provide transportation and must pay tuition. Neither tuition nor transportation costs for high-school pupils may be paid by a common-school district not maintaining a high school, since those are the functions of the non-high-school district of which the common-school district is a part.

The school board of each district prepares its own budget, which must be submitted to the county superintendent for his approval. It sets its local tax levies and must file the tax rates with the county clerk who has no control over them except to see that they are within the limits prescribed by law. Each district may, however, vote to levy a tax rate higher than the legal, non-referendum limit. In practice, this is infrequently done.

The basic administrative units do not themselves handle school funds. They must draw an order on the township treasurer who actually expends

the money for the district. In general, however, the basic districts have complete control over the expenditure of funds raised by them and State funds distributed to them.

Summary of relationships.

(a) The county superintendent is the agent of the State in all respects. From this fact the county assumes its significance as an intermediate unit for the supervision and administration of school districts.

(b) The school township is intermediate between the county and the basic administrative units in respect to the apportionment and expenditure of school funds and in respect to boundary changes.

(c) School districts as basic administrative units are comparatively independent of county or township control in respect to levying of taxes, authorizing expenditures for school purposes, employment of teachers, provision of additional services, adoption of textbooks, formulation of courses of study, and purchase of supplies.

(d) Basic common-school districts have close relationships with the school township in respect to the receipt and expenditure of school funds, the keeping of financial records, and the modification of school district boundaries.

(e) In their administrative operation basic administrative units are closely related to the county in respect to supervision of instruction, general oversight of schools, the making of records and reports, changes in school district boundaries, and in the general application of the school code.

PROCEDURES FOR CHANGING BOUNDARIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The school laws of Illinois provide for the creation of new districts of all types, for the consolidation of districts, and for the transfer of territory from one district to another. All changes in school district boundaries must be authorized by petition or by vote of the electors in the territory affected. In some cases a majority petition or vote is sufficient; in other cases the approval of two-thirds of the electors is necessary. While in some situations this provision has tended to prevent the attempts to dissolve high-school districts, it has also tended to retard and impede the organization of larger and more effective local school units.

In some instances, a vote of the people is all that is necessary to authorize changes in school district boundaries. This is rather generally true in respect to the creation of consolidated and high-school districts and in

respect to the alteration of the boundaries of high-school districts. In other cases, a petition or vote of the electors may be necessary to authorize modification of school district boundaries, but such a vote or petition is not mandatory upon the school officers concerned, who may or may not make the changes at their discretion. This is true largely in respect to procedures for creating common-school districts or altering their boundaries. In most instances of this sort, the township board of trustees is the agency for determining whether or not the changes shall be made. If, following an election authorizing a certain change in the boundaries of a common-school district, the township board of trustees declines to make the change, its decision may be appealed to the county superintendent.

In cases concerning the annexing of territory to or the detachment of territory from a consolidated district, the decision is made directly by the county superintendent; that is, questions involved are not referred to the township board of trustees. In such cases the county superintendent is free to act or to decline to act at his own discretion. Decisions in respect to boundary changes made by the county superintendent may be appealed to the State superintendent.

FACTORS ENCOURAGING AND DISCOURAGING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

In general, there are relatively few factors which specifically encourage the reorganization of school districts in Illinois. Perhaps the greatest single force making for improvement in the situation is an increasing awareness of the deficiencies in the existing organization of administrative units. An effort is being made to arouse public sentiment in favor of changes in the school law which will permit the establishment of larger and fewer districts. However, any program for alteration of school district organization is very likely to encounter several very powerful forces which tend to impede changes and to preserve existing school units.

Local resistance to change is, perhaps, a greater obstacle in Illinois than in other States. The existence of many small administrative units tends to create just so many local vested interests. The personal interest of parents and of other citizens in the local school often is likely to be stronger than their interest in the administrative unit as a whole. In Illinois, in many cases, the school attendance area and the school district are identical. As a result local groups tend to oppose any enlargement of school districts for fear that they may lose their control over their school. This not only involves the question of the school as a center of community life and interest but also the vested interest of the governing boards of the local school districts. If the city of Chicago, which has a board of education of 11 members

TABLE 25.—Legal provisions for changing boundaries of local school administrative units in Illinois, 1936

Automatic changes	By township board of trustees ¹ on petition (or vote ⁴)		By county superintendent ¹ on petition of two-thirds of the electors	By vote		
	Of a majority of the electors in one or more districts	Of two-thirds of the electors in a territory		Of a majority of the electors	Of two-thirds of the electors	Of three-fourths of the electors (following a majority petition) ²
1. Detach common-school district from high-school district when former offers 4-year high-school course and is not surrounded by latter.	1. Divide district into two or more districts. 2. Consolidate two or more districts. 3. Transfer territory from one district to another. 4. Create district from territory in two or more districts.	1. Transfer territory from one district to another. 2. Create district by dividing a single district.	1. Annex common-school district to community consolidated district. 2. Detach former common-school district from community consolidated district. 3. Transfer territory between common-school district and community consolidated district or between community consolidated districts.	1. Form consolidated district (joint board resolution). ³ 2. Create community consolidated district (petition). ³ 3. Create community high-school district (petition). ³ 4. Create township high-school district from a school township (petition). ³ 5. Annex school township to township high-school district (petition in each district). ³ 6. Annex one or more high-school districts to adjoining high-school districts (joint board resolution). ³ 7. Relinquish charter rights (special charter city district).	1. Discontinue township or community high-school district (petition of 100 or more). ³	(Compel the county superintendent to detach common-school district from community consolidated district.)

¹ Petition (or vote⁴) not mandatory on officials concerned who act at own discretion in granting or rejecting the petition.

² An appeal from the board of trustees' decision may be taken to the county superintendent.

³ An appeal from the county superintendent's decision may be taken to the State superintendent of public instruction.

⁴ An election may be substituted for the petition on petition of 25 percent of the electors.

⁵ Statement in parenthesis indicates method of calling election.

and employs 8,625 teachers, is excluded, there were, in 1933, 45,235 non-salaried members of all types of school district governing boards. During the same year there were only 39,397 teaching positions controlled by these boards.

A more specific factor discouraging the enlargement of school districts is the present method of apportioning the State distributive and special aid funds. The distributive fund is apportioned on the basis of average daily attendance, and special aid is given if the assessed valuation of the school district is low. The procedures for apportioning these funds are rather complicated, but the principal feature, from the standpoint of perpetuating very small districts, is the fact that no district receives less than the apportionment for 18 pupils even though it has only 3 or 4 in average daily attendance. The way in which the distributive fund operates to prevent the enlargement of school districts may be illustrated by the following hypothetical example: If there are three districts, each of which has an assessed valuation of \$30,000 and each of which has six pupils in average daily attendance, each one of the three districts will receive 3.7 times as much State aid as the three together would receive if they united to form a consolidated district. The total amount received by the three districts while remaining separate will be 11.3 times as much as the total they would receive if consolidated. This example is not presented as a typical case for the State as a whole but for 1-teacher school districts with limited attendance. It should be noted that an elementary district cannot receive special aid unless it levies a school tax of 1 percent on each \$100 of equalized assessed valuation.

An illustration of how the distribution of school funds by the State retards consolidation of school districts in Illinois

State support	State aid received by each district	State aid received as three separate districts	State aid they would receive as consolidated districts
State support distributed on basis of attendance.....	\$198	\$594	\$198
Special State support.....	550	1,650
Total.....	748	2,244	198

The fact that 75.6 percent of the common-school districts have enrollments of from 1 to 20 pupils indicates the importance of any feature of the State aid system which tends to encourage the continuance of districts with 18 or fewer pupils in average daily attendance.

The organization of local school units in Illinois in 1937 leaves much to be desired. The absence of a carefully formulated plan of organization, together with necessary legislative provisions, has produced marked in-

qualities in the educational services offered in various sections of the State. Existing policies in the distribution of State funds tend to prevent desirable consolidation of small school districts. Because of the outstanding economic position enjoyed by the State, there seems to be no basic reason why Illinois cannot have a rich educational program offered by an efficient administrative organization.

Status and Operation of Local School Units in Kentucky

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Although Kentucky is a relatively small State in area, it is marked by extreme variations in respect to a number of factors affecting the organization of administrative units. The topography, for example, ranges from typical "hill country" in the mountainous eastern part of the State to the fertile, level farmlands of the Blue Grass region. There is great variation, also, in the density of population in the different parts of the State and in the wealth of school districts.

The white population is relatively homogeneous; less than 5 percent is foreign-born or of foreign or mixed parentage. The Negro population constitutes 8.6 percent of the total. Separate schools are maintained for Negro pupils, and the consequent duplication of buildings, personnel, and educational services naturally adds to the total cost of public education.

The urban population of Kentucky constitutes 30.6 percent and the farm population 45 percent of the total. The provision of adequate school facilities in rural areas constitutes, therefore, a large part of the problem of providing educational opportunity in Kentucky.

Approximately one-third (32.7 percent) of the population is between 5 and 19 years of age. There are 695 persons 5 to 20 years of age for each 1,000 persons 21 to 65 years of age as compared with the ratio of 574 to 1,000 in the United States.

Although the educational burden in Kentucky is not so great as in some other States, it is greater than the average for the country as a whole. Coupled with this relatively heavy educational burden is Kentucky's comparatively low economic ability to support schools. On several measures of financial ability it ranks among the five or six poor States. These measures are: Taxpaying ability per capita, as measured by application to the State of the second model tax plan of the National Tax Association, wealth per capita, income per capita, and retail sales per capita. Because of heavy educational burden and low economic ability, Kentucky is distinctly handicapped in its efforts to provide adequate educational opportunity for all children.

The percentage of illiteracy (1930) for the total population was 6.6 percent and for the Negro population 15.4 percent. According to the 1930 census the percentage of illiteracy among the native white population is the highest in any State except Louisiana and New Mexico.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The influence of Virginia.—The early attempts to establish a public-school system in the State of Kentucky were conditioned by the fact that Kentucky was originally a part of Virginia. The early settlers were Virginians, chiefly of British stock, and consequently the State had from its beginning the English tradition of private provision of education. The earliest schools in the State were private schools. When the State began to concern itself with education, its first effort was the establishment of a system of academies which were authorized to charge tuition, although they received large grants of State lands. This system was not satisfactory and within a few years after 1808, when the law was passed, most of the school lands had been sold without any tangible benefits.

The literary fund.—The second attempt by the State to aid education was the establishment of the literary fund in 1821. One-half of the clear profits from the State bank were to be devoted to this fund. The bank soon failed and the fund benefited very little from it, especially because of a law providing that all other expenses of the State must be met before any State funds could be used for education.

The district system appears.—In the years before and after the failure of the literary fund, the so-called "district system" developed in Kentucky. Schools were established at various points throughout the State by private enterprise or by local community endeavor and frequently were administered by local groups. The attendance areas for these schools were, in reality, administrative units, although they were not recognized as such by law. The first step toward coordinating the "districts" into a State school system was a law, passed in 1830, authorizing the county court to divide its county into three sections, each to elect a school commissioner to supervise local districts in his territory.

The period 1837-1908.—The beginning of the public-school system of today is found in a law of 1837, passed under the leadership of Governor James Clark. To a considerable extent, this law determined the course of the later development of school district organization. Some of the significant provisions are:

1. The county was recognized as a logical unit of administration but the trustees of the local districts were the real administrators.
2. Schools were to be supported by a combination of State and local funds.
3. The county was to be the unit for the certification of teachers.
4. Larger communities were exempted from county control or supervision.

The history of school administrative units in Kentucky from 1837 to 1908 is a story of a struggle between local school district autonomy and the State. By legislation enacted in 1908 each county was made a school district. The previously existing three-trustee local districts were made

one-trustee subdistricts. These subdistricts should not be confused with certain independent districts which the legislation exempted from county control. These independent districts, the development of which will be described later, included: (1) Local school districts created by special acts of the Legislature prior to the adoption of the State Constitution in 1891; (2) local graded school districts established by local elections under laws enacted immediately after 1891; and (3) city school districts embracing cities of the first four classes.

The acts of 1908.—The acts of 1908, in addition to reducing certain local districts to subdistricts of the county, divided the various counties into from four to eight educational divisions, each with a board composed of the subdistrict trustees. The chairmen of these educational division boards constituted the county board of education. Further legislation, beginning in 1920, has greatly strengthened the county as a school district. In 1920 educational divisions were discontinued, and all powers of their boards, including the appointment of teachers, were transferred to the county board of education. The same legislation provided that the county board of education, elected by popular vote, was to appoint the county superintendent of schools.

As a result of these changes, the subdistricts ceased to exist as school administrative units and became integral parts of their respective county school districts. At the present time, subdistricts exist solely at the discretion of county boards of education which have power to abolish them entirely or to alter their boundaries in any way.

The development of independent districts.—As previously indicated, there are certain local school districts which have never been brought under the control of the county board of education and which, even today, function as autonomous administrative units. The origin of these independent districts may be traced back to the period during and after the Civil War when the public-school system was completely disorganized by strife within the State and by the subsequent abolition of slavery which increased the educational burden of the State. During this period of chaos, it was impossible for the State government to assist materially in the support or administration of schools. As a result, some of the more populous communities developed their own school systems and acquired the privilege of being independent districts—free from even nominal county supervision. Provision was made that any community which could meet minimum requirements with respect to number of pupils could become an independent district. Many such districts were established, and in 1891 they were grouped into three classes:

- (a) Districts embracing cities of the first four classes.
- (b) Graded districts embracing cities of the fifth and sixth classes.
- (c) Graded districts embracing unincorporated places.

Most existing independent districts were formed during the latter part of the 19th century and the early part of the 20th century. A law, passed

in 1922 and re-enacted in 1934, prohibits the creation of new independent districts and requires a minimum of 250 white pupils in independent districts other than those embracing cities of the first five classes, with certain temporary exceptions for smaller districts. The same law recognizes only one type of independent district and eliminates previously existing distinctions except for certain variations in legal tax rate limits. (See page 108.) At the present time, the number of these districts is decreasing because many are being included in the county districts.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The two types of basic units.—As indicated in the section on Historical Development, there are two types of basic administrative units in Kentucky: The independent districts and the counties. There are no intermediate units in the State.

TABLE 26.—*Local school administrative units, school enrollment, and teaching positions in Kentucky distributed according to type of administrative unit, 1934-35*

Type of administrative unit	Units		Enrollment		Teaching positions	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
County.....	120	40.0	424,069	67.8	11,985	66.1
Independent.....	180	60.0	201,707	32.2	6,141	33.9
Total.....	300	100.0	625,776	100.0	18,126	100.0

¹ It is difficult to determine the exact number of independent units on any given date. This figure is for July 1, 1935. Figures for other dates during the same year may vary. Mergers are taking place at frequent intervals but often official notification is not given to the State department of education for several months. The number of independent units for May 15, 1937, was 159.

The county.—The territory of each county, exclusive of that in independent districts, constitutes a single basic unit for the maintenance and administration of schools. A number of counties are divided into subdistricts, each of which has a trustee and usually constitutes an attendance area.

The trustee of a subdistrict not maintaining a high school has the right to nominate elementary teachers who are appointed by the county board of education. In all other respects the subdistricts are directly under the control of the county school officers. Subdistricts do not constitute administrative units since, to all intents and purposes, they are integral parts of the county unit. Even counties which are divided into subdistricts constitute basic and not intermediate units. Subdistricts are being consolidated or eliminated at a rapid rate; in 42 counties all have been abolished.

The independent district.—The independent district, usually embracing a city or other population center, is a separate administrative unit and not subject to county control. The school law makes no distinction

between independent districts in respect to their duties and powers, but such districts may take one of three forms:

- (a) Any city of the first five classes, together with territory which may have been added to it for school purposes.
- (b) Districts not embracing a city of the first five classes but having a school census enumeration of 250 or more white children.
- (c) Certain "independent-graded common school districts", existing at the time of the passage of the act of 1934 (see section on Historical Development) which had a census enumeration below 250 white children, were permitted to continue for a 4-year period as temporary independent districts, if they were approved by the State board of education. They may be continued for additional 4-year periods on approval of the State board.

All independent districts must provide approved 12-grade school services. Under the terms of the existing law, the State board of education can merge with the county unit any independent district whose school program it does not approve. This power of the State board has never been tested in court.

The school law prohibits the creation of independent districts and the general tendency is to dissolve those in existence. A large number of them are merging, by voluntary action, with the counties in which they are located.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

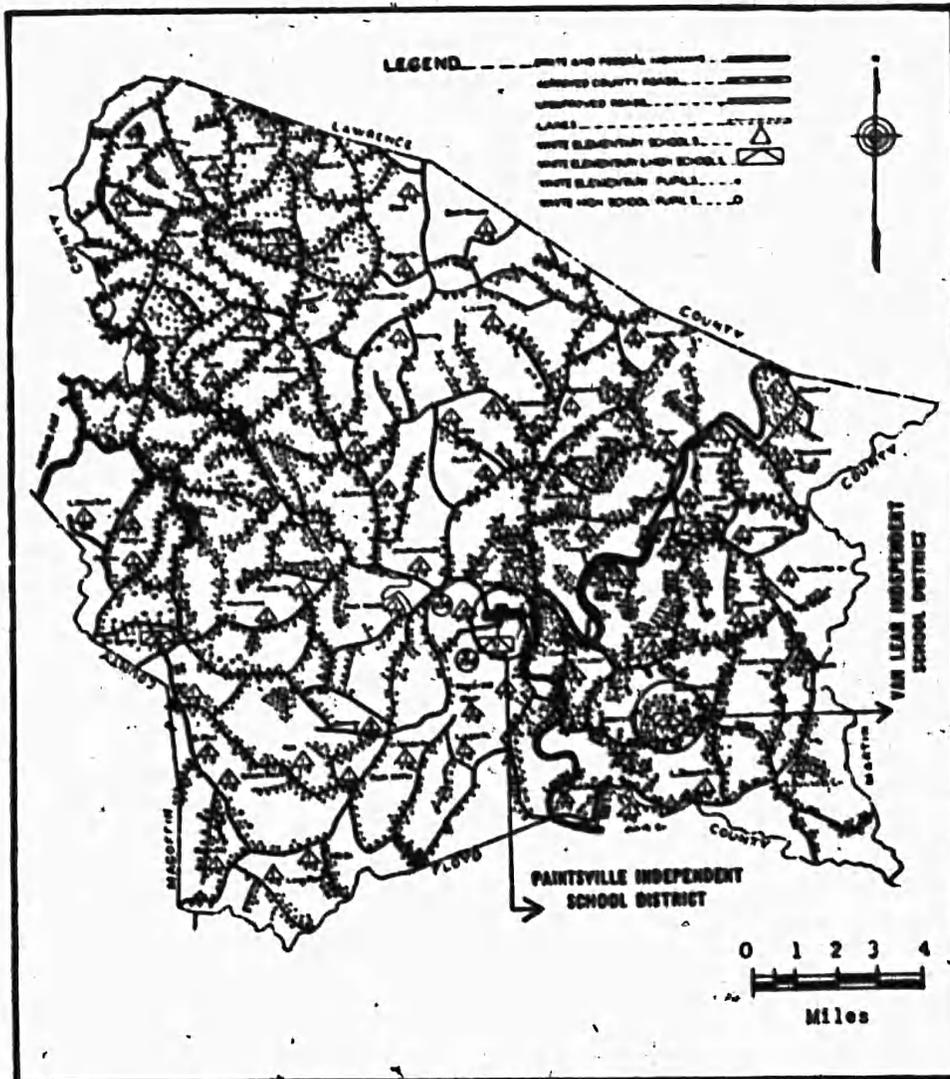
Areas of school units.—On May 15, 1937, there were 120 county units and 159 independent units in the State. In 1934-35 the total enrollment in all units was 625,776 and the total number of teachers, 18,126.

The county and the independent districts constitute two very distinct groups in respect to area (see table 27). No county in the State is less than 100 square miles in area. About 32 percent have between 100 and 250 square miles and 60 percent from 250 to 500 square miles. Independent districts are much smaller. None has an area of more than 50 square miles and only 1.1 percent have more than 26 square miles. There are, however, relatively few extremely small districts. About 17 percent of these independent districts are from 3 to 5 square miles in area; 55.6 percent, from 6 to 10 square miles; and 26.7 percent, from 11 to 25 square miles.

School enrollment and number of teachers.—As a natural concomitant of the large area of county school districts (in a fairly populous State) and of the requirement that independent districts must have at least 250 white pupils, most administrative units in the State have large enrollments and employ a proportionate number of teachers. There is no administrative unit in the State enrolling fewer than 50 pupils and only about 9 percent of these districts have 200 or fewer pupils. Approximately 53 percent have more than 1,000 pupils and 22 percent more than 3,000. About 2 percent of these

districts have from 2 to 5 teachers; 38 percent, from 6 to 20; slightly more than 42 percent, more than 50; and about 18 percent, more than 100:

Administrative units and attendance areas.—It is natural to expect that in such large administrative units there will be relatively few cases where an attendance area and an administrative unit are coterminous. Five percent of the



MAP V.—Johnson County, Kentucky.

Johnson County is representative of counties in Kentucky in which there are independent school districts in addition to the county school district. The boundaries of the three districts are shown. This type of map is prepared to show residence of pupils and accessibility of schools.

counties maintain for white pupils two or more elementary schools but no high school; approximately 16 percent, two or more elementary schools and one high school; and 79 percent, two or more elementary schools and two or more high schools.

TABLE 27.—Local school administrative units in Kentucky distributed on the basis of area, 1934-35

Square miles per unit	County units		Independent units		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
i	2	3	4	5	6	7
Less than 1						
1-3			5	2.8	5	1.7
4			17	9.4	17	5.7
5			6	4.4	6	2.0
6-10			100	55.6	100	33.3
11-25			48	26.7	48	16.0
26-50			2	1.1	2	.7
51-100						
101-250	38	31.7			38	12.7
251-500	72	60.0			72	24.0
501-700	9	7.5			9	3.0
751-1,000	1	.8			1	.3
More than 1,000						
Total	120	100.0	180	100.0	300	100.0

TABLE 28.—Local school administrative units in Kentucky distributed on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled, Jan. 1, 1936

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
i	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-50						
51-100	1	9.1			1	0.3
101-150			10	3.5	10	3.3
151-200	1	9.1	15	5.2	16	5.3
201-250	1	9.1	17	5.9	18	6.0
251-300			14	4.8	14	4.7
301-400	2	18.2	22	7.6	24	8.0
401-500			20	6.9	20	6.7
501-1,000			38	13.1	38	12.7
1,001-1,500	1	9.1	26	9.0	27	9.0
1,501-2,000	1	9.1	23	8.0	24	8.0
2,001-3,000	2	18.2	41	14.2	43	14.3
3,001-4,000	2	18.2	23	8.0	25	8.3
4,001-5,000			18	6.2	18	6.0
More than 5,000			22	7.6	22	7.3
Total	11	100.0	289	100.0	300	100.0

¹ In Kentucky there are no units maintaining high schools only. There are 300 administrative units in Kentucky. Of these 300 units, 176 have Negro schools. There is no administrative unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school.

TABLE 29.—Local school administrative units in Kentucky distributed on the basis of the number of teachers per unit,¹ July 1, 1936

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.....						
2-5.....	2	20	1	0.4	3	1.1
6-10.....	2	20	50	18.4	52	18.3
11-20.....			56	20.5	56	19.8
21-30.....			21	7.7	21	7.4
31-40.....	1	10	13	4.8	14	5.0
41-50.....			16	5.9	16	5.7
51-60.....	1	10	18	6.6	19	6.7
61-70.....	1	10	10	3.7	11	3.9
71-80.....	1	10	15	5.5	16	5.7
81-90.....	1	10	9	3.3	10	3.5
91-100.....	1	10	12	4.4	13	4.6
101-150.....			29	10.7	29	10.3
151-200.....			12	4.4	12	4.3
201-250.....			5	1.8	5	1.8
251-300.....			3	1.1	3	1.1
301-350.....						
351-400.....			1	.4	1	.4
401-500.....						
More than 500.....			1	.4	1	.4
Total.....	10	100	272	100.0	282	100.0

¹ In Kentucky there are no units maintaining high schools only.

TABLE 30.—Local school administrative units in Kentucky distributed on the basis of number of white attendance areas per unit,¹ 1934-35

White attendance areas per unit	County units		Independent units		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
	2	3	4	5	6	7
No school.....			1	0.6	1	0.3
One elementary school.....			8	4.4	8	2.7
Two or more elementary schools.....	6	5.0			6	2.0
One elementary school and one high school with co-terminous attendance areas.....			142	78.9	142	47.3
Two or more elementary schools and one high school.....	19	15.8	20	11.1	39	13.0
Two or more elementary schools and two or more high schools.....	95	79.2	9	5.0	104	34.7
Total.....	120	100.0	180	100.0	300	100.0

¹ There are 300 administrative units in Kentucky. Of these 300 units, 176 have Negro schools. There is no administrative unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school. There are no administrative units in Kentucky with high schools only.

TABLE 31.—Local school administrative units in Kentucky distributed on the basis of number of Negro attendance areas per unit,¹ 1934-35

Negro attendance areas per unit	County units		Independent units		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One elementary school.....	19	19.2	21	27.3	40	22.7
Two or more elementary schools.....	64	64.6	2	2.6	66	37.5
One elementary school and one high school with co-terminous attendance areas.....	7	7.1	49	63.6	56	31.8
Two or more elementary schools and one high school.....	9	9.1	2	2.6	11	6.3
Two or more elementary schools and two or more high schools.....			3	3.9	3	1.7
Total.....	99	100.0	77	100.0	176	100.0

¹ There are 300 administrative units in Kentucky. Of these 300 units, 176 have Negro schools. There is no administrative unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school. There are no administrative units in Kentucky with high schools only.

Approximately 80 percent of the independent units maintain for white pupils only one elementary school and one high school; about 11 percent, two or more elementary schools and one high school; and 5 percent, two or more elementary and two or more high schools. Of the remaining 5 percent, representing 9 units, 4.4 percent (8 units) maintain only one elementary school (no high school) for white pupils. (One unit maintains no school.)

Ninety-nine of the 120 counties and 77 of the 180 independent districts maintain schools for Negro pupils. Eighty-three of these 99 county units and 23 of these 77 independent units maintain elementary schools only. Each of the remaining 16 county units and 51 of the remaining 54 independent units maintain only one high school. Three of the independent units each maintain two or more high schools.

Contrasted with administrative units, attendance areas are comparatively small in size. Almost three-fourths (73.9 percent) of the schools in county school districts are 1-teacher schools (see table 32). Only 7.6 percent have four or more teachers. Table 33 compares the number of schools by size in county and independent districts for 1930 and 1935.

Although it shows that during this 5-year period there was some decrease in the number of small schools and some increase in the number of larger schools, it also shows that one of the principal problems in Kentucky is the organization of attendance areas of adequate size. Most of the administrative units are of sufficient size to permit the enlargement of attendance areas without changing the boundaries of administrative units. There are instances where an attendance area should include territory of two or more administrative units, as now organized.

TABLE 32.—Schools, enrollment, and teachers in Kentucky distributed on the basis of number of teachers per school,¹ 1935-36

Teachers per school	Schools		Enrollment		Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.....	5,249	74.0	194,226	45.2	5,161	43.9
2.....	1,086	15.3	81,172	18.9	2,178	18.5
3.....	220	3.1	21,964	5.1	596	5.0
4 or more.....	539	7.6	132,389	30.8	3,836	32.6
Total.....	7,094	100.0	429,751	100.0	11,771	100.0

¹ This information is for county school districts only and does not include the schools, pupils, and teachers for independent districts.

TABLE 33.—Distribution of schools in Kentucky according to number of teachers,¹ 1930 and 1935

Teachers per school	1930		1935	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5
1.....	5,741	75.8	5,367	70.7
2.....	875	11.6	995	13.1
3.....	227	3.0	192	2.6
4.....	211	2.8	180	2.4
5 or more.....	514	6.8	858	11.2
Total.....	7,568	100.0	7,592	100.0

¹ This table gives data for schools in both county school districts and in independent districts.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The State.—Although considerable power has been delegated to local administrative units, the State maintains a fairly close supervision over the functions of the local school districts. The State does not directly maintain any schools but it has reserved for the State department of education large discretionary powers in the matter of approval of school buildings, approval of budgets and salary schedules, approval of elementary and secondary schools, and approval of the creation of independent districts having fewer than 250 white census children. Prescribed basic textbooks, selected by the State Textbook Commission appointed by the State board of education, must be used by all districts not having a 9-month term. Other districts must select texts from a multiple list approved by the commission. The State issues all teachers' certificates.

The county.—In each county there is a county board of education consisting of five members elected at large for a term of 4 years. This board appoints a county superintendent of schools for a term of from 1 to 4 years. He must hold a Certificate of Administration and Supervision which requires college graduation and 2 years' teaching experience. There may

also be assistant county superintendents who are nominated by the county superintendent and appointed by the county board of education.

The county board of education is charged with the general control and management of all educational functions in the county school district. It is authorized to establish schools and provide services it deems necessary. The county superintendent, as the executive agent and the professional adviser of the board, is responsible for general supervision of schools in the county school district. He enforces the school laws, the rules and regulations of the State board of education, and the regulations of the county board of education.

Powers in respect to teachers.—In counties which are divided into subdistricts, the county superintendent nominates all teachers in subdistricts in which a high school is located; in counties where there are no subdistricts, he nominates all teachers. Teachers, nominated by the county superintendent, must be appointed by the county board of education unless the board can show that the nominees are not qualified.

In subdistricts where there are no high schools, the respective subdistrict trustee nominates the elementary teachers. The final authority for appointing the teachers, however, belongs to the county board of education, so that in all county districts the board controls the selection of the teaching personnel.

Powers in respect to instruction.—The county superintendent supervises all teachers in his county unit. Subject to State regulations, the program of studies and textbooks are recommended by the county superintendent and approved by the county board.

Powers in respect to finances.—The county superintendent prepares the budget for the schools in the county district for the approval of the county board. In preparing the budget, he includes in his estimates the amount to be received from the State, the amount to be raised by county tax, and the required tax levy. School taxes are actually levied by the fiscal court, but it is mandatory for the court to levy the taxes requested by the county board, provided that the tax rate which must be set in order to produce the budgeted income is within legal limits—not less than 25 cents nor more than 75 cents for each \$100-worth of property subject to local taxes. School funds for each county district are deposited and disbursed by the treasurer of the county board. The budget of the county district must be approved by the State department of education.

The provision of additional services.—As previously indicated, the county board of education is authorized to provide any school services which it deems necessary and advisable. It is required to provide transportation for elementary pupils not living within reasonable distance of the elementary school, and it may also provide transportation for high-school pupils.

Buildings, equipment, and supplies.—The county board of education has full authority in the location and construction of school buildings except that the plans for such buildings must be approved by the State department of education. Equipment and supplies are purchased by the county board on recommendation of the county superintendent.

Records and reports.—All financial and other records are kept by the secretary of the county board of education. Frequently, the county superintendent acts as secretary. The county superintendent prepares all reports required by the State board of education.

The independent district.—The board of education of the independent district consists of five members elected at large for a term of 4 years. The superintendent is appointed by the board for a term of from 1 to 4 years and must hold a certificate of the same grade as that held by the county superintendent.

In practically all respects the board of education and the superintendent perform the same functions for the independent district that the county board of education and the county superintendent perform for the county district. The principal difference is in the matter of school taxes. There is some variation in the legal limitations, all tax rates among the independent districts depending upon the communities included in the independent districts. The maximum tax levy for each \$100 of assessable wealth in independent school districts embracing only unincorporated places and in independent districts embracing only incorporated places and independent districts embracing cities of the second, fifth, or sixth classes, is \$1.25 plus a sinking fund levy; and in independent districts, embracing cities of the third and fourth classes, \$1.50 plus a sinking fund levy. In independent districts, embracing cities of the first class, the minimum rate is 36 cents and the maximum \$1.

Some independent districts differ from the county districts in respect to the agency levying school taxes: In independent districts coterminous with cities of the first, second, third, and fourth classes, the taxes are levied and collected by the municipal government. However, in all other independent districts, school taxes are levied by the fiscal court in the same way that county school taxes are levied.

In independent districts, embracing cities of the first and second classes, the board of education may appoint a business manager who is directly responsible to the board. In such instances, certain duties usually performed by the superintendent are assigned to the business manager. These duties include the purchase of all supplies and equipment, overseeing the construction of school buildings, and the appointment of engineers, janitors, and other custodial employees.

With the exceptions noted above, the powers and duties of independent districts are indetical with those of county districts and the statements made under *The County* may be considered as applying to the independent district as well.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF AGENTS AND AGENCIES OF SONNEL, CURRICULUM, FINANCE.

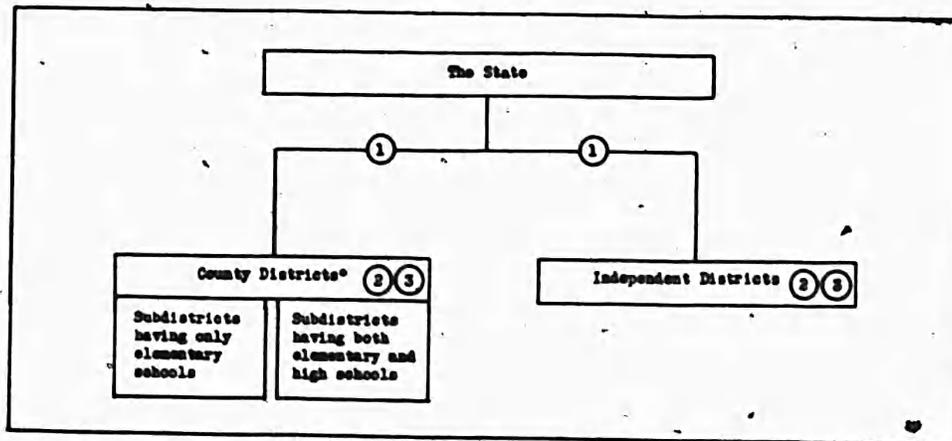


CHART XVII.—Kentucky: Personnel.

1. Teachers' certificates are issued by the State board of education. All certificates must be registered with the county.
2. Subdistricts maintaining only elementary schools nominate their own teachers. In all other schools in the county the county superintendent nominates the teachers. Teachers are appointed by the county board of education. Independent districts nominate and appoint their own teachers.
3. In the county districts the county superintendent supervises all teachers, while in the independent districts the district superintendent supervises all teachers.

* Some counties are divided into subdistricts. These subdistricts are attendance areas rather than administrative units since they are integral parts of the county units.

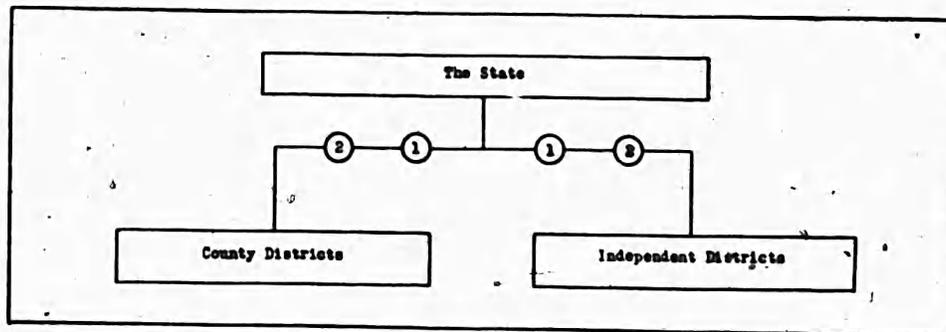


CHART XVIII.—Kentucky: Course of study and textbooks.

1. Subject to State regulations the programs of studies are recommended by the county superintendents or independent district superintendents and approved by the county or district boards of education.
2. State-prescribed textbooks must be used in all districts not having a 9-month school term. Other districts may choose from a list approved by the State.

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN KENTUCKY CONCERNING PER- AND RECORDS AND REPORTS, 1936

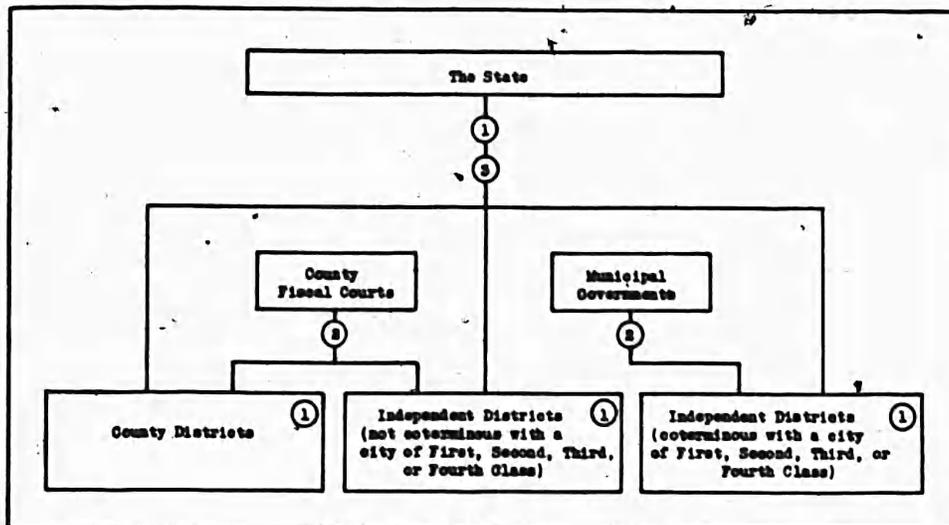


CHART XIX.—Kentucky: Financial.

1. Budgets for the county district are prepared and executed by the county superintendent with the approval of the county boards of education. Budgets for all independent districts are prepared, approved, and executed by the local boards of education. All district budgets must also be approved by the State.
2. For county districts and independent districts not coterminous with cities of the first four classes, the county fiscal courts levy the taxes required in the approved district budgets, provided that the necessary tax rates are within legal limits. In independent districts coterminous with cities of the first four classes, taxes are levied and collected by the municipal governments.
3. State allotments are integral parts of the district budgets. State funds are paid to the treasurers of the county and independent boards of education.

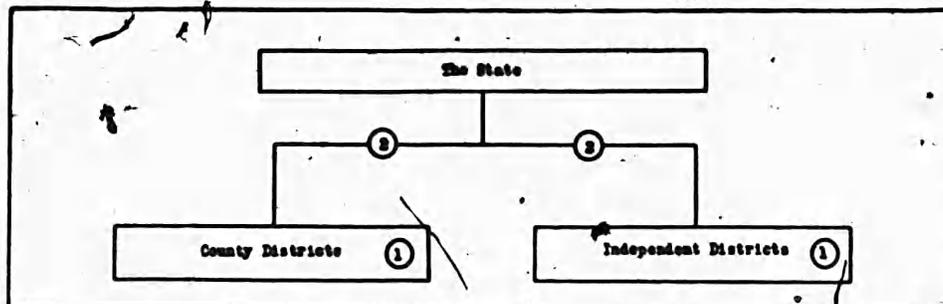


CHART XX.—Kentucky: Records and reports.

1. All financial and other records are kept by the secretary of the county or independent district board.
2. The county or district superintendent sends all necessary reports to the State.

PROCEDURE FOR CHANGING BOUNDARIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The legal provisions of the school code regulating the change of school district boundaries provide no methods whereby the external boundary of a county district can be modified by the annexation of small sections of territory lying outside the county. Independent districts may change their boundaries but only as a concomitant to changing the municipal limits of the city with which the independent district is coterminous.

TABLE 34.—*Legal provisions for changing boundaries of local school administrative units in Kentucky, 1936*

By county board of education (board action final unless bonded indebtedness in- volved when vote of two- thirds of voters of territory assuming indebtedness is necessary)	By concurrent action of boards of education		By vote (of two-thirds of the electors)
	Of two or more dis- tricts of any kind	Of two county dis- tricts	
1	2	3	4
1. Change boundaries of sub- districts. 2. Annex subdistrict or parts of subdistricts. 3. Create or abolish subdis- tricts.	1. Merge districts to form new district.	1. Form subdistrict lying in more than one county.	1. Change boundaries of city (and, consequently, of independent district).

The fact that there is little opportunity for making the local boundary modifications indicated in the preceding paragraph is apt to obscure the real flexibility of provisions for reorganizing local school units in Kentucky. The fact that two or more districts of any kind may merge to form a new district by concurrent action of the respective boards of education provides an excellent avenue for modifying school district organization in the State. By means of it many independent districts have merged with the county in which they are located in order to form a single county unit. At the present time about 30 of the counties contain no independent districts. Another advantage of this provision is the possibility of providing the opportunity for establishing, where necessary, administrative units larger than counties. By concurrent action of two county boards of education two counties may be united to form a single school administrative unit.

In the section on Number and Size of Local School Units it was pointed out that the immediate problem in the State is one of establishing larger attendance areas rather than of increasing the size of administrative units. In this connection the procedures for modifying the boundaries of subdistricts within a county are important. By mere action of the county board of education, subdistricts may be enlarged or all subdistricts within a county may be abolished. Theoretically, there is an obstacle to the

elimination of subdistricts in that the law provides that where a subdistrict has incurred bonded indebtedness it may not be annexed to other territory without a two-thirds vote of the electors of the territory assuming the bonded indebtedness. The same obstacle also exists in merging independent districts with the county. In practice, however, this is overcome by the territory, originally incurring such indebtedness, continuing to bear the expense of its liquidation. The law requires a district with bonded indebtedness to continue a levy for sinking fund purposes, even after its merger with another district.

FACTORS ENCOURAGING AND DISCOURAGING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

There are practically no factors which definitely discourage the enlargement of administrative units, although the absence of legal procedures whereby a county may annex a portion of an adjoining county sometimes constitutes an obstacle.

TABLE 35.—Number and type of administrative units in Kentucky at specified intervals, from 1920 to 1936

Year	Number of independent units	Number of county units	Total number of units	Decrease	
				Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6
1920	347	120	467		
1925	313	120	433	34	7.3
1930	268	120	388	45	10.4
1935	¹ 191	120	311	77	19.8
1936	¹ 161	120	281	30	9.6

¹ It is difficult to determine the exact number of independent units on any given date. The figure for July 1, 1935, was 180. Figures for other dates during the same year may vary. Mergers are taking place at frequent intervals, but often official notification is not given to the State department of education for several months. The number of independent units for May 15, 1937, was 159.

There has been a determined effort throughout the State to improve the organization of local units for the administration of schools. In 30 counties the independent districts have united with the county district. In 40 counties all subdistricts have been abolished. Table 35 indicates the rapidity with which changes are taking place within the State. It seems not unlikely that within a few years the number of independent districts will be still further reduced and the number of counties in which subdistricts have been abolished, or at least materially reduced in number, will be increased.

Status and Operation of Local School Units in North Carolina

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

There are a number of factors, affecting the support and administration of public education in North Carolina, which indicate a heavy educational burden.

Approximately 40 percent of the total population is between 5 and 19 years of age. The ratio of school-age children to adults is one of the highest in the country. In North Carolina there are 861 persons from 5 to 20 years of age for each 1,000 persons from 21 to 65 years of age. This is exceeded by only one State, South Carolina. In the United States as a whole the ratio is 574 to 1,000.

Approximately 50 percent of the total population live on farms and 25 percent in small villages. The educational problems found in the State are, therefore, those usually associated with the provisions of adequate educational facilities in rural territory.

The Negro population is 29 percent of the total. Separate schools are maintained for colored pupils. In most cases, if the same standards for buildings, personnel, and services were maintained for both white and colored there would be a consequent increase in school costs.

The State lacks the financial resources necessary to carry its heavy educational burden. It ranks relatively low on such measures of economic ability as taxpaying ability per capita, wealth per capita, income per capita, and retail sales per capita.

Although the State devotes a large percentage of State funds to education, it still ranks low on measures of educational opportunity provided. The State has a relatively high percentage of illiteracy—10 percent for the total population and 20.6 percent for the Negro population. It is educating a lower proportion of pupils of school age than the country as a whole.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The district system is established.—The district system was instituted in North Carolina in 1839 when the Legislature passed a bill providing that the State should be divided into districts containing not more than 6 square miles. The bill further provided that any district building a schoolhouse suitable for 50 pupils and voting \$20 for running the school was entitled to receive \$40 annually from the Literary Fund.

The Literary or Common-School Fund was established with Treasury surpluses apportioned to the several States in 1825 by the Federal Government. It was hoped that this fund would bear a considerable part of the

expense of running the schools. It was, however, practically wiped out as a result of the Civil War. After that time the money formerly paid from the fund to local school districts was to some extent replaced by the receipts from county-wide taxes, which were apportioned to the local districts. After 1899 a State equalizing fund was established to help bear the costs of education in the poorer counties. During the period after the Civil War, local districts were given authority to vote special taxes to improve school buildings, lengthen the school term, or in other ways to supplement the educational program made possible by the county-wide tax. The county remained, however, the principal unit of school taxation and as such became more and more important as a unit for the administration of public schools.

The county is made the basic unit.—In 1923 a county-wide plan of organization was adopted by the Legislature. The county was made the basic unit for the administration of all schools within the county, except those in certain districts which, although dependent upon the county for school taxes, were otherwise exempt from county control.

Each county board of education was authorized to make such changes as it deemed wise in the "districts" within the county. Although these "districts" were modifications of the original districts established by the law of 1839, they were no longer separate administrative units but rather subunits constituting the county unit. This local "district," however, had the right to vote additional taxes to supplement the county-wide levy.

The State assumes obligation for current expenses.—In 1931 the Legislature voted to bear the entire current expenses of public schools for a minimum 6-months' term. This, in effect, repealed the general county-wide tax for school support. Provision was made, however, that each county or city administrative unit might vote supplemental taxes to extend the term beyond 6 months.

Largely because of the financial stringency accompanying the depression this combination of State and local support did not prove very efficient. Therefore, in 1933 the State assumed the responsibility for the current expenses of an 8-months' term, but provided that county and city administrative units might vote to supplement the State funds for current costs. The county was retained as the taxing unit for financing programs of capital outlay and debt service.

At the same time that these changes were being made in the method of financing the public-school system, changes similar to those made under the county-wide plan in 1923 were made in the organization of school administrative units. Under the law of 1933 a State school commission had been established to administer the State funds for public education. This commission and each county board of education were required to redistrict the 100 counties in the State. As before, city administrative units independent of county control were authorized but were required to have a scholastic population of 1,000 or more for the preceding year. Other "districts" in the county were merely the subunits, previously mentioned.

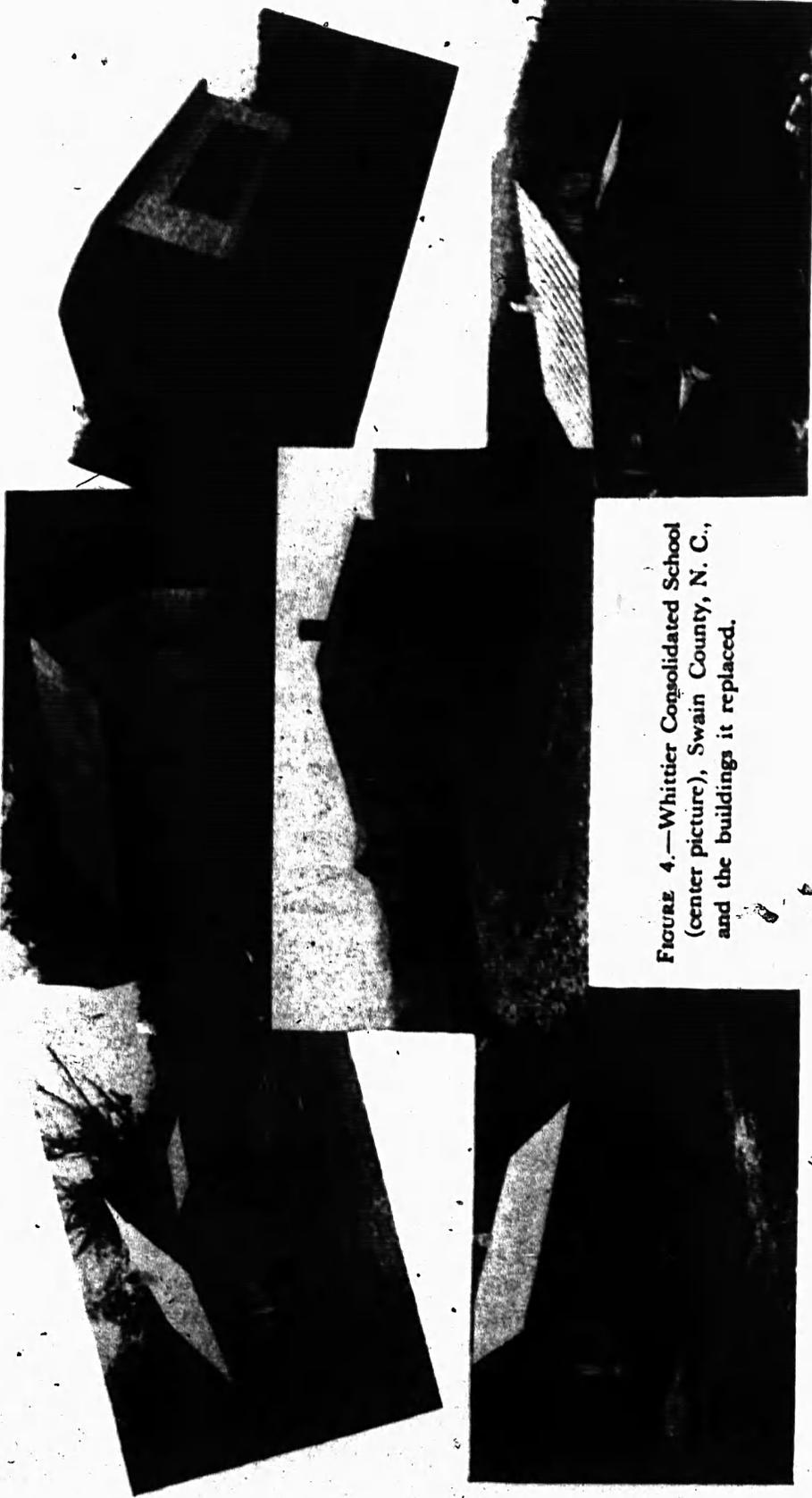


FIGURE 4.—Whittier Consolidated School (center picture), Swain County, N. C., and the buildings it replaced.

In 1935 the school law of 1933 was re-enacted and extended to June 30, 1937. The district organization resulting from the laws of 1933 and 1935 will be more fully described in the following sections.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The two types of administrative units.—At the present time there are only two types of school administrative units, the county and the city units. Both types are basic units. Although there are "districts" within the county, such units are entirely under county control and are not sufficiently autonomous to make the county an intermediate unit.

The county administrative unit.—The county is the basic administrative unit for all territory within its boundaries except that included within city administrative units.

TABLE 36.—Local school administrative units, school enrollment, and teaching positions in North Carolina, distributed according to type of administrative unit, 1934-35

Type of administrative unit	Units		Enrollment					
			White		Negro		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
County.....	100	60.0	459,233	74.5	200,756	72.7	659,989	73.9
City.....	67	40.0	157,081	25.5	75,578	27.3	232,659	26.1
Total.....	167	100.0	616,314	100.0	276,334	100.0	892,648	100.0

Type of administrative unit	Teaching positions					
	White		Negro		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	10	11	12	13	14	15
County.....	12,848	75.4	4,859	72.8	17,707	74.7
City.....	4,190	24.6	1,815	27.2	6,005	25.3
Total.....	17,038	100.0	6,674	100.0	23,712	100.0

"Districts" within the county.—The State school commission, with the advice of the respective county boards of education, has the authority to divide counties into convenient "districts." Those "districts" with a scholastic population of fewer than 1,000 pupils constitute the county administrative unit. Each "district" has a committee appointed by the county board of education. These "district" committees have certain powers, but all their acts are subject to the approval of the county board of education.

The city administrative unit.—City administrative units are "districts" with a scholastic population of 1,000 or more which maintained schools during the school year 1934-35 and which have been approved by the State school commission. They have the same status and powers as county administrative units.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Size of local school units.—There are 100 county and 67 city administrative units with a total of 892,648 pupils and 23,712 teachers. The mean area of these units is 292 square miles. Due to the fact that the counties are basic units and that city units must have a scholastic population of at least 1,000, most administrative units in North Carolina have large enrollments and employ a large number of teachers per unit. Fifty-five percent of the county units have total enrollments ranging from 2,000 to 7,000 pupils, and 37 percent have more than 7,000 pupils. The city units, although somewhat smaller than county units, are still fairly large. Approximately 61 percent have enrollments between 1,000 and 3,000; and 7.5 percent enrollments of more than 8,000. (See tables 37, 38, and 39.)

TABLE 37.—Local school administrative units in North Carolina distributed on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled¹ 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary and high schools					
	County		City		Total	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-500.....						
501-1,000.....			3	4.4	3	1.8
1,001-1,500.....	4	4	12	17.9	16	9.6
1,501-2,000.....	4	4	14	20.9	18	10.8
2,001-3,000.....	7	7	15	22.4	22	13.1
3,001-4,000.....	10	10	9	13.4	19	11.1
4,001-5,000.....	13	13	7	10.5	20	12.0
5,001-6,000.....	13	13	2	3.0	15	9.0
6,001-7,000.....	12	12			12	7.2
7,001-8,000.....	7	7			7	4.2
8,001-9,000.....	8	8	1	1.5	9	5.4
9,001-10,000.....	4	4	2	3.0	6	3.6
More than 10,000.....	4	4	2	3.0	6	3.6
Total.....	18	18	2	3.0	20	12.0
Total.....	100	100	67	100.0	167	100.0

¹ In North Carolina there are no units maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only. Of the 167 administrative units in North Carolina, 164 have Negro schools. There is no unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school.

TABLE 38.—Local school administrative units in North Carolina distributed on the basis of the number of white pupils enrolled ¹ 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary and high schools					
	County		City		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-100						
101-500			1	1.5	1	0.6
501-1,000	2	2	15	22.4	17	10.2
1,001-1,500	5	5	14	20.9	19	11.4
1,501-2,000	14	11	8	11.9	19	11.4
2,001-3,000	15	15	16	23.9	31	18.5
3,001-4,000	20	20	4	6.0	24	14.4
4,001-5,000	11	11	1	1.5	12	7.2
More than 5,000	16	16	7	10.4	43	25.7
Total	100	100	67	100.0	167	100.0

¹ In North Carolina there are no units maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only. Of the 167 administrative units in North Carolina, 164 have Negro schools. There is no unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school.

TABLE 39.—Local school administrative units in North Carolina distributed on the basis of the number of Negro pupils enrolled ¹ 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary and high schools					
	County		City		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-100	8	8.2	3	4.5	11	6.7
101-200	7	7.2	3	4.5	10	6.1
201-300	5	5.2	5	7.5	10	6.1
301-400	1	1.0	7	10.4	8	4.9
401-500	3	3.1	3	4.5	6	3.7
501-1,000	12	12.4	19	28.3	31	18.9
1,001-1,500	6	6.2	12	17.9	18	11.0
1,501-2,000	13	13.4	4	6.0	17	10.4
2,001-3,000	17	17.5	6	8.9	23	14.0
3,001-4,000	12	12.4	2	3.0	14	8.5
4,001-5,000	4	4.1	1	1.5	5	3.0
5,001-6,000	5	5.2	1	1.5	6	3.7
6,001-7,000	4	4.1	1	1.5	5	3.0
Total	97	100.0	67	100.0	164	100.0

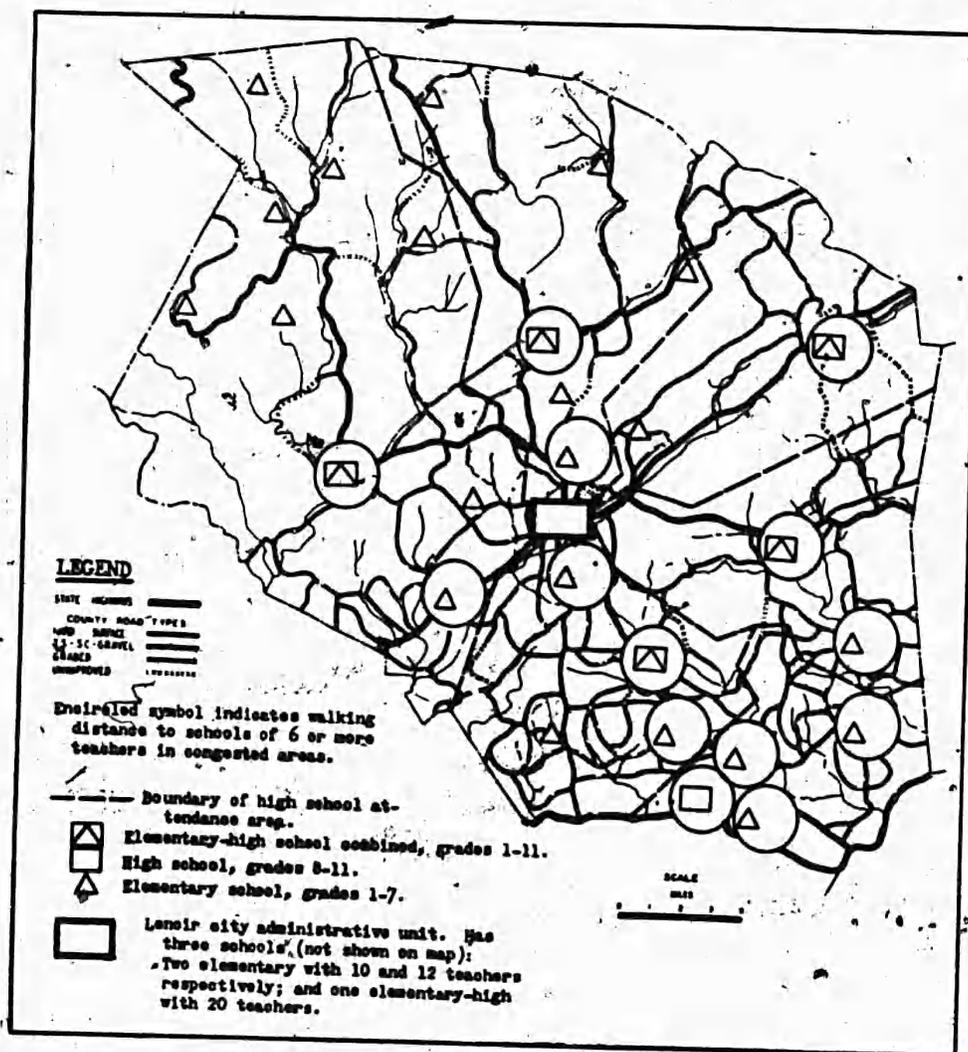
¹ In North Carolina there are no units maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only. Of the 167 administrative units in North Carolina, 164 have Negro schools. There is no unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school.

On the basis of the white pupils alone, 82 percent of the county units have enrollments exceeding 2,000, and 47 percent, exceeding 4,000; 22 percent of the city units, from 500 to 1,000 and 55.2 percent, from 500 to 2,000. Forty-nine percent of the county units employ, from 100 to 250 white teachers. About 56 percent of the city units have 50 or fewer and 88 percent, 100 or fewer white teachers.

On the basis of Negro pupils, 43 percent of the county units and 16 percent of the city units have enrollments exceeding 2,000, while 32 percent of the county units and 52 percent of the city units have enrollments of

from 500 to 2,000. Seventy-two percent of the county units and 48 percent of the city units have more than 20 Negro teachers.

Administrative units and attendance areas.—Most of the administrative units contain a number of attendance areas. Although 95 of the 100 counties maintain for white pupils two or more elementary schools and two or more high schools, and 43 of the 67 city units, two or more elementary schools



MAP VI.—Caldwell County, North Carolina

Caldwell County is composed of 1 county administrative unit and 1 city administrative unit. The map shows availability of schools for white pupils. The symbols not encircled are 1- and 2-teacher schools. (In addition to the ten 1-teacher schools shown, 13 of the 16 schools for Negro pupils in the county are 1-teacher.)

and one high school (see tables 43 and 44) many of the schools in county and city units are small. Approximately 28 percent of the schools in the State have only 1 teacher; 21 percent, 2 teachers; and only 11 percent, 10 or more teachers. The schools having 10 or more teachers enroll 38 percent of the pupils in the State and employ 36 percent of the teachers. (See table 45.)

TABLE 40.—Local school administrative units in North Carolina distributed on the basis of the number of teachers per unit,¹ 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary and high schools					
	County		City		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-5						
6-10						
11-20						
21-30						
31-40	1	1	5	7.5	6	3.6
41-50			13	19.4	13	7.8
51-60	5	5	8	11.9	13	7.8
61-70	3	3	7	10.4	10	6.0
71-80	3	3	4	6.0	7	4.2
81-90	1	1	7	10.4	8	4.8
91-100	6	6	6	9.0	12	7.2
101-150	4	4	2	3.0	6	3.6
151-200	24	24	8	11.9	32	19.1
201-250	22	22			22	13.1
251-300	10	10	3	4.5	13	7.8
301-350	8	8	1	1.5	9	5.4
351-400	6	6	1	1.5	7	4.2
401-450	2	2			2	1.2
451-500	4	4	1	1.5	5	3.0
More than 500	1	1	1	1.5	2	1.2
Total	100	100	67	100.0	167	100.0

¹ In North Carolina there are no units maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only. Of the 167 administrative units in North Carolina, 164 have Negro schools. There is no unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school.

TABLE 41.—Local school administrative units in North Carolina distributed on the basis of the number of white teachers per unit,¹ 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary and high schools					
	County		City		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-10						
11-20						
21-30	1	1	7	10.4	8	4.8
31-40	2	2	14	21.0	16	9.6
41-50	4	4	9	13.4	13	7.8
51-60	8	8	8	11.9	16	9.6
61-70	6	6	8	11.9	14	8.4
71-80	4	4	7	10.4	11	6.6
81-90	6	6	1	1.5	7	4.1
91-100	5	5	2	3.0	7	4.1
101-150	7	7	3	4.5	10	6.0
151-200	25	25	1	1.5	26	15.6
201-250	13	13	4	6.0	17	10.2
251-300	11	11	2	3.0	13	7.8
301-350	3	3			3	1.8
351-400	4	4	1	1.5	5	3.0
More than 400	1	1			1	.6
Total	100	100	67	100.0	167	100.0

¹ In North Carolina there are no units maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only. Of the 167 administrative units in North Carolina, 164 have Negro schools. There is no unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school.

TABLE 42.—Local school administrative units in North Carolina distributed on the basis of the number of Negro teachers per unit,¹ 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary and high schools					
	County		City		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-5.....	12	12.4	6	8.9	18	11.0
6-10.....	7	7.2	14	20.9	21	12.8
11-20.....	9	9.3	15	22.4	24	14.6
21-30.....	9	9.3	16	23.9	25	15.2
31-40.....	4	4.1	5	7.4	9	5.5
41-50.....	10	10.3	4	6.0	14	8.5
51-60.....	10	10.3	1	1.5	11	6.7
61-70.....	8	8.2	1	1.5	9	5.5
71-80.....	6	6.2			6	3.7
81-90.....	4	4.1	2	3.0	6	3.7
91-100.....	6	6.2			6	3.7
101-150.....	10	10.3	2	3.0	12	7.3
151-200.....	2	2.1	1	1.5	3	1.8
More than 200.....						
Total.....	97	100.0	67	100.0	164	100.0

¹ In North Carolina there are no units maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only. Of the 167 administrative units in North Carolina, 164 have Negro schools. There is no unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school.

TABLE 43.—Local school administrative units in North Carolina distributed on the basis of number of white attendance areas per unit,¹ 1934-35

White attendance areas per unit	County units		City units		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One elementary school.....						
Two or more elementary schools.....	1	1			1	0.6
One elementary school and one high school with coterminous attendance areas.....			12	18	12	7.2
Two or more elementary schools and one high school.....	4	4	43	64	47	28.1
Two or more elementary schools and two or more high schools.....	95	95	12	18	107	64.1
Total.....	100	100	67	100	167	100.0

¹ Of the 167 administrative units in North Carolina, 164 have Negro schools. There is no unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school and there are no administrative units in North Carolina maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only.

TABLE 44.—Local school administrative units in North Carolina distributed on the basis of number of Negro attendance areas per unit,¹ 1934-35

Negro attendance areas per unit	County units		City units		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
One elementary school.....	7	7.4	3	4.5	10	6.2
Two or more elementary schools.....	22	23.4	8	11.9	30	18.6
One elementary school and one high school with coterminous attendance areas.....			20	29.9	20	12.4
Two or more elementary schools and one high school.....	37	39.4	36	53.7	73	45.4
Two or more elementary schools and two or more high schools.....	28	29.8			28	17.4
Total.....	94	100.0	67	100.0	161	100.0

¹ Of the 167 administrative units in North Carolina, 164 have Negro schools. There is no unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school and there are no administrative units in North Carolina maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only.

² Three counties unaccounted for in this distribution.

TABLE 45.—Schools, enrollment, and teachers in North Carolina distributed on the basis of number of teachers per school, 1934-35

Teachers per school	SCHOOLS						ENROLLMENT						TEACHERS							
	White		Negro		Total		White		Negro		Total		White		Negro		Total			
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
1	529	18.0	1,003	40.9	1,532	28	19,484	3.2	40,825	14.8	60,309	6.8	529	3.1	1,003	15.0	1,532	6.5	2,274	9.6
2	465	15.8	672	27.4	1,137	21	32,718	5.3	56,265	20.4	88,983	9.9	930	5.4	1,344	20.1	2,274	9.6	3,467	14.4
3-5	790	26.8	570	23.2	1,360	25	107,450	17.4	83,272	30.1	190,722	21.4	3,405	20.0	2,062	30.9	5,467	23.1	8,809	36.4
6-9	658	22.3	123	5.0	781	15	177,450	28.8	35,404	12.8	212,854	23.8	4,902	28.8	4,907	13.6	5,809	24.4	8,630	36.4
10 or more	503	17.1	87	3.5	590	11	279,212	45.3	60,568	21.9	339,780	38.1	7,272	42.7	1,358	20.4	8,630	36.4	10,988	44.4
Total	2,945	100.0	2,455	100.0	5,400	100	616,314	100.0	276,334	100.0	892,648	100.0	17,038	100.0	6,674	100.0	23,712	100.0	30,390	100.0

The statistics discussed in this section indicate that the problem of organizing satisfactory school units in North Carolina is largely one of securing attendance areas of adequate size. Although practically all of the administrative units have a sufficient number of teachers and pupils to make possible the establishment of efficient and economical schools, many of the existing schools are too small to provide the educational services which they should render.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The State.—Recently North Carolina has taken a much more direct part in the support and administration of schools than is usual in the United States. The State bears the entire current cost of operating schools for a minimum 8 months' term. County or city administrative units may levy taxes, by a vote of the people, to supplement State funds in order to extend the school term or to provide additional educational services. The State does not provide funds to pay for maintenance of school buildings, fixed charges, debt service, or capital outlay.

There are two State agencies concerned with the administration of schools. The State department of education is, broadly speaking, concerned with the professional side of public education, while the State school commission is largely concerned with administering State funds for paying current expenses of schools. The State's functions in the administration of public schools are:

- (1) The certification of teachers.
- (2) Approval of the program of studies used by county and city administrative units.
- (3) Setting up a multiple list of approved textbooks from which local adoptions must be made.
- (4) Apportionment of State funds to local administrative units and approval of the budgets of such units.
- (5) The operation of school buses. (To some extent the State has entered the capital outlay field in the purchase of school buses. The county unit makes the initial outlay in purchasing buses; the State then operates them and replaces them when they are obsolete.)
- (6) Approval, in conjunction with the county board of education, of plans for all school buildings.
- (7) Establishing contract prices for all school supplies. (The State Division of Purchase and Contract receives bids and establishes the price for supplies. The county and city administrative units purchase supplies directly from school supply companies but at the prices agreed upon between the companies and the Division of Purchase and Contract.)
- (8) Requiring reports on enrollment, personnel, finance, etc., from the local administrative unit.

The county.—In each county there is a county board of education the members of which are nominated at party primaries or conventions and appointed by the General Assembly for a term of 2 years. Each county board of education appoints a county superintendent for a 2-year term. His appointment must be approved by the State superintendent of public instruction and the State school commission.

The county superintendent is ex-officio secretary of the county board of education. In general, he acts jointly with the county board of education and, for the most part, exercises only those powers delegated to him by the board.

Powers in respect to teachers.—In the county administrative units each "district" committee nominates the teachers for its schools. In many cases the schools have committees which advise with the "district" committees. Since the county board of education has the sole authority to appoint teachers, it rather closely controls the selection of the teaching personnel in the county unit.

Supervision of instruction.—The county superintendent visits the schools in the county unit and supervises the classroom instruction in all such schools. He holds teachers' meetings, advises with teachers and principals, and in other ways attempts to improve the quality of instruction.

Powers in respect to finance.—The county board of education and the county superintendent each year prepare an "organization sheet" or budget which constitutes a request for State funds for current school expenses and which indicates that supplemental and capital outlay funds are to be raised by county taxes. All budgets must be approved by the State school commission. State funds are handled by the State treasurer. The county units do not actually receive the money. Each month the county superintendent sends to the State school commission an itemized statement of the expenditures he proposes to make from the State funds allocated to the county. Only after an expenditure is approved by the commission may the county superintendent issue a check or warrant for it. The check is paid by the State treasurer.

County funds are handled by the county treasurer and are spent on the authority of the county superintendent. The county auditor draws the warrants which are then paid by the county treasurer.

Powers in respect to transportation.—The county board of education provides the original capital outlay for buses. The State operates all buses, but the county can supplement the salary of bus drivers. While the State does not buy original equipment, it does replace trucks or buses worn out or disabled.

Buildings, supplies, and equipment.—Prior to 1937, the county board of education had complete responsibility and authority for the location and maintenance of all school buildings in county and city administrative units. The county was the only school unit authorized by the law of 1933 to raise and spend funds for capital outlay purposes; its authority in this

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF AGENTS AND AGENCIES OF
ING PERSONNEL, CURRICULUM, FINANCE.

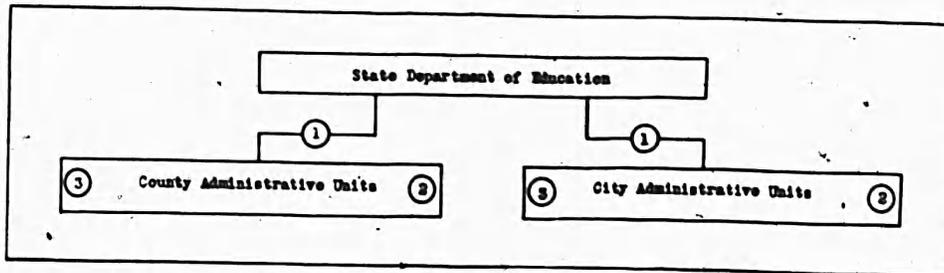


CHART XXI.—North Carolina: Personnel.

1. The State certifies all teachers.
2. Teachers for schools in the county units are nominated by each "district" committee. These nominations must be approved by the county boards of education. Teachers for city schools are appointed by the local boards.
3. Supervision of instruction is a function of the basic units.

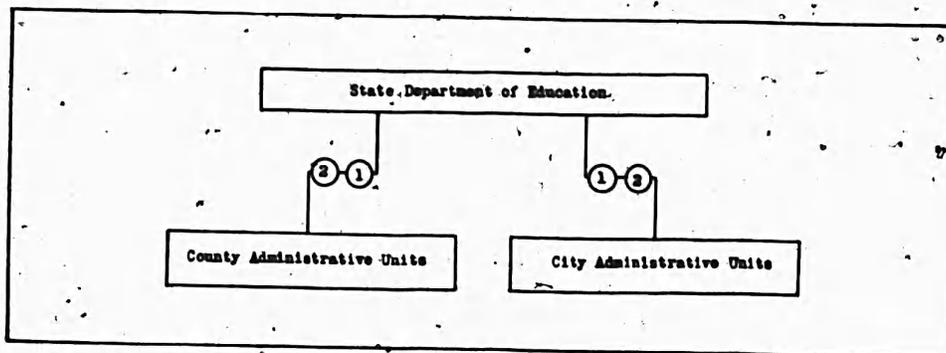


CHART XXII.—North Carolina: Course of study and textbooks.

1. Programs of studies are approved by the State department of education.
2. Textbooks are adopted locally from a multiple list of State-approved textbooks.

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN NORTH CAROLINA CONCERN- AND RECORDS AND REPORTS, 1936

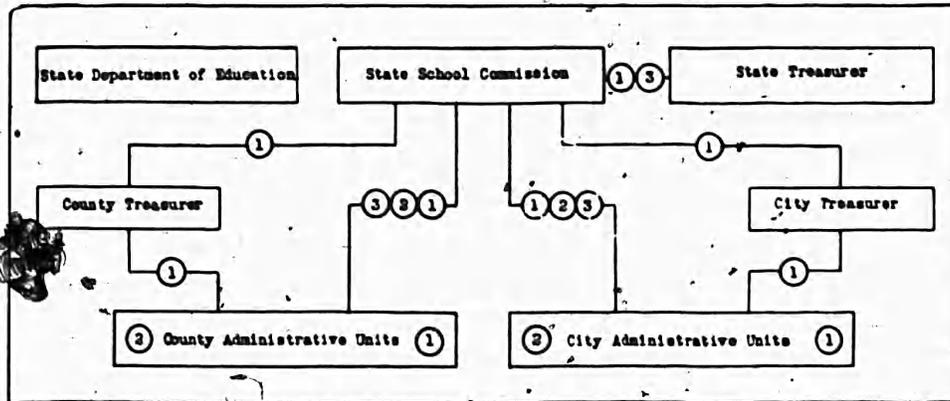


CHART XXIII.—North Carolina: Financial.

1. Budgets are prepared and executed by the county and city superintendents and approved by the State school commission. Monies furnished by the State for current expenditures are held and paid directly by the State treasurer. County or municipal funds are handled by the county or city treasurer and spent on the authority of the county or city superintendent.
2. The State bears the current cost of an 8-month school-year. County and city units raise by local taxes money for all other costs.
3. State funds are released by the State treasurer after the State school commission has approved the county or city superintendent's request.

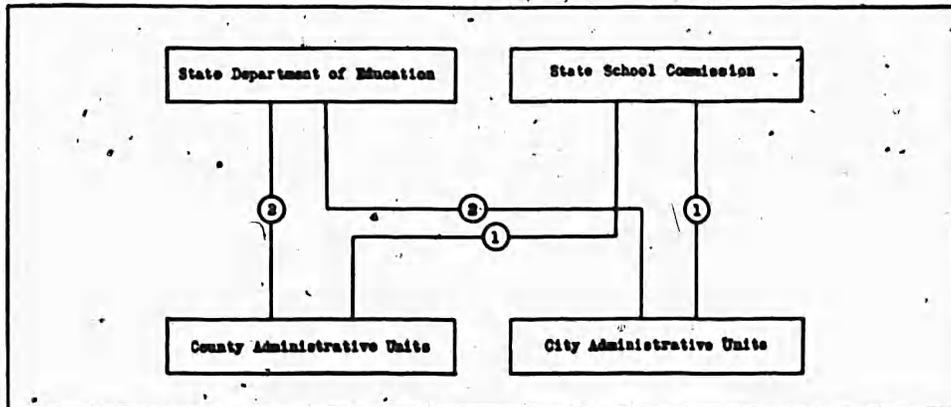


CHART XXIV.—North Carolina: Records and reports.

1. Financial and some transportation reports are sent from the county and city superintendents to the State school commission.
2. Census, personnel, attendance, and other reports are sent from the county and city superintendents to the State department of education.

respect was so complete that it could reject the recommendations of city boards of education for locating school buildings and could select other sites. The county board of education could condemn lands for suitable school sites. The county superintendent inspected all school buildings and made recommendations for improving them.

Early in 1937 the General Assembly amended the section of the school code relating to the construction of buildings. Although there appears to be some question as to the interpretation of the modified law, its intent is to give city administrative units authority for the construction and repair of their school buildings. If the amended sections of the law are sustained by the State supreme court, the result will be to restrict the authority of the county school officials to school buildings within the county administrative unit and to transfer to city units those powers in respect to school buildings previously exercised by the county unit.

The function of the county in respect to the purchase of supplies for current use has been covered in the section on *The State*.

Records and reports.—The county superintendent must keep a record of the procedures of the county board of education; a record of all deeds; a record of all teachers, kinds of certificates held, length of service, success as a teacher, and salaries paid; and other detailed records covering all phases of the school work in the county administrative unit. He reports to the State board of education and to the State school commission such items as school census, average daily attendance, staff personnel, and financial records.

City administrative units.—City boards of education are known by various names, such as "boards of trustees," "city school boards," etc. There is no uniformity in the number and the manner of selection of members of city boards of education. The membership varies from 3 to 15. Some are appointed by the city council; others elected by popular vote; and others by a combination of these methods. The length of term also varies. Each city board of education elects a superintendent whose duties are determined by the board. In all respects the city administrative unit has the same powers and duties as a county administrative unit.

PROCEDURES FOR CHANGING BOUNDARIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

City administrative units, located in a given county, may be merged with the county unit by concurrent action of their boards of education.

With the exception of this merging of a city unit or units with the county unit, there are no ways by which the territory of administrative units may be increased. There is, for example, no method for changing the boundaries of a county and, consequently, no way of modifying the boundaries of a county administrative unit. In order to take care of situations where an attendance area lies in more than one county, joint schools, known as

county-line schools, may be established. This, of course, does not change county boundary lines.

FACTORS ENCOURAGING AND DISCOURAGING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Existing administrative units in North Carolina are adequate in size, since the county administrative unit includes all territory in the county, except city administrative units, each of which must have a scholastic population of at least 1,000. The problem in this State, therefore, is primarily one of establishing satisfactory attendance areas.

The action of the county board of education and the approval of the State school commission are required to make desired changes in school attendance areas. Thus the enlargement or other modification of such areas is comparatively simple, except in instances where attendance areas include territory in two or more counties. To modify attendance areas lying in two or more counties involves the problem of modifying the boundary lines of the county administrative unit, as well as of the political county. In the absence of laws permitting changes in county boundaries, the establishment of joint schools, previously mentioned, offers a solution. In the case of these joint schools certain conflicts arise because of the dual supervision.

In city administrative units including territory in more than one county the counties involved have been responsible for expenditures for capital outlay. Certain complications have arisen in these situations because the erection or repair of schools in city units depends upon joint action of these counties. This procedure often resulted in controversies and consequent delays. It is hoped that situations of this kind will be relieved by the changes in 1937 in the school law giving city administrative units authority to erect and repair school buildings.

Status and Operation of Local School Units in Ohio

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Conditions in Ohio are on the whole favorable for maintaining and administering an effective system of public schools. Although parts of the State are rather hilly and rolling there are relatively few physiographic obstacles to prevent the establishment of local units of school administration. The density of population, with 163 persons per square mile, in Ohio is relatively high as compared with 41.3 for the United States as a whole.

The proportion of the population which is of school age is relatively low. In 1930 only about 27 percent were between 5 and 19 years of age. Ohio has 517 persons from 5 to 20 years of age, as compared to 574 for the country as a whole, for each 1,000 persons 21 to 65 years of age. Relatively, Ohio has a low ratio of children of school age to adults of productive age.

Foreign-born whites constitute nearly 10 percent and whites of foreign or mixed parentage slightly more than 20 percent of the total population. These foreign-language groups and the peculiar educational problems they present are confined largely to the northern industrial regions of the State.

Approximately 68 percent of the total population is urban; about 15 percent live on farms and 17 percent in villages. Excepting industrial areas Ohio is predominantly a State of small villages. This distribution of population in rural and urban areas has to some extent conditioned the organization of local units of school administration. It probably helps to explain the existence of the large number of small local units in Ohio.

In economic ability to support schools Ohio ranks well within the upper half of the 48 States on several measures. Ohio ranks relatively high in its effort to support schools. In the last few years the State itself has assumed a large share of the burden of school support; in 1936, it bore approximately 58 percent of the total current cost of public education. Ohio ranks above average in the proportion of persons of school age being educated and in the number of pupils retained in school.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Three forces have affected the development of local school units in Ohio. The provision of the Northwest Ordinance, which set aside the sixteenth section of each township for school purposes, tended to make the provision for and support of education a concern of the whole township. At the same time frontier conditions fostered the introduction and development of the so-called "district system" with its attendant decentralization of edu-

cational administration. The conception of public education as a function of the State made its appearance later.

In 1806 a law incorporating townships permitted township trustees to divide the township into school districts, each under the direction of a board of three school directors. The township trustees, who were charged with the administration of the funds from section sixteen, were required to devote some attention to school affairs but did not have the power to establish schools. The latter was the function of the district directors. There was some delay in laying out townships into school districts, and a law in 1814 made it obligatory upon the township trustees to "district" the township upon the application of six householders. The first general school act of 1821 made it optional with the voters of the township to determine whether such a "districting" should be made. In 1825, when provision was made for a county-wide school tax, townships which had not been divided into school districts were prohibited from participating in the receipts of the county-wide tax.

By 1840 certain significant trends had appeared. The "district system" had been given legal sanction by the laws providing for the establishment of small, locally controlled districts which depended, in the last analysis, upon local initiative and consent for their creation and continuance. A tendency, not yet fully developed, toward the coordination of educational administration in areas larger than a single district had also been given legal sanction in laws which (a) charged the township trustees with the administration of funds from Section 16 and gave the trustees nominal authority to "district" townships, and which (b) made the county the unit of local school taxation and put the control of teacher certification in the hands of a county board of examiners. A tendency to permit urban communities to develop their schools independently was expressed in a law of 1838 which provided that each incorporated municipality should be a single district.

The township became more important in school district organization with a law of 1853 which established the township—exclusive of the territory included in cities, incorporated villages, and certain special districts—as a single school district under a township board of school directors. The township school district might also be divided into subdistricts, each with local school directors. Due to opposition by local directors, this law succeeded only in making the township a cross between a basic administrative unit and an intermediate unit. Schools within the township school district were more or less under the dual control of the local directors and of the township board of directors.

In spite of the emphasis on local control of educational administration the outlines of a State school system were gradually appearing. Some phases in this development, which had appeared by the time of the Civil War, are indicated below.

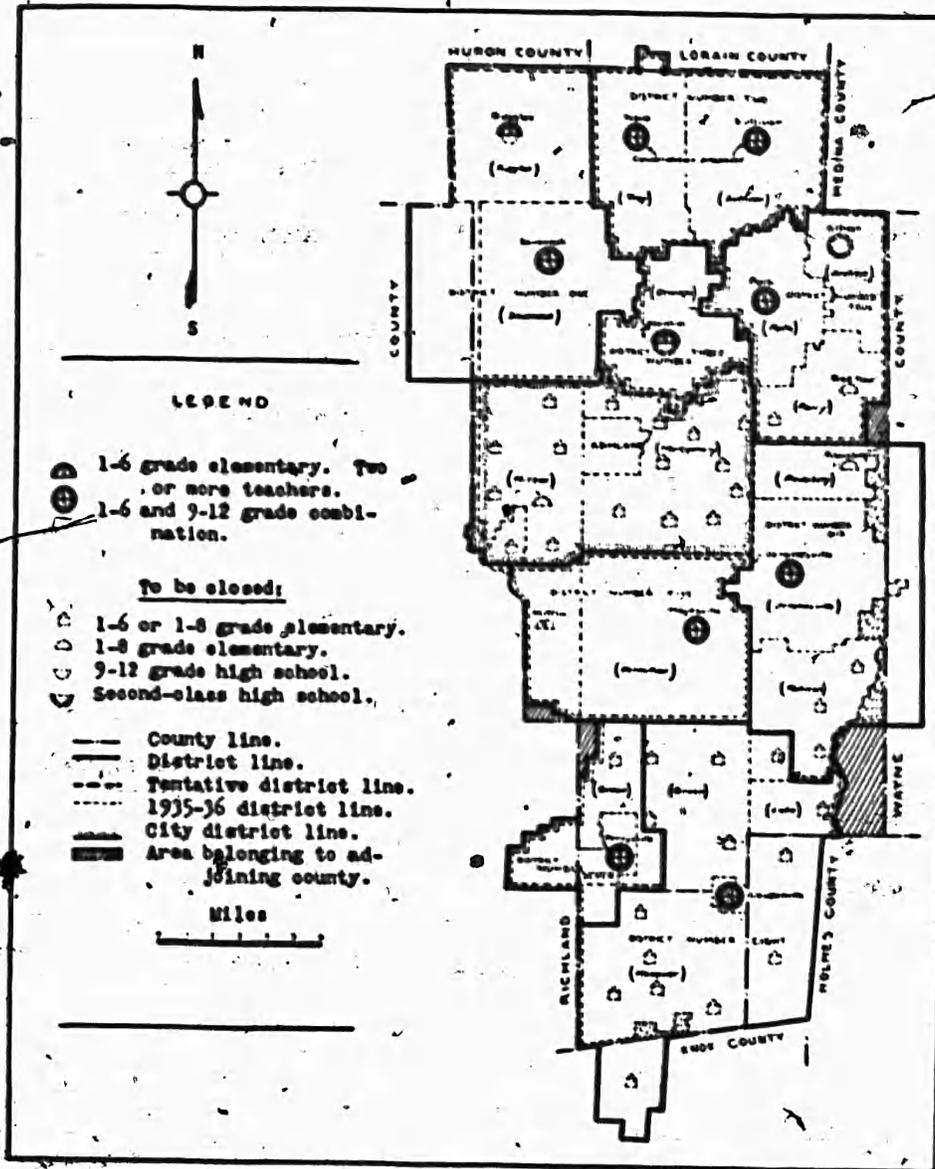
1. There was a State superintendent of common schools. (The office of State superintendent, instituted in 1837 and abolished from 1840 to 1853, eventually developed into the present State department of education.)
2. The county continued its contact with the financial aspects of school administration. The county auditor served as ex-officio superintendent of the common schools within the county. His principal duties were to assess taxes levied by local boards and to collect statistics.
3. The township school district with its subdistricts constituted a unit for the administration of schools, especially in rural areas.
4. The more populous communities were independent of control by the township or by the county. (Such areas have continued to be independent and exist at the present time in the form of city and exempted village districts.)

The most vital problem resulting from the developments outlined was the conflict of authority between the local districts and the legally established township district. In effect this was only a phase of an effort on the part of the State to increase its control over the local districts, since the township district was a creation of the State and laws intended to bolster the influence of the township district were State laws. Although in 1892 subdistricts were abolished, this reform was in part nullified by later legislation, and subdistricts were not finally abolished until 1904. Other legislative acts permitting the establishment of central schools for an entire township and a consolidation of all districts within the township were in effect efforts to secure a unit of educational administration larger than the local district. These efforts, however, failed to secure permanent reform. These elements of conflict in the State-wide organization of local school units were not removed until 1914. In that year the township school districts and special districts ceased to exist, as previously constituted, and became instead rural and village districts, depending for their classification largely on the population and the assessed valuation of the district. All the territory within a county included in these two types of districts became the county school "district" which was, in effect, an intermediate unit under the general supervision of a county board of education. Such county school "districts" were not necessarily coterminous with political counties since territory could be attached to or detached from counties for school purposes. Exempted villages and city districts, as previously noted, remained independent of any control except that of the State.

Under the law of 1914 county school districts were divided into supervisory districts containing not fewer than 20 nor more than 60 teachers. Each supervisory district contained several rural or village districts and was under the general supervision of a "district superintendent" elected by the joint vote of representatives of the districts comprising the supervisory

district. The county district, as a whole, was under the supervision of a county superintendent selected by the county board of education.

With little or no change this organization of administrative units has continued. Within each county there are still rural and village districts,



MAP VII.—Ashland County, Ohio.

This map shows clearly the present and proposed districts and schools: In 1935-36 there were 20 districts; in 1936-37 the number was reduced to 17; the reorganization program carried out in 1937 reduced the number to 10 which is 2 more districts than is called for in the proposed program. The 32 1-teacher schools in 1935-36 were reduced to 20 in 1936-37. The proposals for this county eliminate all 1- and 2-teacher schools.

together comprising the intermediate county "district", and there are exempted village and city districts. A more detailed description of this organization will be found in the section on "Types of Local School Units."

The principal change in recent years, particularly since the institution of the School Foundation Program in 1935, has been an increase in the size and a corresponding decrease in the number of administrative units.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

School administrative units in Ohio may be divided into intermediate and basic units. Basic units may be further classified as *dependent* and *independent*, depending upon whether they are under the jurisdiction of an intermediate unit.

Intermediate units—the county.—All of the territory within the boundaries of a county exclusive of that in independent units, constitutes the "county district"; which is the intermediate unit for the rural and village districts comprising it. In the past the county school officers have had little direct authority over dependent districts. As a result of the recently established School Foundation Program, there is some likelihood that the importance of the county as an intermediate unit will be enhanced.

Basic administrative units.—In general, all basic administrative units have the same powers and duties. All of them are authorized to maintain a 12-grade school and all may exercise the normal powers of a basic unit. Those basic units subject to the general supervision of county school officers may be classified as *dependent* units and those not subject to such supervision, as *independent* units.

Dependent units.—There are two types of dependent units—rural districts and village districts.

TABLE 46.—Local school administrative units, average daily attendance, and teaching positions in Ohio distributed according to type of administrative unit, 1934-35

Type of administrative unit	Units		Average daily attendance		Teaching positions	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
City.....	109	5.7	754,840	60.4	22,572	55.6
Exempted village.....	57	3.0	55,904	4.5	1,764	4.4
Rural and village.....	1,737	91.3	439,864	35.1	16,243	40.0
Total.....	1,903	100.0	1,250,608	100.0	40,579	100.0

The rural district.—The Ohio school law does not give a specific definition of a rural district. It is a district which does not include an incorporated village or city, or, if it does include an incorporated village, does not have a total assessed valuation of more than \$500,000. It is possible, however, for a district, including an incorporated village and having an assessed valua-

tion of more than \$500,000 but having a population of fewer than 1,500 to become a rural district by vote of the electorate.

The village district.—A village district includes an incorporated village, has a total assessed valuation of more than \$500,000 and usually has a population of less than 3,000. A rural district having an assessed valuation of less than \$500,000 but including an incorporated village, may become a village district by vote of the electorate.

The classification of a dependent unit as a rural district or as a village district is of little significance since both types of districts have practically the same powers and duties and both are subject to general county supervision.

Independent units.—Independent units have no connection with the county school authorities or with any other county officers except in respect to the approval of their budgets and the fixing of tax rates. So far as the management of schools is concerned, the units are autonomous. There are two types of independent units: The exempted village district and the city district.

The exempted village district.—An exempted village district is a village district whose population is greater than 3,000 and whose board of education has voted to become exempt from county supervision.

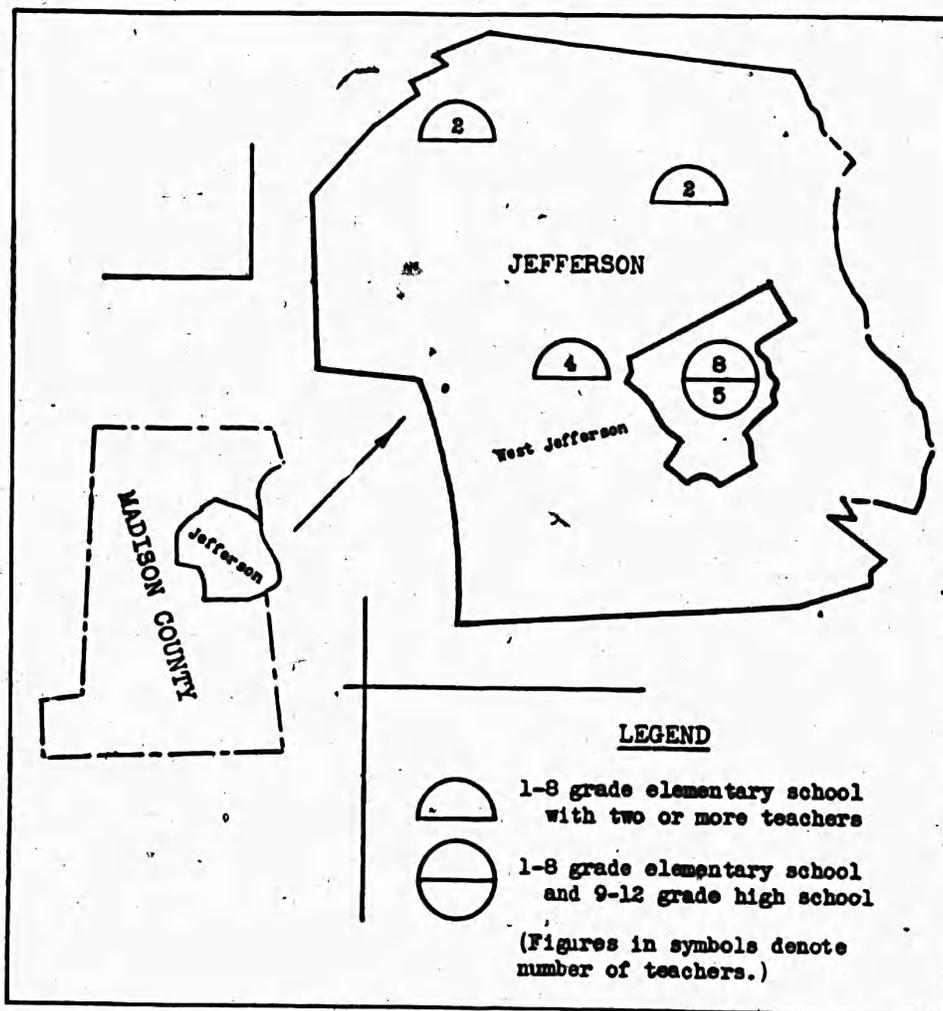
The city district.—A city district includes an incorporated city and the territory attached to it for school purposes.

The distinction between these two types of administrative units depends upon the classification of the incorporated community embraced by a school district. When a village within an exempted village district reaches a population of 5,000, it automatically becomes a city, and the exempted village school district automatically becomes a city district. If the incorporated city falls below 5,000 population, it automatically becomes a village, and the city district becomes an exempted village district.

It is evident from the preceding discussion that the classification of basic units in Ohio is dependent almost entirely on population. If a rural district increases sufficiently in population, it may successively: (1) pass through the stage whereby a portion of it becomes incorporated as a village, thus making the rural district a village district; (2) reach a population of more than 3,000, thus enabling its governing board to make it an exempted village district; and (3) attain a population of more than 5,000, thus automatically becoming a city district.

Of the 1,903 separate administrative units in the State, 91.3 percent are rural and village districts, 3 percent are exempted village districts, and 5.7 percent are city districts. (See table 46.) Although the dependent

districts far outnumber the independent districts, the latter educate approximately 65 percent of the pupils in the State and employ 60 percent of the teachers.



MAP VIII.—Example of joint high-school district: West Jefferson, Madison County, Ohio.

The high-school pupils residing in the Jefferson and West Jefferson school districts attend the high school supported by both districts and located in the West Jefferson district.

About 40 percent of the districts in Ohio maintain only elementary schools, a large number being too small to support high schools. Legal provisions permitting two or more districts to pool their resources to maintain a single high school have had the effect of establishing superimposed and separately organized joint high-school districts.

The joint high-school district (a special type).—The governing boards of two or more districts maintaining only elementary schools may, by concurrent action, form a joint high-school district. (See p. 146.) A joint high-school district is administered by a committee composed of two members from the board of education of each component district. The powers of the committee over the joint high-school district are similar to those of the boards of the component districts, which retain their identity for elementary school purposes.

In some States where separate high-school districts have been established as a result of similar conditions which in Ohio have produced the joint high-school district, a dual system of administrative units has developed. If joint high-school districts were to be widely established in Ohio, a similar dual system would exist; however, not many such districts have been established. There is little likelihood that their number will be increased, since neither the State department of education nor existing legislation encourages their existence.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

In 1934-35 there were 1,903 basic school administrative units of all types in the State with 1,250,608 pupils in average daily attendance and with 40,579 teachers. (See table 46.) A considerable proportion of the administrative units in the State are of moderate size. The mean area of school districts is 21.4 square miles.

Of the 761 school districts maintaining only elementary schools, about 24 percent have 50 or fewer pupils enrolled; 56 percent, 100 or fewer pupils; 76 percent, 150 or fewer pupils; and 86 percent, 200 or fewer pupils. About 17 percent of these districts employ only 1 teacher; 69 percent, 5 or fewer teachers; and 92 percent, 10 or fewer teachers.

Of the 1,118 districts maintaining both elementary and high schools, about 20 percent have 200 or fewer pupils and nearly 46 percent, 300 or fewer pupils. About 37 percent of these districts employ 10 or fewer teachers and 76 percent, 20 or fewer teachers.

Since administrative units in the State are relatively small, it is logical to expect that schools will likewise be small. Fifty-five percent of the schools are 1-teacher schools, while only about 13 percent are schools having 10 or more teachers. (See table 51.)

LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 47.—Local school administrative units in Ohio distributed on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled,¹ 1935-36

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-5.....	1	0.1			1	0.1
6-10.....	9	1.2			9	0.5
11-20.....	36	4.7			36	1.4
21-30.....	54	7.1			54	3.0
31-50.....	93	12.2	2	0.2	95	5.0
51-100.....	233	30.7	18	1.6	251	13.3
101-150.....	152	20.7	68	6.1	220	12.0
151-200.....	73	9.6	139	12.4	212	11.3
201-250.....	33	4.3	146	13.1	179	9.5
251-300.....	22	2.9	137	12.3	159	8.5
301-400.....	23	3.0	197	17.6	220	12.0
401-500.....	10	1.3	93	8.3	103	5.5
501-1,000.....	20	2.6	175	15.6	195	10.4
1,001-1,500.....	2	.3	58	5.2	60	3.1
1,501-2,000.....			25	2.2	25	1.3
2,001-3,000.....			17	1.5	17	0.9
3,001-4,000.....			16	1.4	16	.8
4,001-5,000.....			3	.3	3	.1
More than 5,000.....			24	2.2	24	1.3
Total.....	761	100.0	1,118	100.0	1,879	100.0

¹ In Ohio there are no units maintaining high schools only.

TABLE 48.—Number and percent of local school administrative units in Ohio with certain enrollments,¹ 1935-36

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50 or fewer.....	193	25.4	2	0.2	195	10.4
100 or fewer.....	426	56.0	20	1.8	446	23.7
150 or fewer.....	578	76.0	88	7.9	666	35.4
200 or fewer.....	651	85.5	227	20.3	878	46.7
250 or fewer.....	684	89.9	373	33.4	1,057	56.3
300 or fewer.....	706	92.8	510	45.6	1,216	64.7
400 or fewer.....	729	95.8	707	63.2	1,436	76.4
500 or fewer.....	739	97.1	800	71.6	1,539	81.9

¹ In Ohio there are no units maintaining high schools only.

TABLE 49.—Local school administrative units in Ohio distributed on the basis of the number of teachers per unit,¹ 1935-36

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.....	128	16.8			128	6.8
2-5.....	397	52.2	35	3.1	432	23.0
6-10.....	179	23.5	377	33.7	556	29.6
11-20.....	41	5.4	440	39.5	481	25.6
21-30.....	12	1.6	105	9.4	117	6.2
31-40.....	4	.5	47	4.2	51	2.7
41-50.....			36	3.2	36	1.9
51-60.....			15	1.3	15	.8
61-70.....			12	1.1	12	.6
71-80.....			3	.3	3	.2
81-90.....			5	.4	5	.3
91-100.....			6	.5	6	.3
101-150.....			12	1.1	12	.6
151-200.....			9	.8	9	.5
201-250.....			6	.5	6	.3
251-300.....			2	.2	2	.1
301-350.....			1	.1	1	.1
351-400.....			1	.1	1	.1
401-450.....						
451-500.....						
More than 500.....			6	.5	6	.3
Total.....	761	100.0	1,118	100.0	1,879	100.0

¹ In Ohio there are no units maintaining high schools only.

TABLE 50.—Number and percent of local school administrative units in Ohio employing certain numbers of teachers,¹ 1935-36

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.....	128	16.8			128	6.8
5 or fewer.....	525	69.0	35	3.1	560	29.8
10 or fewer.....	704	92.5	412	36.9	1,116	59.4
20 or fewer.....	745	97.9	852	76.2	1,597	85.0

¹ In Ohio there are no units maintaining high schools only.

TABLE 51.—Schools, enrollment, and teachers in Ohio distributed on the basis of number of teachers per school,¹ 1935-36

Teachers per school	Schools		Enrollment		Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.....	2,385	55.0	56,436	12.6	2,393	15.1
2.....	458	10.6	25,739	5.7	930	5.8
3.....	484	11.2	52,679	11.6	1,781	11.2
6-9.....	466	10.7	98,722	22.0	3,448	21.7
10 or more.....	540	12.5	214,704	47.9	7,337	46.2
Total.....	4,333	100.0	448,280	100.0	15,889	100.0

¹ Data are for rural and village administrative units only.

The Ohio School Foundation Program Law, enacted June 12, 1935, states that; "... the board of education of a school district maintaining one or more schools, each or any of which has an average daily attendance of less than one hundred eighty pupils, shall establish to the satisfaction of the director of education and the State controlling board that such

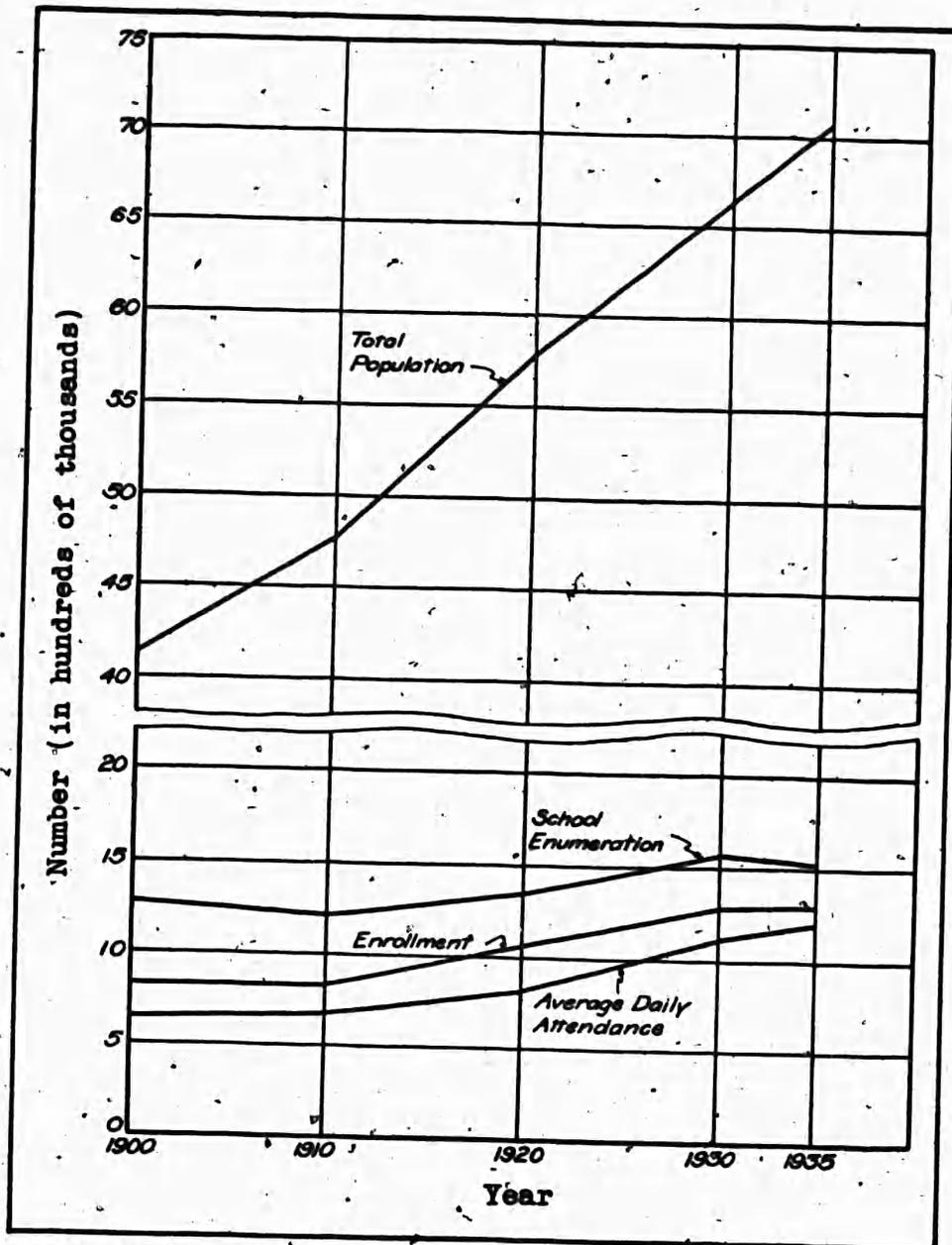


FIGURE 5.—Significant trends in Ohio: Total population, school enumeration, public-school enrollment, and average daily attendance, by 10-year intervals, 1900 to 1935.

schools are essential and efficient parts of the State school system. . . .” This limitation in size is indicative of the idea prevailing in the State of what constitutes a desirable minimum standard for the average daily attendance of an elementary or a high school. In a district maintaining

an elementary school and a high school, the minimum will be 180 for each school, or a total of 360 for the district.

Because of the form in which data have been reported, it is not possible to compare exactly existing enrollments with these standards but an approximation can be given. Of the 761 districts maintaining only elementary schools, 76 percent have 150 or fewer pupils and 86 percent have 200 or fewer pupils. A considerable proportion of these districts, therefore, fall below the desirable minimum established by the State.

Exclusive of joint high-school districts, no districts in Ohio maintain high schools only. Of the 1,118 districts with elementary and high schools, nearly 46 percent have 300 or fewer pupils and about 63 percent have 400 or fewer pupils. These facts indicate that there are in Ohio a large number of administrative units where, even if all the pupils within the district attended a single elementary and a single high school, each school would still fall short of the standard set up in the Foundation Program. It seems apparent, therefore, that any attempt within the State to establish more satisfactory attendance areas will also involve the problem of extending the boundaries of the large number of small administrative units.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The State.—Although in Ohio, as in other States, the ultimate responsibility for providing public education resides with the State, many powers in regard to the details of administration and supervision of schools have been delegated to the counties and to the basic administrative units. The State has retained direct authority in respect to the certification of teachers, approval of programs of studies, requiring records and reports, and other matters affecting schools generally. The School Foundation Program, as enacted by law in 1935, represents a more direct assumption on the part of the State of the responsibility for the support of public education and for improving its effectiveness.

Under the Foundation Program, grants are made to school districts on the basis of average daily attendance for a school year of 180 days. A flat grant of \$30.60 a year for each elementary pupil and of \$45.90 a year for each high-school pupil in average daily attendance is made. If school districts levy a local school tax of at least 3 mills on assessed valuation and if the receipts from this local tax plus the basic State financial grants are not sufficient to provide \$45 a year for elementary pupils and \$67.50 a year for high-school pupils in average daily attendance 180 days a year, the State makes additional grants sufficient to provide a minimum financial expenditure equivalent to these amounts. Districts which receive these additional funds are termed "additional aid" districts. The State pays all transportation costs of "additional aid" districts. The amount allowed for transportation must be within the limits of a schedule of costs established by the State director of education and approved by

the State controlling board. The State also guarantees the actual cost of educating pupils attending school in a district other than the one in which they reside, even though such costs may be higher than the minimum set by the Foundation Law.

The requirements for qualifying for these State grants are intended to improve educational standards throughout the State. All districts must maintain a school term of at least 180 days a year; teachers' salaries must constitute at least 75 percent of the Foundation Program expenditures; and no district with one or more schools having fewer than 180 pupils in average daily attendance may receive State subsidies unless such schools receive the specific approval of the State director of education. There are other features, intended to encourage the organization of more satisfactory administrative units, which will be explained in a later section.

The county.—In each county there is a county board of education which appoints the county superintendent as its executive officer. The county school officers are charged with the general supervision of the "county district," which consists of the territory included in rural and village districts.

The county superintendent has broad supervisory powers which permit him to supervise and improve instruction in the schools of the dependent districts. In those dependent districts in which the local boards grant the principal many of the powers of a district superintendent, the authority of the county superintendent is largely nominal, and he acts largely in an advisory capacity. Over and above any legal authority granted to the county superintendent, his ex-officio participation in the annual conferences of the members of the governing boards of dependent districts and the necessity for frequent consultation with such board members place him in a key position to assume the educational leadership of the county district.

The county board of education has the responsibility for seeing that dependent districts are efficiently operated and that adequate educational services are provided. In case of nonfeasance on the part of a local board of education, the county board of education can intervene and operate the dependent district. The county board can also exercise control through its power to change the boundaries of dependent districts.

In each county there is a county budget commission which has authority to approve budgets of basic districts and to levy local school taxes.

Powers in respect to teachers.—The county superintendent has no functions in respect to the certification of teachers.

The county superintendent nominates teachers for all dependent districts. The governing boards of these districts need not accept his nominations, but they cannot employ a teacher not so nominated, except by a majority vote of the entire board.

Powers in respect to supervision of instruction.—The county superintendent is required by law to visit and inspect the schools of the dependent districts as often as possible, to spend at least one-half of his time in actual classroom supervision, and to direct and assist teachers in the performance of their duties. In addition, he is specifically named as the supervisor of agricultural instruction in the schools of the county district.

The county superintendent also classifies pupils and controls their promotion, and certifies eighth-grade graduates for admission to high schools. He can assist in improving the quality of instruction in the dependent districts by assembling teachers for conferences on educational matters and by the part he plays in the county institute. He also outlines schedules of school visitation for the teachers in dependent districts. He teaches teacher-training courses at the request of the county board of education.

The county board of education is specifically authorized to prepare and publish a graded minimum course of study for the guidance of governing boards of dependent districts. The county board has no authority to adopt textbooks but can refer to the boards of underlying districts whatever recommendations the county superintendent may make. It may hold county institutes or, in lieu thereof, it may pay teachers for taking a 6-weeks' summer course.

Powers in respect to finances.—The county board does not have the power to levy a school tax. It has nothing to do with the receipt, deposit, or disbursement of the funds of dependent districts. Each year it prepares a budget of the operating expenses for the ensuing year for the county school district, covering such items as mileage compensation for county school board members, salaries of the county superintendent and his assistants, clerical services, etc. The budget is certified to the State director of education. The costs are apportioned among the various dependent districts on the basis of pupils in average daily attendance and are deducted from the State funds allocated to each district. The funds for the county are received directly from the State. This procedure tends to make the county district less responsive to pressure from the boards of local districts.

Powers in respect to school buildings, equipment, and supplies.—Although the county board of education ordinarily has no control over the sites, plans, or equipment of buildings erected by dependent districts, it may intervene when a local school district fails to provide suitable schoolhouses. The county board may purchase supplies only for its own use and for the use of the county superintendent and his assistants.

OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN OHIO CONCERNING PERSON-
AND RECORDS AND RÉPORTS, 1936

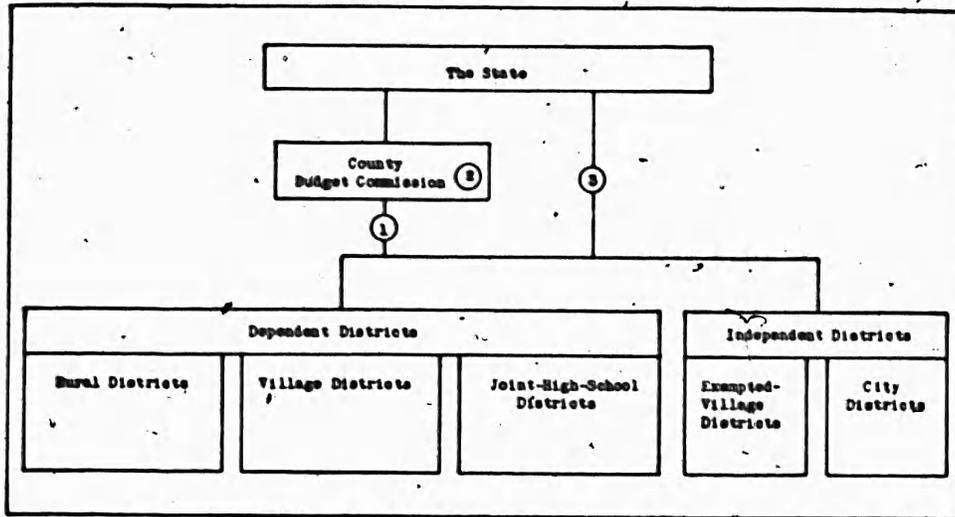


CHART XXVII.—Ohio: Financial.

1. Each basic unit prepares and executes its budget which must be approved by the county budget commission.
2. Tax rates are fixed by the county budget commission.
3. State funds are sent directly to the basic units and to county (for its own expense).

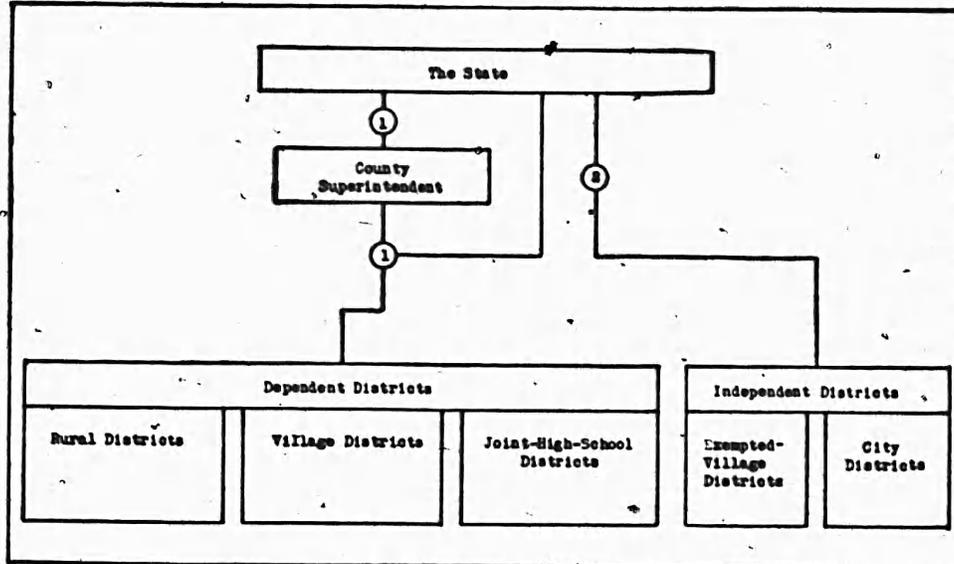


CHART XXVIII.—Ohio: Records and reports.

1. Dependent units report to the State through the county superintendent and send a copy to the State.
2. Independent units report directly to the State.

Powers in respect to additional services.—The county board of education draws up regulations for the control of absences of pupils in dependent districts, and it can employ an attendance officer and his assistants. The county superintendent is the judge of the accessibility of schools in applying compulsory attendance laws.

Records and reports.—Each year the county board of education must make a survey "to determine the number of teachers and other educational employees and the number of transportation routes necessary to maintain the schools of the county school district." In making the annual survey as a basis for planning the reorganization of school districts, as required by law, the county board of education may require dependent districts to report the necessary information.

The dependent district.—It has been pointed out that there is little, if any, difference between the rural and village school districts in respect to their powers and functions. Their boards of education have the same powers and duties. Neither district may employ a superintendent. Either district may, however, designate one of the teachers to act as principal of the schools of the district. In some cases the principal's duties are nominal to a great extent; in other cases he performs many of the duties which would ordinarily be performed by a district superintendent.

The preceding section has indicated the ways in which dependent districts are subject to the jurisdiction of county school officers. In all other ways dependent districts are entirely free from any county control except in the matter of school budgets and in the levying of local school taxes.

Under the recently revised law, school districts must prepare their budgets and submit them for approval to the county budget commission which sets the local school tax rates. This function of the budget commission is rather important because under State laws the total tax rate on any property may not exceed 10 mills without an additional levy being authorized at an election. Under the Foundation Program, no district may receive the "additional aid" State subsidies unless 3 mills are levied for local school purposes and unless a total tax of 10 mills for all governmental purposes is levied on all the property in the school district. The county budget commission, therefore, has a very important function in striving to maintain a proper balance between local tax rates for schools and for other governmental purposes.

The independent district.—There is little, if any, difference between the exempted village district and the city district except in the matter of the

number of school board members. The exempted village district has a school board consisting of five members. The city district, embracing a city with a population of from 5,000 to 50,000, has a board of education of from three to five members; the one with a population of from 50,000 to 150,000, from two to seven members, and the one with a population above 150,000, from five to seven members. Each exempted village and each city district must employ a superintendent who performs the duties delegated by the district governing board.

Independent districts are entirely free from the jurisdiction of the county board of education or the county superintendent. They have the same relationships with the county budget commission as do dependent districts. In all other respects, independent districts are entirely autonomous except, of course, that they must conform to State regulations and must meet State requirements.

PROCEDURES FOR CHANGING BOUNDARIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The methods by which the boundaries of local administrative units may be changed and particularly the methods by which districts may be enlarged are of unusual importance in Ohio at the present time because of the recently enacted School Foundation Program Law which has as one of its purposes the enlargement of administrative units and the concurrent enlargement of attendance areas for schools. The two principal methods by which administrative units may be enlarged at the present time are (1) by action of the county board of education on its own initiative or on petition of the electors in a district or districts and (2) by majority vote of the electors in a district or districts.

The county board of education has full authority to annex districts, or to transfer parts of districts, to other districts, or to create new districts out of existing districts or parts of districts, so long as such action affects only areas under its own supervision. These changes by the county board may be nullified by a remonstrance of a majority of the electors in the areas affected within 30 days after the change is made.

The county board also has power to transfer territory under its supervision to a district or county not under its supervision. This action, however, requires a petition of the electors in the territory concerned before the county board may act. A petition of 50 percent of the electors is permissive, and a petition of 75 percent is mandatory. In addition, the district to which the territory is to be transferred must be willing to accept it.

TABLE 52.—Legal provisions for changing boundaries of local school administrative units in Ohio, 1936

Automatic changes	By county board of education			By election	By action of boards of education
	On its own initiative (subject to remonstrance by majority of electors within 30 days)	On petition Of 50 percent of electors (permissive) or of 75 percent of electors (mandatory)	Of two-thirds of electors		
<p>1. Change village district to city district or reverse, if population gets above or below 5,000.¹</p> <p>2. Create village district when a village is incorporated—includes original rural area up to 16 square miles.¹</p>	<p>1. Transfer part or whole of any district under county supervision to any other district under county supervision.²</p> <p>2. Create district from parts or whole of existing districts.²</p>	<p>1. Transfer whole or part of the county district to any kind of district (city, village, or county).^{3,4}</p>	<p>1. Transfer territory to or from centralized district.⁵</p>	<p>1. Centralize schools in rural territory of townships with more than one rural district.⁶</p> <p>2. Annex village of less than 1,500 population to contiguous rural district.⁶</p> <p>3. Annex village or city district to another city district.⁶</p> <p>4. Change rural district (with assessment less than \$500,000) to village district.⁶</p>	<p>1. Form joint high-school district (concurrent action of boards of adjoining districts necessary)</p> <p>2. Change village or district containing village, if it has population of 3,000, to exempted village.⁷</p>

¹ Merely change of name.

² Change of boundaries.

³ Changes involving entire districts.

⁴ Territory may be accepted or rejected by board of district to which it is to be annexed.

⁵ Vote on this question can be required by county board.

⁶ Election called on petition of 25-percent of electors or by local board (subject to approval of county board).

⁷ Merely a shift from county supervision to independent status; territory not involved.

Other changes, most of them involving the annexation of entire districts, may be made by vote of the territory concerned. One of the most important changes which may be made by vote is the centralization of schools in rural districts within a township containing more than one such district. If centralization is voted in such a case, in effect there is established a single new district embracing the territory of the former rural districts. One very important feature of this procedure is the fact that the county board of education may require a vote on this question whenever it chooses, provided that, if the proposal is once defeated, it may not be voted on again for a period of 2 years. A favorable vote on this question results not only in the uniting of two or more rural districts but also in the establishment of a single consolidated school.

FACTORS ENCOURAGING AND DISCOURAGING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Ohio provides an excellent example of the way in which a State may organize its system of apportioning State aid funds, not only to improve educational conditions and to provide financial inducements for the organization of more effective administrative units, but also to insure (1) that the improvement in school district organization shall be an integral part of the total State educational program and (2) that needed changes shall be determined only after a careful study of the existing situation. The School Foundation Program Law contains provisions which require that on or before the first of September 1935, and the first of April 1936, 1937, and 1938, each county board of education shall prepare a map of its county showing existing school administrative units as well as highways, streams, natural barriers, and other features which affect the organization of school districts. Each county board is also required to recommend territorial changes which in its opinion would make for "economy, efficiency, and convenience" in the operation of schools. These changes may affect independent as well as dependent districts and may concern territory which, in the opinion of the board, should for school purposes be attached to an adjoining county. These recommendations are submitted to the State director of education who makes any modifications in them which he deems advisable. In practice, these proposed plans are worked out with the cooperation of county boards of education, boards of the component rural and village districts, and a representative or representatives from the State department of education.

After the final plan has been approved for the years indicated, any changes in school district boundaries must be made in accordance with the adopted plan of organization. Any county plan of organization for these years may be modified by the county board of education or by the State director, by the procedures followed in determining the original plan. This makes possible the continuing improvement of school district organization.

There are, of course, a number of factors at work which may tend to delay effecting changes proposed in these county plans. Among these obstacles are the present procedures for changing school district boundaries. These procedures are in the long run dependent on the sentiment in the basic districts. The transfer of territory by a county board of education can be nullified by remonstrance of the electors, and even a vote for annexation will not transfer territory to another district unless that district is willing to accept it. Too frequently local sentiment is against transfer or annexation; the numerous social, racial, and topographic conditions which may be responsible are not peculiar to Ohio and cannot be generalized easily. Generally, one of the principal retarding factors affecting local sentiment is the matter of school finance. In Ohio this has been in large measure overcome by the financial provisions of the law previously described. In addition, the fact that no district with one or more schools having fewer than 180 pupils in average daily attendance may receive State funds without the specific approval of the State director of education, enables that officer to make his approval contingent upon improvement in the organization of districts.

A factor which sometimes discourages the uniting of districts is variation in local tax rates for school purposes. To some extent the State program alleviates this by providing that each district must, to secure additional State grants, levy a minimum tax of 3 mills. Although this minimum is frequently exceeded, it is probable that in the future the local tax rates for current school expenses will be more nearly uniform.

Another factor discouraging the enlargement of districts is the fact that some districts have a large bonded indebtedness. Under existing State laws, when a district annexes territory, or when a new district is created, the annexing district or the new district must assume the bonded indebtedness of the territory annexed or included. A district with a small bonded indebtedness usually does not care to annex territory with a large bonded indebtedness. Since there seems to be no immediate remedy for this situation, there is little hope for a complete realization of the proposed programs until after 1945 when most existing bonds will have matured.

A retarding influence to possible progress under the Foundation Program is the law which provides that, whenever any district has a minimum population of 3,000, the district board of education may vote to exempt it from county supervision. It is only natural to suppose that the county board of education may be somewhat reluctant to recommend changes in the territory of dependent districts which will increase the population of such dependent districts to the point where they become exempt from county supervision.

Another obstacle to enlarging districts at present is the fact that the State pays the cost of educating tuition pupils. For example, if District A sends pupils to a high school in District B, where the per pupil cost is \$100, the

State guarantees District B \$100 for each tuition pupil. If, however, these two districts were to unite, the State would pay only the difference between \$67.50 and the amount raised by local taxation for each high-school pupil now residing in District A. As a result, both District A and District B are likely to object to merging, since it would involve a financial loss to them.

Many of the existing obstacles to the improvement of school district organization in Ohio will probably be removed within a few years. At the present time much progress is being made in spite of them. The map on page 131 illustrates the changes which are proposed within a single county. Since the institution of the School Foundation Program, 259 school districts in the State have been eliminated. During the same period 923 1-room school buildings and 127 high-school buildings have been closed and their pupils accommodated elsewhere. This means that almost 14 percent of the school districts and about 39 percent of the 1-teacher schools have been eliminated. These figures indicate the progress which can be made when a State establishes systematic procedures for studying existing educational conditions, for projecting plans for improvement, and for carrying out such plans.

Status and Operation of Local School Units in Oklahoma

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

A number of social and economic factors found in Oklahoma are usually regarded as indicating a relatively heavy educational burden. The ratio of children of school age to adults is comparatively high. Oklahoma has 704 persons 5 to 20 years of age for each 1,000 persons 21 to 65 years of age, as compared with a ratio to 574 to 1,000 in the United States as a whole. The population is not concentrated in urban areas; 42.7 percent of the population live on farms and 23 percent in small villages. Educational costs are increased by the separate schools maintained for Negroes who comprise 7.2 percent of the total population.

The ability of the State to finance its educational program is relatively low. On such measures of economic ability as wealth per capita, income per capita, retail sales per capita, and taxpaying ability per capita, as revealed by an application to the State of the second model tax plan of the National Tax Association, Oklahoma ranks consistently in the lowest quartile among the States. The rank of the State on measures of educational opportunity is comparable to its rank in economic ability.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

ASSIGNMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITY TO COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT

Under acts of the Oklahoma Territorial Legislature in 1890, school district organization in the State took the form of a modified township system. Each township of 36 square miles constituted four elementary attendance areas and one high-school attendance area. Each town with a population of 300 or more could become a separate district, independent of township control.

In 1893 each of the elementary attendance areas was made a school district with authority to offer both elementary and high-school education. These small districts were placed under the general supervision of the county superintendent who had authority to change their boundaries to conform to topographical features. Many of these districts still have the boundaries established for them in 1893. The consolidation Law of 1905 and the Union Graded Law of 1913 permitted the formation of larger districts from two or more of these common-school districts. With the exception of common consolidated and union graded districts which have become independent, all of

the common-school districts descending from the original elementary attendance areas have remained under the supervision of the county superintendent.

ADMINISTRATIVE RESPONSIBILITY OF COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT DECREASED AND MINORITY SCHOOLS ESTABLISHED

Until 1917 the independent districts, although exempt from county supervision, were required to make child accounting and financial reports to the county superintendent. Since that time they have been required to make their reports to the State department of education. The general trend has been toward an increase in the number of independent districts and a decrease in the number of dependent districts. The former increased 245 percent between 1915 and 1930, while the latter decreased 23.9 percent.

Educational opportunity for children of the minority race has been provided since 1890 through a system of *separate* or minority schools supported by a uniform county tax. The race attending the minority schools varies from district to district, depending upon which race (white or Negro) is in the minority in the particular district. Although in 1890 each county voted on the question of whether it would provide minority schools, the Constitution of 1907 provided that such schools should be maintained. All minority schools in dependent districts constitute a single county minority unit administered by the county superintendent. Minority schools in independent districts are administered by the independent district board, although supported by the county-wide tax.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TWO SYSTEMS OF ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

There are, in effect, two separate systems of local school administrative units in Oklahoma. Geographically the State is divided into school districts, each of which is an organized administrative unit for the support and administration of schools for the race, white or Negro, constituting a majority of its population. In addition, the same areas are parts of the system of administrative units concerned with the support and administration of schools for the race constituting the minority of the population.

The majority school system.—Majority units may be classified as basic or intermediate. Each county is an intermediate unit. Some basic units are dependent on, and some are independent of county jurisdiction.

Intermediate unit—the county.—Each county is an intermediate unit for the dependent districts within its boundaries. The county superintendent supervises dependent districts and performs certain administrative duties but, in general, has relatively little authority.

Basic administrative units.—There are two classes of basic majority units, namely, dependent majority and independent majority.

TABLE 53.—Local school administrative units, school enrollment, and-teaching positions in Oklahoma distributed according to type of administrative unit, 1934-35

Type of administrative unit	Units		Enrollment				Teaching positions							
	Number	Percent	White		Negro		White		Negro		Total			
			Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Independent majority district	1,401	8.1	143,682	56.3	565	1.1	344,247	52.1	9,464	52.7	13	0.8	9,477	48.4
Dependent majority district	4,383	88.5	266,022	43.6	3,928	7.9	269,950	40.9	8,491	47.2	127	8.0	8,618	44.1
Total	4,784	96.6	609,704	99.9	4,493	9.0	614,197	93.0	17,955	99.9	140	8.8	18,095	92.5
Independent minority unit	111	2.3	26,660	4.4	26,660	53.2	26,660	4.0	818	51.2	818	51.2	818	4.2
County minority unit	56	1.1	439	0.1	18,980	37.8	19,419	3.0	17	1.1	638	40.0	655	3.3
Total	167	3.4	439	0.1	45,640	91.0	46,079	7.0	17	1.1	4,456	91.2	1,473	7.5
Grand total	14,951	100.0	610,143	100.0	50,133	100.0	660,276	100.0	17,972	100.0	1,596	100.0	19,568	100.0

1 Information not available for 1 independent majority unit and 5 dependent majority units. The total number of school administrative units in Oklahoma is therefore 4,957.
 2 Each minority school system in an independent district constitutes, in effect, a separate unit for administrative purposes. It is under the supervision of the majority race board of education of the independent district, but in actual administration it is not a part of the majority race school system. It is not, however, a separately organized district.
 3 All minority schools in dependent districts in any one county are directly administered and supervised by the county superintendent and, therefore, may be considered as constituting a county unit.



Dependent majority units.—These units, under the general supervision of the county superintendent, may be classified as *common-school districts, consolidated districts, and union graded districts.*

The common-school district of today was established in 1893 when each elementary attendance area was organized as a district. It usually has its original boundaries. Consolidated districts and union graded districts are formed by a merger of common-school districts or parts of such districts. The principal differences among these three classes of districts are as follows:

1. Although a common-school district may maintain more than one school, generally it maintains only one. Consolidated districts which must offer elementary and may offer high-school work are permitted to maintain only one school center. A union graded district may maintain more than one school center but, if it does so, must offer work in grades 7-12 in the "central" building and work in grades 1-6 in "wing" buildings.
2. Common-school districts are not permitted to provide transportation. Consolidated districts are required to provide transportation for all pupils who live a mile or more from the school. Union graded districts may but are not required to provide transportation for pupils within the district.
3. Consolidated districts receive a building subsidy of \$2,500 and union graded districts a building subsidy of \$1,250 from the State. Common-school districts receive no building subsidy.

In all other respects the three classes of dependent majority units have practically the same powers and duties.

Independent majority units.—A district including an incorporated city of the first class or an incorporated town¹ and maintaining an accredited 4-year high school is an independent district and is entirely free from any supervision by the county superintendent. Since a dependent district automatically becomes independent upon fulfilling these conditions, there may be independent consolidated districts and independent union graded districts. There is little distinction between these independent districts, except that the method of discharging obligations is unchanged by independence. For example, a dependent consolidated district which has become independent must continue to provide transportation.

Any district, either dependent or independent, with territory in more than one county, is a "joint" district. A joint dependent district is under the jurisdiction of the county in which the greater proportion of the district's assessed wealth lies.

¹ A city of the first class in Oklahoma is one with a population of 2,500 or more. Towns are incorporated without reference to population.

The minority school system.—In each organized majority district which contains children of both the white and the Negro races, separate schools called "minority" schools are provided for the children of the race constituting a minority of the population of the particular majority district. Minority schools are supported by a county-wide tax levied by the county excise board, but the method of administering minority schools in dependent majority districts differs from the method of administering those in independent majority districts: Those minority schools, white or Negro, in the dependent districts of a county are directly administered by the county superintendent, while those in an independent district are administered by the board of education of that district. Minority schools in dependent districts have no relationships with the majority school systems of the districts in which they are located. Although the minority and majority schools in independent districts are administered by the same board of education, the minority schools do not constitute an integral part of the majority school system. In view of these facts, those minority schools in dependent districts may be regarded as constituting a single "county minority administrative unit," and those in an independent majority district, as constituting a separate "independent minority administrative unit."

Some of the complexities of this organization are apparent. The county serves as the intermediate unit in the majority school system and as the basic administrative unit in the minority school system. The independent district serves as the basic administrative unit for the majority schools, as well as for the minority schools, within its boundaries.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

There are 4,784 majority units and 167 minority units, or a total of 4,951 units, in Oklahoma. Many of the 4,784 majority units are small in area. Almost one-half, or 48.2 percent, are from 6 to 10 square miles and more than three-fourths, or 81.2 percent, are from 6 to 25 square miles in area. The mean area of these majority units is 14 square miles.

Of the 4,951 majority and minority administrative units, 4,098, or about 83 percent, maintain elementary schools only. These units, on the whole, have relatively small enrollments and employ few teachers per unit. About 26 percent have 20 or fewer pupils enrolled, about 50 percent from 31 to 100, and only about 7 percent more than 100. (See table 57.) About 62 percent of the districts have only one teacher, and 35 percent, from two to five teachers.

TABLE 54.—Local school majority administrative units in Oklahoma distributed on the basis of area, 1934-35

Square miles per unit	Units with elementary schools only						Units with elementary and high schools						Total					
	City		Rural		Total		City		Rural		Total		City		Rural		Total	
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
Less than 3.....	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
3.....					10	0.3	1	1.3	39	1.0	1	0.1	1	1.2	10	0.2	11	0.2
4.....					39	1.0	2	2.5	77	1.9	2	0.3	2	2.5	39	0.8	39	0.8
5.....					77	1.9	3	3.8	208	5.2	11	1.4	3	3.7	77	1.6	79	1.7
6-10.....					208	5.2	14	17.4	2,198	54.9	97	11.8	14	17.3	216	4.6	219	4.6
11-25.....	1	100	1,314	32.9	1,315	32.9	24	30.0	2,198	54.9	111	14.2	25	30.9	2,295	48.8	2,309	48.2
26-50.....			1,125	3.1	125	3.1	20	25.0	1,315	32.9	262	33.5	20	24.7	1,552	33.0	1,577	33.0
51-75.....			21	.5	21	.5	8	10.0	125	3.1	73	9.3	8	9.9	400	8.6	420	8.8
76-100.....			4	.1	4	.1	4	5.0	21	.5	17	2.2	4	4.9	86	1.8	94	2.0
101-250.....			4	.1	4	.1	4	5.0	4	.1	11	1.4	4	4.9	11	.2	15	.3
Total.....	1	100	4,000	100.0	4,001	100.0	80	100.0	4,001	100.0	783	100.0	81	100.0	4,703	100.0	4,784	100.0

Information for minority administrative units is not given on this table because minority units include only territory already included in majority units. In Oklahoma there are no units maintaining high schools only. Information not available for 1 independent majority unit and 5 dependent majority units.

LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 55.—Local school majority administrative units for white children in Oklahoma distributed on the basis of area, 1934-35

Square miles per unit	Units with elementary schools only						Units with elementary and high schools						Total						
	City		Rural		Total		City		Rural		Total		City		Rural		Total		
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	
1	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Less than 3	8	0.2	8	0.2	8	0.2	1	1.3	1	1.1	1	0.1	1	1.3	8	0.2	9	0.2	38
3	38	1.0	38	1.0	38	1.0	2	2.5	2	1.8	2	0.3	2	2.5	38	0.8	38	0.8	76
4	74	1.9	74	1.9	74	1.9	2	2.5	8	1.1	2	0.3	2	2.5	74	1.6	76	1.6	149
5-10	202	5.1	202	5.1	202	5.1	14	17.7	97	13.8	111	14.2	14	17.5	210	4.5	212	4.5	429
11-25	2,165	54.9	2,165	54.9	2,165	54.9	24	30.4	236	33.7	260	33.3	25	31.2	2,262	48.7	2,276	48.7	4,562
26-50	1,304	33.0	1,304	33.0	1,304	33.0	20	25.3	275	39.2	295	37.8	20	25.0	1,540	33.1	1,565	33.1	3,111
51-75	125	3.2	125	3.2	125	3.2	8	10.1	65	9.3	73	9.4	8	10.0	400	8.6	420	8.6	840
76-100	21	0.5	21	0.5	21	0.5	4	5.1	13	1.9	17	2.2	4	5.0	86	1.9	94	1.9	188
101-250	4	0.1	4	0.1	4	0.1	4	5.1	7	1.0	11	1.4	4	5.0	11	0.2	15	0.3	30
Total	1	100	3,945	100.0	3,946	100.0	79	100.0	701	100.0	780	100.0	80	100.0	4,646	100.0	4,726	100.0	9,372

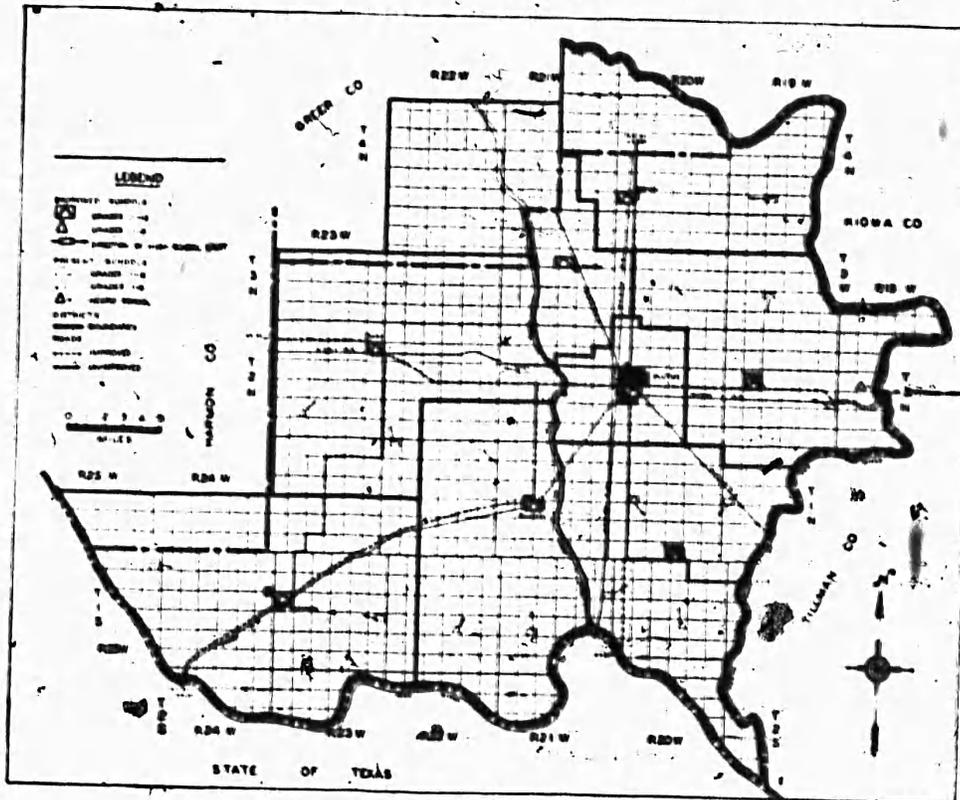
1 Information for minority administrative units is not given on this table because minority units include only territory already included in majority units.
 In Oklahoma there are no units maintaining high schools only.
 Information not available for 1 independent majority unit and 5 dependent majority units.

TABLE 56.—Local school majority administrative units for Negro children in Oklahoma distributed on the basis of area, 1934-35

Square miles per unit	Units with elementary schools only						Units with elementary and high schools						Total						
	City		Rural		Total		City		Rural		Total		City		Rural		Total		
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	
1	3	3	4	8	7	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	16	16	17	15	10	
Less than 3	2	3.6	2	3.6	2	3.6													
3	1	1.8	1	1.8	1	1.8													
4	3	5.5	3	5.5	3	5.5													
5	6	10.9	6	10.9	6	10.9	1	100			1	33.3	1	100					
6-10	33	60.0	33	60.0	33	60.0													
11-25	10	18.2	10	18.2	10	18.2	2	100			2	66.7							
26-50																			
51-75																			
76-100																			
101-250																			
Total	55	100.0	55	100.0	55	100.0	1	100	2	100	3	100.0	1	100	57	100.0	58	100.0	

Information for minority administrative units is not given on this table because minority units include only territory already included in majority units. In Oklahoma there are no units maintaining high schools only. Information not available for 1 independent majority unit and 5 dependent majority units.





MAP IX.—Jackson County, Oklahoma

This map shows present and proposed administrative units. In 1915 there were 67 districts; in 1920, 62; in 1925, 31; in 1930, 28; in 1935, 23. The 8 administrative units proposed would replace the 23 existing districts in 1935. Under the proposals no school will have fewer than 10 teachers and no administrative unit a school population of fewer than 600 and all except 2 an area of at least 100 square miles.

TABLE 57.—Local school administrative units in Oklahoma distributed on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled, 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary schools only				Units with elementary and high schools				Total					
	White		Negro		White		Negro		White		Negro		Total	
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
0	93	2.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1-5	47	1.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6-10	223	5.7	3	2.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11-20	689	17.5	16	10.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
21-30	645	16.2	19	12.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
31-50	938	23.8	11	20.4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
51-100	1,069	27.2	27	33.8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
101-150	199	5.0	5	3.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
151-200	25	.6	1	1.3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
201-250	12	.3	1	2.6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
251-300	4	.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
301-400	1	.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
401-500	1	.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
501-1,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1,001-1,500	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1,501-2,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2,001-3,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3,001-4,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4,001-5,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
More than 5,000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	3,946	100.0	152	100.0	740	100.0	71	100.0	453	100.0	4,726	100.0	4,951	100.0

1 In Oklahoma there are no units maintaining high schools only. Information not available for 1 independent majority unit and 5 dependent majority units.
 2 These units, when last maintaining schools, maintained elementary schools only.



LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 58.—Local school administrative units in Oklahoma distributed on the basis of the number of teachers per unit, 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary schools only						Units with elementary and high schools						Total					
	White		Negro		Total		White		Negro		Total		White		Negro		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
0	293	2.4	59	38.8	293	2.3	86	11.0	1	1.4	1	0.1	93	2.0	60	26.7	93	1.9
1-5	2,476	62.7	72	47.3	2,535	61.8	404	51.8	21	28.7	107	12.5	2,476	52.4	93	36.7	2,536	51.3
6-10	1,369	34.2	14	9.2	1,441	35.2	198	25.3	24	32.9	428	50.2	1,455	30.8	39	41.3	1,548	31.3
11-20	8	2.0	3	2.0	3	1.1	41	5.2	4	5.5	45	5.3	198	4.2	17	7.6	215	4.3
21-30							16	2.1	4	5.5	20	2.3	41	0.9	4	3.1	48	1.0
31-40							4	0.5	1	1.4	5	0.6	16	0.3	4	1.8	20	0.4
41-50							9	1.2	2	2.7	11	1.3	4	0.2	2	0.9	6	0.1
51-60							5	0.6			5	0.6	9	0.2	2	0.9	11	0.2
61-70							3	0.4			3	0.4	5	0.1			5	0.1
71-80							6	0.8			7	0.8	3	0.1			3	0.1
81-90													6	0.1			7	0.1
91-100																		
101-150																		
151-200																		
201-250																		
251-300																		
301-350																		
351-400																		
401-450																		
451-500																		
More than 500																		
Total	3,946	100.0	152	100.0	4,098	100.0	780	100.0	73	100.0	853	100.0	4,726	100.0	225	100.0	4,951	100.0

¹ In Oklahoma there are no units maintaining high schools only. Information not available for 1 independent majority unit and 5 dependent majority units.
² These units, when last maintaining schools, maintained elementary schools only.



Administrative units maintaining both elementary and high schools are on the whole, much larger than those maintaining elementary schools only. Only 4.5 percent of the former have 100 or fewer pupils enrolled and about 24 percent more than 500 pupils. (See table 57.) Approximately 13 percent of these units have from 2 to 5 teachers; about 50 percent, from 6 to 10; and only about 4 percent, more than 50. (See table 58.)

Most of the independent majority districts have one high school and one or more elementary schools, while most of the dependent majority units maintain only an elementary school. Two hundred and sixty-two, or 65 percent of the 402 independent majority units have one elementary and one high school, and 126, or almost 34 percent, two or more elementary schools and one high school. Of the 4,388 dependent majority units, 3,743 or 85 percent, maintain only one elementary school. Only about 9 percent of these districts maintain a high school, and none maintains more than one high school.

Many of the schools maintained in Oklahoma are small. About 54 percent are 1-teacher, and nearly 24 percent are 2-teacher schools. Only about 7 percent have 10 or more teachers. (See table 62.)

It is evident from the facts presented in the preceding paragraphs that a large number of the existing districts are so small that attendance areas cannot be increased in size until larger local administrative units are organized. Difficulties which are now encountered in efforts to enlarge local administrative units are discussed in later sections of this chapter.

TABLE 59.—Local school administrative units in Oklahoma distributed on the basis of number of attendance areas per unit, 1934-35

Attendance areas per unit	Independent majority units ¹		Dependent majority units ²		County minority units ³		Independent minority units ³		Total	
	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent	Number	Per cent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
No school.....			93	2.1					93	1.9
1 elementary school.....	1	0.2	3,743	85.4	11	19.6	49	44.1	3,804	76.8
2 or more elementary schools			164	3.8	36	64.3	1	.9	201	4.1
1 elementary school and 1 high school with coterminous attendance areas.....	262	65.4	338	7.7	1	1.8	44	39.7	645	13.0
2 or more elementary schools and 1 high school.....	136	33.9	45	1.0	5	8.9	14	12.6	200	4.0
2 or more elementary schools and 2 or more high schools.....	2	.5			3	5.4	3	2.7	8	.2
Total.....	401	100.0	4,383	100.0	56	100.0	111	100.0	4,951	100.0

¹Information not available for 1 independent majority unit and 5 dependent majority units. There are no administrative units in Oklahoma with high schools only.

²In independent majority units, dependent majority units and dependent minority units schools within a unit are either all white schools or all Negro schools. In a county minority unit there may be schools for whites and also schools for Negroes.

³In 9 county minority units there are also Negro schools. The 9 units are therefore also included in the tabulations of county minority units in tables 60 and 61.

TABLE 60.—Local school administrative units in Oklahoma distributed on the basis of number of white attendance areas per unit,¹ 1934-35

White attendance areas per unit	Independent majority units ²		Dependent majority units ³		County minority units ⁴		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
No schools.....			93	2.1			93	2.0
1 elementary school.....	1	0.3	3,689	85.3	7	77.8	3,697	78.1
2 or more elementary schools.....			163	3.8	2	22.2	165	3.5
1 elementary school and 1 high school with coterminous attendance areas.....	262	65.5	336	7.8			598	12.6
2 or more elementary schools and 1 high school.....	135	33.7	45	1.0			180	3.8
2 or more elementary schools and 2 or more high schools.....	2	.5					2	.5
Total.....	400	100.0	4,326	100.0	19	100.0	4,735	100.0

¹ Information not available for 1 independent majority unit and 5 dependent majority units. There are no administrative units in Oklahoma with high schools only.

² In independent majority units, dependent majority units and dependent minority units schools within a unit are either all white schools or all Negro schools. In a county minority unit there may be schools for whites and also schools for Negroes.

³ In these 9 county minority units there are also Negro schools. The 9 units are therefore also included in the tabulations of county minority units in table 61.

TABLE 61.—Local school administrative units in Oklahoma, distributed on the basis of number of Negro attendance areas per unit,¹ 1934-35

Negro attendance areas per unit	Independent majority units ²		Dependent majority units ³		County minority units ⁴		Independent minority units ⁵		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 elementary school.....			54	94.7	11	19.6	49	44.1	114	50.6
2 or more elementary schools.....			1	1.8	36	64.3	1	.9	38	16.9
1 elementary school and 1 high school with coterminous attendance areas.....			2	3.5	1	1.8	44	39.7	47	20.9
2 or more elementary schools and 1 high school.....	1	100			5	8.9	14	12.6	20	8.9
2 or more elementary schools and 2 or more high schools.....					3	5.4	3	2.7	6	2.7
Total.....	1	100	57	100.0	56	100.0	111	100.0	225	100.0

¹ Information not available for 1 independent majority unit and 5 dependent majority units. There are no administrative units in Oklahoma with high schools only.

² In independent majority units, dependent majority units, and dependent minority units schools within a unit are either all white schools or all Negro schools. In a county minority unit there may be schools for whites and also schools for Negroes.

³ 9 of these units contain white as well as Negro schools and therefore are also tabulated in the county minority unit column in table 60.

TABLE 62. Schools, enrollment, and teachers in Oklahoma, distributed on the basis of number of teachers per school, 1934-35

Teachers per school	Schools						Enrollment						Teachers					
	White			Negro			Total			White			Negro			Total		
	Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent	
1	3	3	5	4	5	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
2	2,494	53.5	310	2,804	53.8	67,974	11.1	8,978	17.9	76,952	11.7	2,494	13.9	310	19.4	2,804	14.3	
3-5	1,107	23.7	110	1,217	23.4	73,038	12.1	6,793	13.5	79,831	12.1	2,214	12.3	220	13.8	2,434	12.4	
6-9	352	7.6	73	425	8.2	41,785	6.8	8,752	17.5	50,537	7.5	1,290	7.2	268	16.8	1,558	8.0	
10 or more	366	7.9	35	401	7.7	85,595	14.0	6,984	13.9	92,579	14.0	2,705	15.1	248	15.5	2,953	15.1	
	339	7.3	23	362	6.9	341,699	56.0	18,678	37.2	360,377	54.6	9,266	51.5	553	34.5	9,819	50.2	
Total	4,658	100.0	551	5,209	100.0	610,091	100.0	50,185	100.0	660,276	100.0	17,969	100.0	1,599	100.0	19,568	100.0	

1 Information not available for 1 independent majority unit and 5 dependent majority units.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The State.

In Oklahoma, as in other States, ultimate authority over public education resides with the State. The State does not itself maintain any schools, but, under the present system of granting State aid to local districts, it exercises large indirect powers. About 1,500 districts are practically administered by the State department of education which determines the number of teachers, sets salaries, prescribes transportation routes, and in other ways controls the functions of these basic administrative units. In addition, the State sets up regulations applying to all local units and covering such items as the certification of teachers, the adoption and approval of textbooks, the accrediting of high schools, the approval of school building plans, and the submission of statistical and financial reports.

The County.

As previously indicated, the county in Oklahoma has a dual function in the administration of public schools. It serves as an intermediate unit for the general supervision of education in dependent districts organized for majority racial groups and as a basic unit for the support and administration of the county minority unit (minority schools in dependent majority districts). Most of the educational functions of the county are performed by the county superintendent. The county excise board, however, has certain powers in connection with school finance.

Powers and duties in respect to dependent majority units.—The functions of the county as an intermediate unit are performed by the county superintendent as supervisory officer of the dependent units. Although he has little discretionary power under the State school law, he is in a strategic position to exercise educational leadership. A county superintendent of ability can be a very important factor in the administration of majority dependent districts.

Although the county superintendent acts as an agent of the State board of education in conducting and holding examinations for teachers' certificates, his duties in this matter are largely routine and clerical. All contracts with teachers in dependent majority units must be submitted to him for approval or disapproval. He must show cause for disapproval.

The improvement of instruction is one of the chief responsibilities of the county superintendent. His assistants devote most of their time to classroom supervision. Neither he nor his assistants have power to enforce any suggestions they may make; therefore the extent to which they are able to improve the quality of teaching depends upon their ability as leaders.

The county plays an important part in financing schools in dependent majority districts. Each application for State aid submitted by such a district must be signed by the county superintendent who, although he has no discretion in approving or rejecting the application, does act in an advisory capacity to the district submitting it. State funds for these districts are sent directly to the county treasurer, but the amount to be apportioned to each district is determined by the State. All school budgets must be submitted to the county excise board for approval. Theoretically, this is a matter of form, but in practice excise boards have exercised powers not granted by law. In some instances, they have even made arbitrary decisions concerning teachers' salaries, although there is no legal basis for such action. After the school district budgets have been approved and have been voted by the electors of the school district, the excise board sets the tax rates for each district so as to produce the revenue required by the school district budget.

Child accounting reports are submitted to the county superintendent, who summarizes them and submits them to the State. Financial records are kept by the county treasurer, who issues all checks. The county superintendent submits the financial reports for all dependent districts to the State.

Powers and duties in respect to the county minority unit.—The county superintendent is the administrator of the county minority unit and performs for it all the functions customarily performed by a local board of education in other basic administrative units. He has full power to employ teachers, bus drivers, custodians, and all other personnel and has full authority to determine their salaries. He has entire charge of the supervision of instruction.

The budget for the county minority unit is submitted to the county excise board by the county superintendent. All minority schools are supported by a county-wide tax. That portion of the revenue from the county-wide tax allotted to the county minority unit is expended by the county superintendent. All financial and child accounting records are kept by the county superintendent, who reports them to the State.

THE DEPENDENT MAJORITY UNIT

The boards of education of dependent majority units have authority to perform, with certain restrictions, the functions usually exercised by the governing boards of an administrative unit. The limitations upon their power in respect to the employment of teachers, supervision of instruction, preparation of budgets, etc., exercised by the county superintendent and the county excise board have already been indicated. Dependent units have no power to levy taxes. This is a function of the county excise board which may not reduce the levy below that voted by the electors

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF AGENTS AND AGENCIES PERSONNEL, CURRICULUM, FINANCE

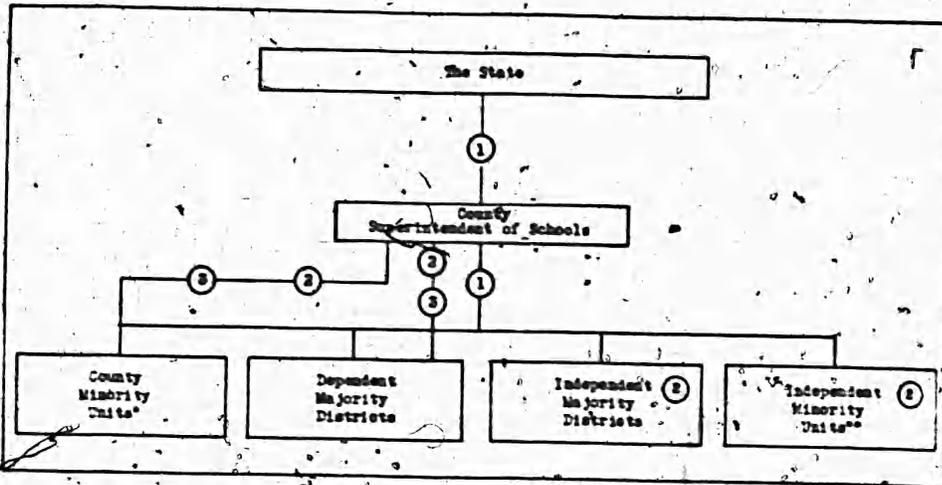


CHART XXIX.—Oklahoma: Personnel.

1. County superintendent is the clerical agent of the State in the certification of teachers.
2. County superintendent selects teachers for the county minority unit and has ministerial power in selection of teachers for dependent majority districts. Selection of teachers is a function of the independent districts.
3. County superintendent supervises instruction in the county minority unit and acts in an advisory capacity in the supervision of the dependent majority districts.

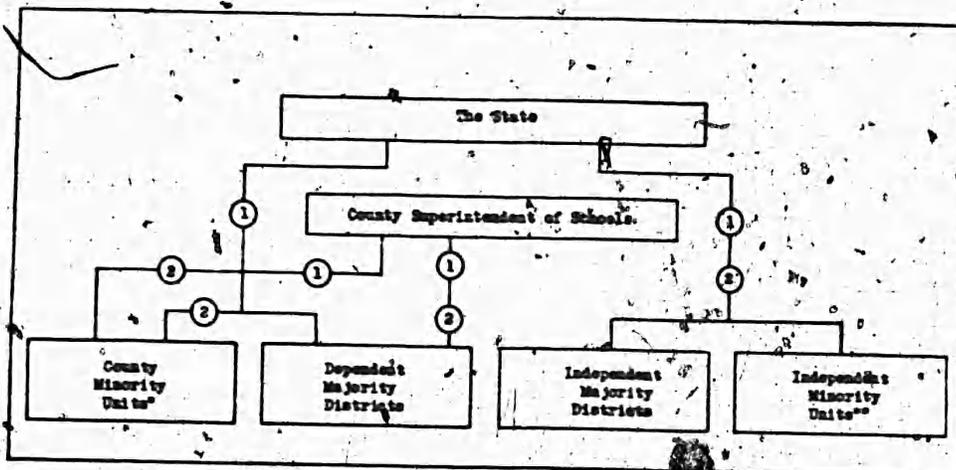


CHART XXX.—Oklahoma; Course of study and textbooks.

1. The State prepares and publishes courses of study.
2. All basic units must use textbooks adopted by the State textbook commission.

* All minority schools in dependent majority districts of a county constitute a single administrative unit under the immediate jurisdiction of the county superintendent.

** An independent minority unit embraces the same territory as an independent majority district and has the same governing board, but is concerned only with the administration of minority schools in the district.

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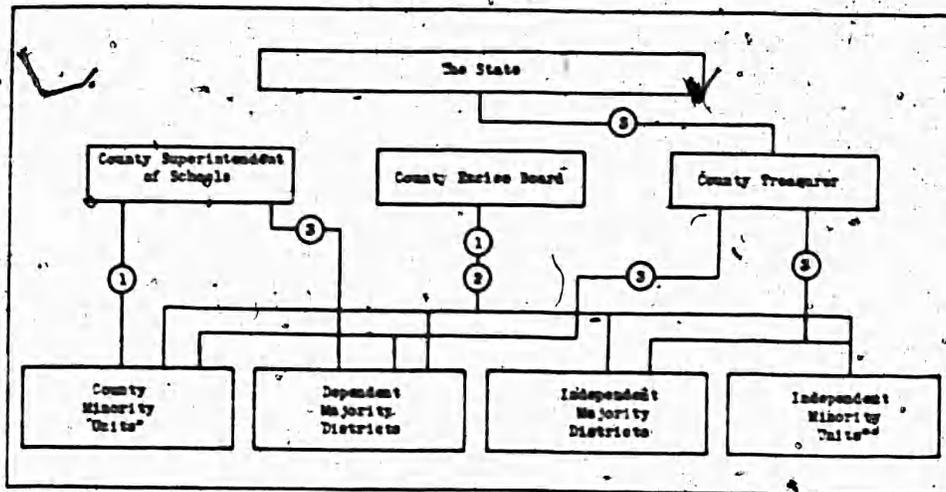


CHART XXXI.—Oklahoma: Financial.

1. Budgets are prepared and executed by the county superintendent for the county minority unit and by the school boards in other basic units. All budgets must be approved by the county excise board.
2. Taxes are levied by the county excise board. Minority units are supported by a county-wide tax.
3. Applications for State support submitted by dependent majority districts must be signed by the county superintendent of schools. State funds are apportioned through the county treasurer.

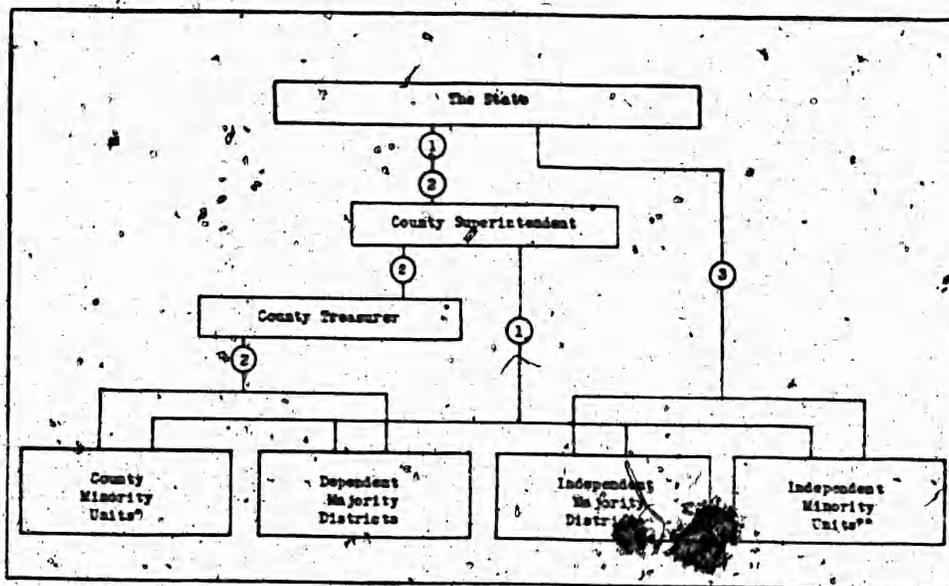


CHART XXXII.—Oklahoma: Records and reports.

1. All basic units submit some child accounting reports to the State through the county superintendent.
2. The county treasurer submits to the county superintendent financial reports for the dependent basic units which are then sent to the State by the county superintendent.
3. With the exception of census data independent units report directly to the State.

* All majority schools in dependent majority districts of a county constitute a single basic administrative unit under the immediate jurisdiction of the county superintendent.

** An independent majority unit embraces the same territory as an independent majority district and has the same governing board, but is concerned only with the administration of minority schools in the district.

of the district but which may, however, provide for an additional levy to meet the requirements of the school budget, provided that the addition does not exceed the 10-mill limitation prescribed by law. The county treasurer is the custodian of all funds for these districts. The funds are deposited by the county treasurer and expended by him upon requisition of the local districts.

Dependent districts are prohibited by law from employing school nurses or school doctors. Plans for school buildings must be approved by the State fire marshal and must meet legal requirements.

Attention has already been called to certain limitations on the number and kind of schools which may be provided by dependent consolidated or dependent union graded districts. There are certain additional limitations: Location of schools must be determined by a vote of the electors; buildings which were standing at the time of the formation of union graded districts may not be sold or destroyed unless authorized by vote, and "wing" schools in such districts may not be abandoned except by vote. Such limitations on the location and kind of school tend to make consolidated and union graded districts rather unsatisfactory types, since the size of the district is limited to the area which may be served by one school in a consolidated district or by the central high school in a union graded district.

THE INDEPENDENT UNIT

Independent districts are not subject to supervision by the county superintendent. The budget of such a district must be approved and the tax levy set by the county excise board. In this respect, independent districts have the same relationship to the county as dependent units. In other respects, also, the independent and dependent units have similar powers except for the general supervision by the county superintendent. The principal ways in which the independent districts differ from dependent districts are as follows:

- (a) Independent districts may have their own treasurers or they may designate the county treasurer to handle their school funds. Similarly, they may handle funds for the support of the minority schools, or they may designate the county treasurer for this purpose.
- (b) Independent district boards of education may locate schools wherever they choose and may maintain as many schools as seem advisable.
- (c) Independent districts may provide transportation if they each have an area of 25 square miles and an assessed valuation of \$500,000.
- (d) Independent districts administer the minority schools within their boundaries.

PROCEDURES FOR CHANGING BOUNDARIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The procedures by which boundaries of local administrative units may be changed are indicated in table 63. There are certain legal limitations upon most of the procedures for transferring school district territory:

- (a) The total assessed valuation of the district from which the territory is taken cannot be reduced by more than 5 percent.
- (b) No change can be made if the resulting bonded indebtedness of any district concerned will exceed 5 percent of the assessed valuation.
- (c) No district may be reduced to less than 6 square miles nor to less than \$50,000 assessed valuation.

These restrictions do not apply if the entire territory of a district is merged with another district.

Common-school districts can be more easily modified than other types. A common-school district may be annexed to an independent district or a consolidated district on petition of a majority of the electors in the district desiring to be annexed. Two or more common-school districts may be merged to form a consolidated or a union graded district by a majority of the votes in an election on the question. Upon petition of one-third of the electors in the territory desiring change, the county superintendent can, at his discretion, merge common-school districts to form a larger common-school district or he can transfer territory from one common-school district to another. One-fourth of the electors concerned may appeal the action of the county superintendent to the county board of commissioners whose decision is final.

TABLE 63.—Legal provisions for changing the boundaries of local school administrative units in Oklahoma, 1936

Automatic changes	By county superintendent ¹	By concurrent action of two or more county superintendents	On petition and with approval of board of an adjacent district	Carried by a majority in each district concerned	By election Carried by a majority in the entire area affected	Carried by 70 percent of the voters
<p>1. Make any district independent by incorporation of a city or town in district, provided a fully accredited 4-year high school is maintained.</p>	<p>1. Annex territory to or detach it from independent district.²</p> <p>2. Annex entire common-school district to independent district.³</p> <p>3. Make any boundary changes or annexations.⁴</p>	<p>1. Form joint district.⁵</p> <p>2. Form joint districts of any type (acting as county superintendent would act if districts formed were not to be joint).⁶</p>	<p>1. Dissolve independent district and annex it to adjoining independent district.⁷</p> <p>2. Annex districts or parts of districts to consolidated district.⁸</p>	<p>1. Merge independent districts to form united independent district.⁹</p>	<p>1. Form union-guided district.¹⁰</p> <p>2. Consolidate districts or parts of districts.¹¹</p>	<p>1. Dissolve consolidated or union-guided district and revive original districts.¹²</p>

¹ Subject to appeal to the county court whose decision is final.

² A district from which territory is taken may not have its total assessed valuation reduced by more than 5 percent.

³ A petition of a majority of the electors is necessary to change a district or call an election.

⁴ On application of 5 householders in the territory affected, change subject to appeal to State superintendent of public instruction.

⁵ A petition of two-thirds of the electors is necessary to change a district or call an election.

⁶ A petition of one-third of the electors is necessary to change a district or call an election. After disorganization, they proceed to reorganize by same method as for common-school districts.

⁷ The 5 percent limitation does not apply in this case.

Procedures for modifying the boundaries of districts other than common-school districts are extremely difficult to follow. This is particularly true of consolidated and union graded districts. There is no way by which territory may be added to or taken from a union graded district. Although a common-school district may be annexed to a consolidated district, the only way in which a consolidated district or a union graded district may be united with another district is by dissolving it into the original common-school districts which may then annex themselves to independent or consolidated districts. This procedure is so complex that it is very rarely used. As a result, after a considerable number of the common-school districts within a county have been merged to form consolidated or union graded districts, little further improvement is made.

FACTORS ENCOURAGING AND DISCOURAGING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The principal obstacles to the enlargement of administrative units in Oklahoma are found largely in the existing methods for changing boundaries which have been discussed in the previous section.

The present system of apportioning State aid to basic administrative units has brought about some enlargement of school districts. To each district having at least 18 pupils in average daily attendance, the State supplements district funds by primary aid apportioned according to rules and regulations prescribed by the State department of education. At the present time, these regulations provide that a high school must have an average daily attendance of 40 in order to receive secondary aid. These two requirements have caused a number of very small districts to consolidate. The improvements, however, have been relatively slight. Even if, as a result of consolidations, districts do attain the minimum average daily attendance, they are still small districts. Furthermore, once common-school districts have been consolidated in order to attain a size whereby State aid may be received, it is almost impossible to enlarge them further.

Status and Operation of Existing Administrative Units in Pennsylvania

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

Pennsylvania is rather favorably situated in respect to providing educational opportunity for all children. It ranks among the upper one-fourth of the States in economic ability and therefore has been able to provide a high degree of educational opportunity with comparative ease. There are, however, a few factors which tend to make more difficult the task of maintaining and administering public schools.

One of these factors is topography. Except for the southeastern portion and one or two smaller areas, the State is mountainous and has many small irregularly connected valleys separated by interjacent ridges which frequently constitute an important obstacle to easy and economic transportation of school children. As a result, in many parts of the State, it is difficult to organize administrative units of a satisfactory size.

Pennsylvania is one of the most densely populated States. There are 214.8 persons per square mile, as compared with 41.3 for the United States as a whole. Approximately 68 percent of the population is located in cities or towns with a population of 2,500 or more. Only about 9 percent of the population live on farms. Foreign-born persons and persons of foreign or mixed parentage constitute about 13 percent and nearly 27 percent, respectively, of the population.

Another factor which has a definite relation to the State's requirements for public education is the proportion of the population of school age. About 30 percent of the residents are between 5 and 19 years of age. This constitutes a fairly high ratio of children to adults. Pennsylvania has 592 persons from 5 to 20 years of age for each 1,000 persons 21 to 65 years of age. In the United States as a whole, the ratio is 574 to 1,000.

In 1930 the percentage of children 7 to 15 years of age enrolled in school was higher than for the United States as a whole, but the percentage of children 16 years of age and older enrolled in school was much lower than for the entire country. This may be due to two facts. In the first place, the compulsory attendance law has not applied to children who have reached their sixteenth birthday. In the second place, a tendency to leave school at an early age seems to accompany certain conditions found in Pennsylvania, namely: (1) Pennsylvania is an industrial State; (2) much of the population is concentrated in urban areas; and (3) a considerable proportion of the population is foreign-born or of mixed parentage. It is expected that, as a result of certain recent changes in the State child labor

law, the proportion of pupils 16 years of age and older in school will be increased considerably.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The first school administrative units in Pennsylvania were determined largely by religious groups. The Commonwealth was settled by Friends or Quakers, as well as members of other denominations. All of these people aimed to secure greater religious liberty, and they believed in the necessity of learning to read the Bible. Consequently they made efforts to establish schools as parts of their church organizations. In addition to these schools there were also other subscription or tuition schools.

The second provincial assembly, in 1683, passed an ordinance requiring that all persons having children must cause them to be taught to read and write, so that they might be able to read the Scriptures. A fine was imposed for failure to comply with this requirement. Because pioneer conditions, as well as language and religious barriers, made it unusually difficult to carry out this provision, it was not as effective as desired throughout the province.

The provisional constitution of 1776 specified that the Commonwealth should organize a school or schools in each county "with such salaries to the masters paid by the public as may enable them to instruct youth at low prices." An amendment to the constitution in 1790 provided "for the establishment of schools throughout the State, in such a manner that the poor may be taught gratis." The acts of 1802, 1804, and 1809 were based on the amendment of 1790.

The do-as-you-like idea persisted until the passage of the Free School Act of 1834. When this act was approved there were at least 4,000 school-houses in Pennsylvania. Local ministers were in charge of many of these schools. The first section of the act of 1834 provided that the city and the county of Philadelphia, and every other county in the Commonwealth, should each form a school division, and that every ward, township, and borough within the several school divisions should each form a school district. The act also provided that the secretary of the Commonwealth should serve as the superintendent of common schools.

The law of 1836 amended and consolidated the several acts regarding a general system of education by common schools. Many of its leading provisions remain to this day in full force. The school district boundaries have conformed substantially to those of the political divisions of the State.

The act of 1911 provided that, with certain exceptions, "Each city, incorporated town, borough, or township in this Commonwealth now existing or hereafter created, shall constitute a separate school district."

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Administrative units in Pennsylvania may be classified as *intermediate* and *basic* units.

Intermediate units—the county.—Each county constitutes an intermediate unit. It is intermediate, however, only for the supervision of instruction in the smaller basic units and for submission to the State of reports from these units.

Basic administrative units.—In the school law there are two provisions governing the classification of school districts: (1) Each city, incorporated town, borough, or township constitutes a separate school district. (2) Each district is classified, not on the basis of the type of governmental unit with which it is coterminous, but on its total population. The four classes of districts are as follows:

Class of district	Total population	Number of board members
First.....	500,000 or more.....	15, appointed by the court.
Second.....	30,000 or more but less than 500,000.....	9, elected by the voters.
Third.....	5,000 or more but less than 30,000.....	7, elected by the voters.
Fourth.....	Less than 5,000.....	5, elected by the voters.

In the actual administration of schools these four classes of districts have practically the same powers and duties. There is, however, a distinction among them in respect to the manner in which educational supervision is provided. Districts employing a superintendent provide their own educational supervision, while those not employing a superintendent are supervised by the county superintendent. First- and second-class districts must, third-class districts may, but fourth-class districts may not, employ a superintendent. Basic units may, therefore, be classified as follows:

Dependent administrative units—districts under county supervision.—Although third-class districts not employing superintendents and all fourth-class districts are almost entirely autonomous in administrative matters, they may be considered as dependent units with respect to supervision of instruction. They are under the supervision of the county superintendent who is in position to coordinate and to assist in improving their instructional programs.

Independent administrative units—districts independent of county supervision.—First- and second-class districts and third-class districts employing superintendents are entirely free from supervision by the county superintendent. Subject to State regulations, they function autonomously.

Some complexities and results of the organization of administrative units in Pennsylvania.—Of the two school code provisions governing classification of districts, particular emphasis should be placed upon the classification on the basis of population, because every school district in the State, regardless of its local designation, is classified as a first-, second-, third-, or fourth-class district, depending upon its population.

There are two exceptions to the provision that all districts must be coterminous with a political unit. One of these exceptions, because of its designation, is likely to cause some difficulty in an analysis of the administrative structure of the State public-school system. There are in Pennsylvania certain so-called "independent" districts which are formed from a portion of the territory of a district coterminous with a political unit (usually a township) upon petition to the county court of a majority of the taxpayers of the area wishing to become an "independent" district. These "independent" districts, classified on the basis of population, are fourth-class districts. Since they are under county supervision, they are *dependent* units, according to the classification followed in this publication.

The other exception to the rule that all districts must be coterminous with a political unit, is the union district which is formed by the merger of two or more districts of any class. Once formed, the union district functions as a single administrative unit and is classified as a first-, second-, third-, or fourth-class district according to its population.

TABLE 64.—Local school administrative units, school enrollment, and teaching positions in Pennsylvania distributed according to type of administrative unit, 1933-34

Type of administrative unit ¹	Units		Enrollment		Teaching positions	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
First class.....	2	0.1	398,005	20.0	11,577	18.7
Second class.....	20	.8	257,735	12.9	8,506	13.7
Third class.....	257	9.9	613,438	30.8	18,499	29.9
Fourth class.....	2,306	89.2	724,844	36.3	23,382	37.7
Total.....	2,585	100.0	1,994,022	100.0	61,964	100.0

¹ Legal classification on basis of population.

TABLE 65.—Local school administrative units, school enrollment, and teaching positions in Pennsylvania distributed according to type of administrative unit, 1934-35

Type of administrative unit ¹	Units		Enrollment		Teaching positions	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cities.....	47	1.8	745,049	37.7	22,861	36.8
Boroughs.....	872	34.2	579,293	29.3	18,303	29.4
Incorporated towns.....	1		1,885		49	
Townships.....	1,502	58.9	620,037	31.3	19,673	31.7
Independent districts.....	51	2.1	5,370	.3	181	.3
Union districts.....	2	.1	1,925	.1	60	.1
Joint 1-12 ²	74	2.9	18,362	.9	560	.9
Subtotal.....	2,549	100.0	1,971,921	99.6	61,687	99.2
Joint high schools ³			7,312	.3	411	.1
Joint vocational departments ⁴			84	.1	82	.1
Training schools in State teachers college.....			1,538	.1		
Total.....	2,549	100.0	1,980,855	100.0	62,180	100.0

¹ Classification according to governmental units with which coterminous.

² There were additional units maintaining no schools as follows: 13 boroughs, 19 townships, and 2 independent districts. The total number of administrative units in Pennsylvania is, therefore, 2,583.

³ A joint 1-12 "unit" is not legally a separate administrative unit but a school maintained by two or more districts. There are 37 schools of this kind maintained by 74 administrative units, including 30 boroughs, 43 townships, and 1 "independent" district.

⁴ Not administrative units, but schools or departments jointly maintained by two or more districts, each of which separately maintains other schools. These districts are tabulated in the proper classifications elsewhere in the table.

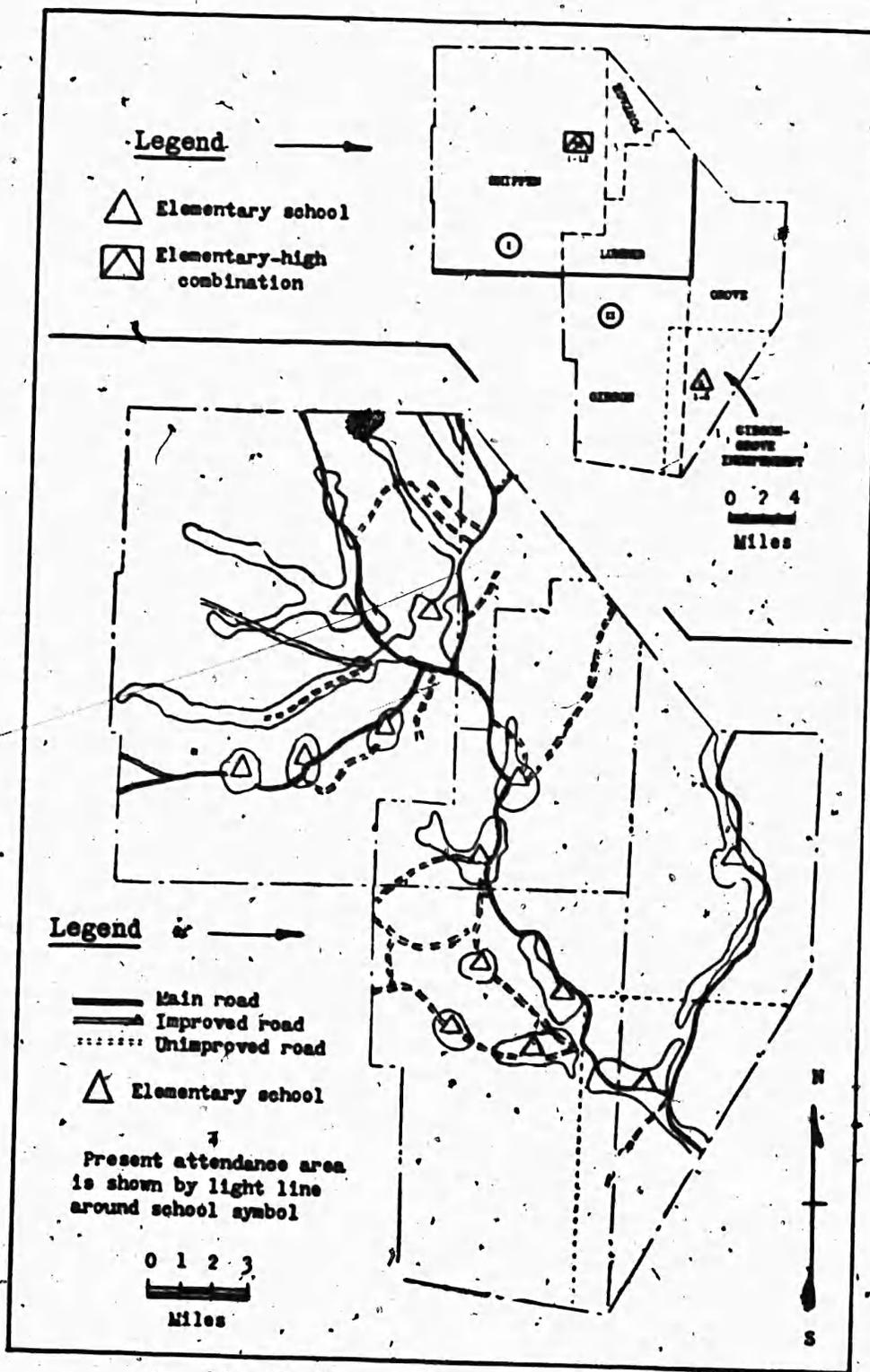
One administrative organization in Pennsylvania which is not an administrative unit but which serves as a substitute for one is the *joint school or joint department*. Districts which are too small to provide adequate enrollments for efficient and economical schools often do not merge or consolidate. In order to secure some of the benefits usually resulting from consolidation, two or more of these small units frequently cooperate to maintain a joint school to serve the children of the cooperating districts. In such cases the several districts retain their identity and may independently operate other schools in addition to the joint school or schools cooperatively operated. There may be joint elementary schools, joint high schools, joint 12-grade schools, or even joint departments, such as a joint department of vocational education.

When summarizing the foregoing discussions relating to administrative units in Pennsylvania, we find that:

1. Each county is an intermediate unit for the supervision of classroom instruction in small basic administrative units.
2. All basic administrative units, irrespective of other features, are classified among four groups on the basis of the total population of the districts.
3. With the exception of union districts, and the so-called "independent" districts, all basic administrative units are coterminous with a city, borough, incorporated town, or township. The fact that these basic units are or are not coterminous with political subdivisions has no effect on the functioning of a unit or on its legal classification on the basis of population.
4. Fourth-class districts, and third-class districts not employing superintendents, are subject to the educational supervision of the county superintendent and his assistants.
5. First and second-class districts, and third-class districts employing superintendents, are independent of county supervision.



FIGURE 6.—Pennsylvania: The attendance area. The upper picture shows a structure which was designed to serve a small attendance area; the lower picture shows a more modern building which will accommodate the pupils from a larger attendance area.



MAP X.—Cameron County, Pennsylvania.

Cameron County, located in the heart of the Allegheny Mountains, is one of Pennsylvania's smaller counties. In 1934-35 there were 8 districts of the fourth class (under county supervision), in which there are 17 attendance areas. It is proposed that the county be the administrative unit and the number of attendance areas reduced to two, one of which will maintain a 6-teacher elementary school with grades 1-6 and the other a 38-teacher elementary-high combined, with grades 1-12.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

In 1934-35 there were 2,583 administrative units with 1,980,855 pupils and 62,180 teachers. Approximately 24 percent of all districts have areas of 1 square mile or less, while about 10 percent have areas from 1 to 2 square miles. There is a second group of districts which are considerably larger. About 27 percent of all districts have areas from 10 to 25 square miles, while 23 percent have areas from 25 to 50 square miles. The mean area per unit is 17 square miles. (See table 66.)

TABLE 66.—Local school administrative units in Pennsylvania distributed on the basis of area, 1934-35

Square miles per unit	Units with no schools		Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0-1.....	15	44.2	254	18.2	347	29.9	616	23.8
1.1-2.....	1	2.9	55	4.0	211	18.2	267	10.3
2.1-3.....	4	11.8	19	1.4	67	5.8	90	3.5
3.1-4.....	1	2.9	12	.9	20	1.7	33	1.3
4.1-5.....			9	.6	32	2.8	41	1.6
5.1-10.....	3	8.8	74	5.3	47	4.1	124	4.8
10.1-25.....	7	20.6	500	36.0	186	16.0	693	26.8
25.1-50.....	2	5.9	384	27.6	194	16.7	580	22.5
50.1-75.....	1	2.9	56	4.0	41	3.6	98	3.8
75.1-100.....			23	1.7	11	.9	34	1.3
100.1-250.....			4	.3	3	.3	7	.3
Total.....	34	100.0	1,390	100.0	1,159	100.0	2,583	100.0

¹In Pennsylvania there are no units maintaining high schools only.

TABLE 67.—Local school administrative units coterminous with boroughs or cities, in Pennsylvania, distributed on the basis of area, 1934-35

Square miles per unit	Units with no schools		Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0-1.....	13	86.6	216	77.1	339	50.8	568	59.0
1.1-2.....	1	6.7	46	16.4	204	30.6	251	26.1
2.1-3.....	1	6.7	12	4.3	63	9.4	76	7.9
3.1-4.....			5	1.8	19	2.8	24	2.5
4.1-5.....					25	3.7	25	2.6
5.1-10.....			1	.4	11	1.7	12	1.2
10.1-25.....					6	.9	6	.6
25.1-100.....								
100.1-250.....					1	.1	1	.1
Total.....	15	100.0	280	100.0	668	100.0	963	100.0

¹In Pennsylvania there are no units maintaining high schools only.

LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 68.—Local school administrative units coterminous with townships or subdivisions of townships, in Pennsylvania, distributed on the basis of area,¹ 1934-35

Square miles per unit	Units with no schools		Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0-1.....	2	10.5	38	3.4	8	1.6	48	2.9
1.1-2.....			9	.8	7	1.5	16	1.0
2.1-3.....	3	15.8	7	.6	4	.8	14	.9
3.1-4.....	4	5.3	7	.6	1	.2	9	.6
4.1-5.....			9	.8	7	1.5	16	1.0
5.1-10.....	3	15.8	73	6.5	36	7.3	112	6.9
10.1-25.....	7	36.8	500	45.1	180	36.6	687	42.4
25.1-50.....	2	10.5	384	34.7	194	39.5	580	35.8
50.1-75.....	1	5.3	56	5.0	41	8.4	98	6.0
75.1-100.....			23	2.1	11	2.2	34	2.1
100.1-250.....			4	.4	2	.4	6	.4
Total.....	19	100.0	1,110	100.0	491	100.0	1,620	100.0

¹ In Pennsylvania there are no units maintaining high schools only.

TABLE 69.—Local school administrative units in Pennsylvania distributed on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled, 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools		Units with own elementary but joint high schools		Units with joint 1-12 schools		Units with joint 1-8 schools		Total		Number of joint high schools ¹		Number of joint schools 1-12 ¹		Number of joint schools 1-8 ¹	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
0-5	3	8	4	8	6	7	6	0	10	11	13	13	14	15	10	17	10	19
6-10	1										34	1.3						
11-20	20	1.5									1							
21-30	48	3.5									21	8						
31-50	100	7.3									48	1.8						
51-100	210	15.2	12	0.1	11	10.3	3	4.5	6	46.2	104	4.0	2	4.3				
101-150	247	17.9	62	6.3	11	10.3	12	17.9	1	7.7	244	9.5	14	29.8	2	6.5	1	16.7
151-200	170	12.3	49	5.0	14	13.3	13	19.4	1	7.7	333	12.8	8	17.0	1	3.2	2	33.3
201-250	135	9.8	72	7.3	10	10.0	8	11.9	1	7.7	247	9.6	5	10.6				
251-300	107	7.8	75	7.6	9	8.6	5	7.5			226	8.8	2	4.3				
301-400	120	8.7	110	11.2	12	11.4	10	14.9	1	7.7	196	7.6	2	4.3				
401-500	82	6.0	76	7.7	6	5.7	2	10.4			253	9.8	3	6.5				
501-1,000	115	8.3	213	21.6	22	21.0	4	6.0			171	6.6	3	6.4				
1,001-1,500	9	0.7	115	11.7	4	3.8					354	13.7	7	14.9				
1,501-2,000	2	0.1	58	5.9	2	1.9					69	2.7	1	2.1				
2,001-2,500	2	0.1	37	3.8	1	0.9					40	1.6						
2,501-3,000	1	0.0	22	2.2	1	0.9					26	1.0						
3,001-4,000			30	3.0							30	1.2						
4,001-5,000			19	1.9							19	0.7						
More than 5,000			34	3.5							34	1.3						
Total	1,379	100.0	985	100.0	105	100.0	67	100.0	113	100.0	2,583	100.0	47	100.0	31	100.0	6	100.0

¹ In Pennsylvania there are no units maintaining high school only.

² Not administrative units but schools maintained by administrative units which are accounted for elsewhere in the table. Enrollment of a joint school not included in enrollments of districts maintaining the joint schools.

³ 2 of these districts, Shenango Township, Lawrence County, and Broad Top Township, Bedford County, operate own high schools.



Districts coterminous with cities or boroughs are usually small in area, while the largest districts are those coterminous with townships. For example, 568 of the 616 districts each with an area 1 square mile or less are boroughs or cities; all of the 580 districts with areas ranging from 25 to 50 square miles are townships. (See tables 67 and 68.)

Districts in Pennsylvania, as a general rule, do not have extremely large or extremely small enrollments. Only 7.9 percent of all districts report 50 or fewer pupils and only 5.7 percent, 2,000 or more. (See table 69.) Most administrative units in the State fall between these extremes. More than one-half (55.4 percent) enroll between 100 and 500 pupils, and about one-fifth (21.5 percent), between 500 and 2,000.

TABLE 70.—Local school administrative units in Pennsylvania distributed on the basis of the number of teachers per unit, 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Units (with elementary schools only)		Units with elementary and high schools		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
0						
1	118	8.5	4	0.3	122	7.9
2-5	563	40.9	79	6.8	642	42.4
6-10	449	32.3	276	23.8	725	46.8
11-20	190	13.6	301	26.0	491	31.6
21-30	51	3.7	148	12.8	199	12.7
31-40	10	0.7	105	9.1	115	7.4
41-50	4	0.3	65	5.6	69	4.4
51-60	3	0.2	34	2.9	37	2.4
61-70	1	0.1	21	1.8	22	1.4
71-80			27	2.3	27	1.7
81-90	1	0.1	15	1.3	16	1.0
91-100			11	1.0	11	0.7
101-150			36	3.1	36	2.3
151-200			13	1.1	13	0.8
201-250			4	0.3	4	0.3
251-300			3	0.3	3	0.2
301-350			3	0.3	3	0.2
351-400			4	0.3	4	0.3
401-450			1	0.1	1	0.1
451-500			1	0.1	1	0.1
More than 500			8	0.7	8	0.5
Total	1,390	100.0	1,159	100.0	2,549	100.0

¹ In Pennsylvania there are no units maintaining high schools only.

The distribution of districts on the basis of number of teachers employed (see table 70) also shows a relatively small grouping at either extreme of the scale. Nearly 5 percent of all districts have 1 teacher, while less than 2 percent have more than 150 teachers. Approximately 75 percent of the districts employ between 2 and 20 teachers: Nearly 25 percent, from 2 to 5; about 28 percent, from 6 to 10; and 19 percent, from 11 to 20.

TABLE 71.—Schools, enrollment, and teachers in Pennsylvania distributed on the basis of number of teachers per school, 1934-35

Teachers per school	Schools		Enrollment		Teachers	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	5,733	64.1	167,176	19.3	5,733	21.2
2	908	10.2	60,697	7.0	1,816	6.7
3	966	10.8	429,777	50.0	3,761	13.9
4	663	7.4	162,816	18.8	4,860	18.0
10 or more	653	7.3	345,298	39.9	10,848	40.2
Total	8,923	100.0	865,763	100.0	27,018	100.0

Data for districts under supervision of county superintendents, do not include Philadelphia and other districts under the supervision of district superintendents.

These facts seem to indicate that many of the districts in Pennsylvania have sufficient numbers of pupils and teachers to permit each of them to establish schools large enough to provide a high standard of educational services at an economical cost. Data reflecting size of schools (see table 71) seem to indicate that, in general, this is not the case. About 65 percent of the schools in dependent districts have 1 teacher; an additional 10 percent, 2 teachers; and only about 7 percent, more than 10 teachers. Although many administrative units are large enough to permit the organization of more satisfactory attendance areas, it must be recognized that more effective administrative units can and should be organized by merging districts. The necessity for this is perhaps best illustrated by the fact that a number of small districts are cooperating with others to maintain joint schools.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The State.—In Pennsylvania, as in other States, the responsibility for public education rests with the State. Although the general assembly has from time to time delegated to the basic administrative units considerable authority for the maintenance and administration of schools, it has retained certain regulatory and prescriptive powers which it exercises through school legislation or which it delegates to the State department of public instruction or to the State council of education.

The State establishes standards for school buildings and for the program of studies in second-, third-, and fourth-class districts. It prescribes minimum salary schedules for teachers in each of the four classes of basic units. State funds are apportioned to a district only if these salary schedules are followed. The certification of teachers is now almost entirely a State function.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF AGENTS, AND AGENCIES
PERSONNEL, CURRICULUM, FINANCE,

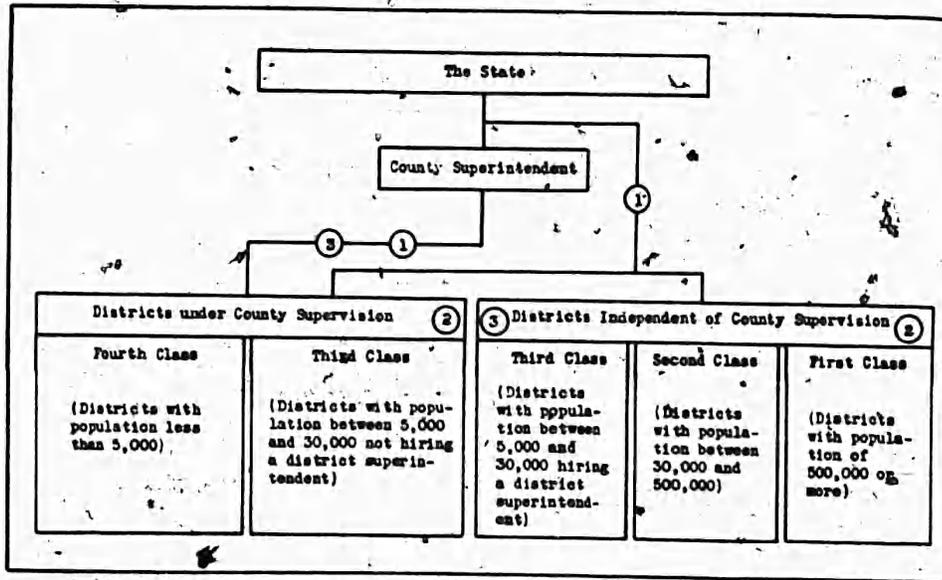


CHART XXXIII.—Pennsylvania: Personnel.

1. Certification of teachers is a function of the State. The county superintendent may issue temporary certificates in emergencies.
2. Selection of teachers is a function of the local basic units.
3. Supervision of instruction is the function of the county superintendent in districts under county supervision and a function of the basic units in other districts.

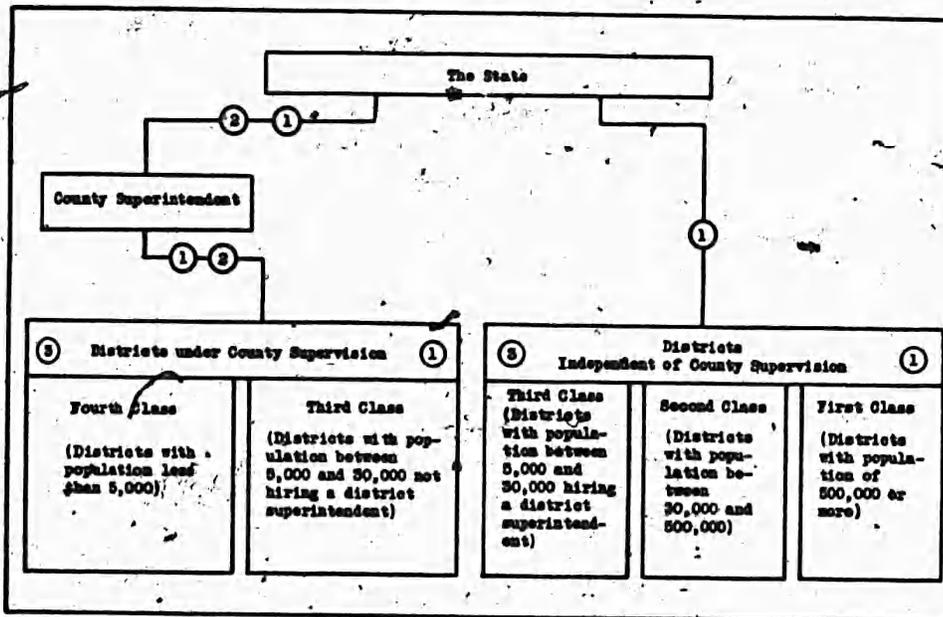


CHART XXXIV.—Pennsylvania: Course of study and textbooks.

1. In all districts the local boards have the final authority over the program of studies. All districts, however, must conform to State standards.
2. In districts under county supervision the county superintendent recommends the program of studies and enforces State standards.
3. In all districts selection of textbooks is a function of the basic unit. The State does not select an approved list.

OF SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN PENNSYLVANIA CONCERNING AND RECORDS AND REPORTS, 1936

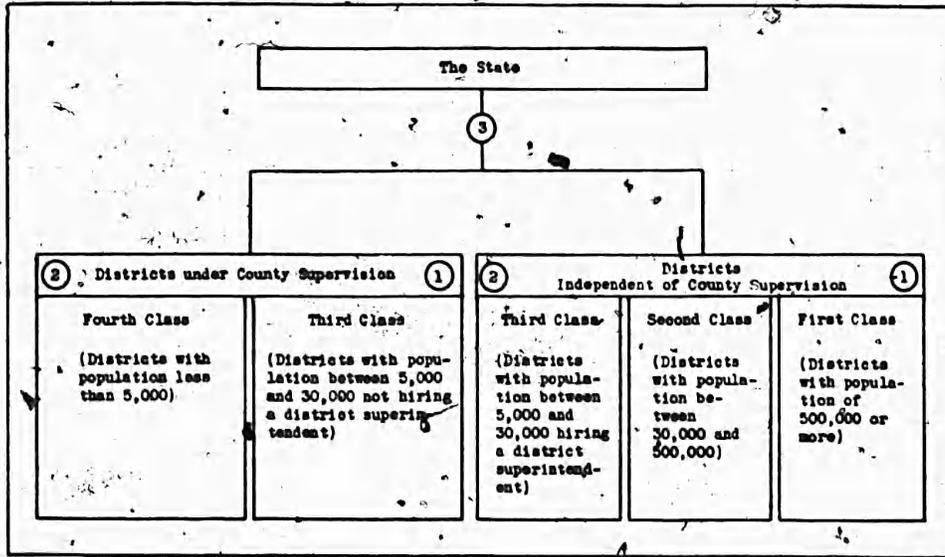


CHART XXXV.—Pennsylvania: Financial.

1. The preparation, approval, and administration of the budget are functions of each basic unit.
2. Tax control is a function of each basic unit.
3. State funds are sent directly to the basic units.

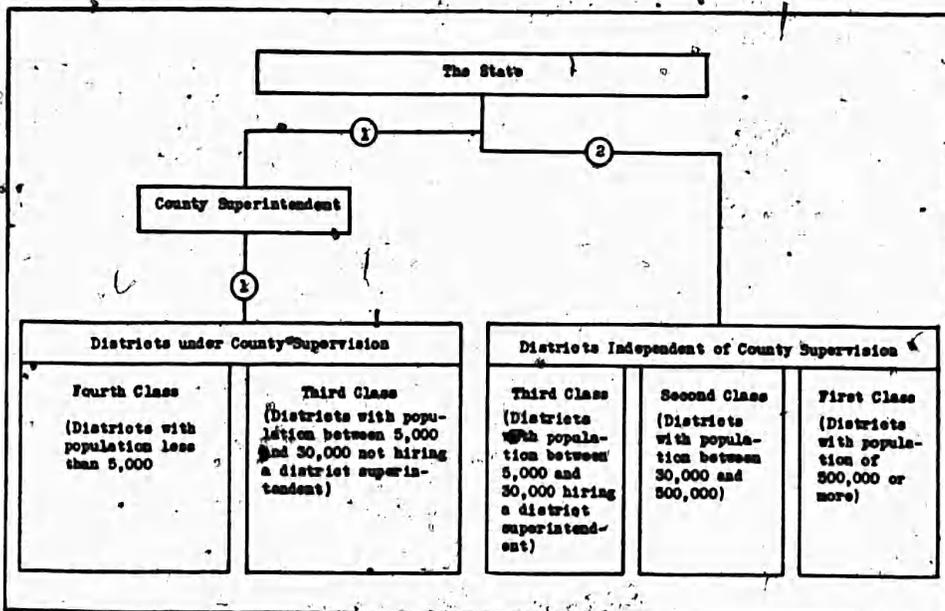


CHART XXXVI.—Pennsylvania: Records and reports.

1. Districts under county supervision report to the county superintendent, who in turn reports to the State.
2. Districts independent of county supervision report directly to the State.

The county.—The county superintendent, his assistants, and the county vocational education advisors are the county school officers. Prior to 1937, there was no county board of education. The county superintendent is selected for 4 years at a special convention of the school directors in the county. Upon the nomination of the county superintendent, assistant county superintendents may be appointed by the executive committee of this convention.

Legally, the authority of the county superintendent is limited largely to the supervision of classroom instruction in the dependent districts. Nevertheless, he plays an important part in the operation of the State school system, and is in a strategic position to exercise considerable educational leadership, not only in the coordination and the improvement of instruction in dependent districts but to some extent in the general management of such districts.

Powers in respect to teachers.—The county superintendent has no authority in respect to employing and dismissing teachers in the districts under his supervision. He has no authority in respect to issuing teachers' certificates except that in emergencies he is permitted to issue temporary certificates.

Powers in respect to the supervision of instruction.—This is the most important function of the county superintendent and his assistants. He is required to visit the schools of the county under his supervision in order to give direction in the art and methods of teaching and to rate the teachers he supervises. He holds institutes or other teachers' meetings for the purpose of assisting them. The county superintendent, as part of his school visitation work, inspects school grounds and buildings. He grades the school buildings and reports to the local board of directors any defects in the school plant. If there are insanitary conditions in a school building and the local board fails to correct them, the county superintendent can bring the case to the attention of the State department of health and the State department of public instruction for action.

Records and reports.—Districts under county supervision make their reports to the State through the county. In districts employing supervising principals, the principal is responsible for making the child accounting reports; in districts not employing supervising principals, the individual teachers report directly to the county superintendent. The financial report for each district under county supervision is made by the secretary of the board of school directors who, in a district not employing a supervising officer, acts somewhat in the capacity of the latter.

On January 11, 1937, a bill was introduced in and passed by the general assembly providing for county boards of education and giving them certain powers and duties in districts under the supervision of the county superintendent. It specifies that among its functions it shall be the duty of the county board to:

Inspect all district budgets and annual financial reports; give advice and assistance regarding such budgets and reports; advise local boards and make recommendations regarding transportation routes; apportion the cost of transportation among school districts that use the same transportation facilities; recommend the approval or disapproval of school sites and buildings; propose plans for the reorganization of school districts and attendance areas; and establish a uniform system of accounting.

The powers granted to the county board make the county a more effective agency for the coordination and improvement of schools. The act tends to increase rather than diminish the importance of the office of the county superintendent.

The basic administrative units.—In respect to the actual administration of schools, all four classes of districts have practically the same powers and duties. Boards of school directors are free to administer the affairs of their respective districts and to exercise the normal functions of a school board as they see fit; provided, of course, that they conform to State regulations.

Powers in respect to teachers.—In each type of district the local board has the ultimate authority for employing teachers. Only teachers holding State certificates, or emergency certificates issued by county superintendents, may be employed.

Powers in respect to supervision of instruction.—In each district employing a superintendent the classroom instruction is supervised by him or his assistants. As previously stated this function is performed by the county superintendent in the districts which do not employ a superintendent.

All districts must conform to State regulations in respect to program of studies, but have the authority to exceed the minimum State requirements. In districts under his supervision, the county superintendent enforces these State regulations and recommends desirable additions to the program of studies.

Powers in respect to finances.—In each type of district the local school board has the final authority for preparing and approving the school budget. There is very little distinction between the types of districts

in respect to this function, except that in each first-class district the budget is approved and the tax levy recommended by the city comptroller who is ex-officio school comptroller.

Powers in respect to provision of additional services.—Each school district of the first, second, and third class must employ an attendance officer or officers. Each fourth-class district may or may not employ such an officer. In fourth-class district, not employing an attendance officer, the secretary of the school board acts in that capacity.

Each first-, second-, and third-class district must employ a school medical officer and must provide for health examinations. Such a district may also provide additional health services. A district of the fourth class may not employ a medical inspector. For such districts the medical inspector is appointed and paid by the State.

Records and reports.—All districts must keep the records and prepare the reports required by law or requested by the State superintendent. Districts under county supervision submit their reports to the county. Other districts submit their reports directly to the State.

PROCEDURES FOR CHANGING BOUNDARIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The methods by which administrative units may change their boundaries are as follows:

1. When an area within a township is incorporated as a borough, the territory included within the borough boundaries may be approved by the State council of education as a separate school district.
2. Territory added to a political unit for governmental purposes becomes, upon approval of the State council of education, a part of the school district coterminous with the political unit.
3. Union districts may be formed by a favorable vote of the electors in each district wishing to unite.
4. An area within an administrative unit, coterminous with a political unit, usually a township, may be made an "independent" district (so-called) by the county court upon petition of a majority of the taxpayers.

The first two procedures listed above are contingent upon changes in the territory of political units and are not, strictly speaking, changes in school administrative units except that the school code provides that, with specified exceptions, every governmental unit, other than the county, shall constitute a school district. In such cases the question is frequently not

one of directly securing larger or better school districts but one involving a series of issues, such as the extension of water and sewerage systems, provision for fire protection, tax rates for municipal purposes, and the like.

TABLE 72.—Legal provisions for changing boundaries of local school administrative units in Pennsylvania, 1936

Automatic changes	By concurrent action of boards of education	By county court on petition of a majority of the taxpayers	By vote of electors in each district
1	2	3	4
1. Create school district (when area within township is incorporated as borough). ¹ 2. Annex territory (part of district or districts) to school district (when territory is added to political unit for governmental purposes). ^{1 2}	1. Establish joint schools or departments. ³	1. Create "independent" districts. ⁴	1. Form union district. ⁵

¹ Subject to approval of State council of education.

² Making school district coterminous with governmental unit.

³ The original districts retain their identity. This is in effect an enlargement of attendance areas but serves the purpose of enlargement of administrative units.

⁴ From area within administrative unit, coterminous with political unit, usually a township.

⁵ Election must be authorized by State superintendent and called by the local or county board.

"Independent" districts are usually formed when a small village or settlement, within a township, wishes to maintain its own schools but does not have sufficient population to become incorporated as a borough: They generally have approximately 100 pupils enrolled. The fundamental disadvantage in the formation of "independent" districts is that it tends to increase the number of small units. Although many of these districts have been created in the past, there is a tendency to merge them at the present time. The law creating county boards of education includes a plan for merging "independent" districts.

The provision in the State law which enables two or more districts to become a union district is practically nonoperative. Although a number of districts have merged with other districts and have lost their identity,

there are now only two union districts in the entire State. This is probably due to the operation of the State apportionment system and to the necessity of securing a favorable vote in each district concerned. These causes will be discussed more fully in the next section. The important point here is that it is unusually difficult to effect the union of school districts.

As previously indicated, the establishment of joint schools, requiring only concurrent action by the boards of directors of the districts concerned, has been a substitute for such unionization and, to some extent, serves the same purpose as the enlargement of administrative units. In effect, the establishment of joint schools is an enlargement of attendance areas. Each cooperating district must keep separate records for its share of the teachers' salaries and other expenses of the joint school in order to secure its share of State funds.

FACTORS ENCOURAGING AND DISCOURAGING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Although in Pennsylvania there are but few factors encouraging the enlargement of school districts, there are a number which definitely impede any enlargement, of which the most important are the system of apportioning State funds and the minimum salary schedules. In most cases enlarging a district to the point where its population is sufficient to place it in another classification brings with it additional financial obligations.

The State reimburses fourth-class districts and third-class districts that are townships from 50 to 75 percent of the cost of transporting pupils. If such districts, by expansion, become second-class districts, they no longer are reimbursed by the State.

The State annually apportions to each fourth-class district the sum of \$200 for each school closed since 1921. In a district which has consolidated as many as ten or twelve 1-teacher schools, this subsidy represents an important item in the district budget. If the district consolidates with another district and thereby acquires sufficient population to be classified as a third-class district, it will automatically lose this annual subsidy.

A higher salary schedule is required for a first-class district than for a second-class district; for a second-class district than for a third-class district; and for a third-class district than for a fourth-class district. In other words, as a district advances to the next higher class, it must pay higher salaries to teachers. At the same time, except in financially distressed districts, a smaller amount of State aid per teacher is granted. A fourth-class district of normal wealth receives from the State 50 percent of its teachers' salaries while a third-class district of the same per capita wealth receives 35 percent of its teachers' salaries.

In these several ways, then, the enlargement of school districts means both additional financial burdens and the loss of part of the State subsidies. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that districts have attempted to provide more nearly adequate educational offerings to all pupils by the establishment of joint schools rather than by unionization.

Pennsylvania apparently recognizes the necessity for improving the organization of local school units. The act of 1937 is a laudatory step toward the improvement of local school administrative units in Pennsylvania in that the county board of education is established as a coordinating and responsible agency. Under leadership of the State department of education, in cooperation with the State council of education and the county boards of education, Pennsylvania should find itself in a better position to effect an organization of local units of school administration more nearly conducive to the offering of a desirable minimum educational program.

Status and Operation of Local School Units in Tennessee

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

There are a number of factors affecting the maintenance and administration of schools in Tennessee which tend to increase the task of providing adequate educational opportunity.

Approximately one-third of the total population is between 5 and 19 years of age. The ratio of school-age children to adults is high. There are 700 persons 5 to 20 years of age for each 1,000 persons 21 to 65 years of age. The ratio for the United States as a whole is 574 to 1,000.

Nearly one-half, 46.5 percent, of the population live on farms and about one-fifth, 19.4 percent, in villages of less than 2,500 population.

Negroes constitute about 18 percent of the total population. Maintenance of separate educational facilities for Negro pupils involves a duplication of buildings, personnel, and services, with a consequent increase in school costs.

Tennessee has difficulty in carrying its unusually heavy educational burden. On such measures of economic ability to support public education as taxpaying ability, wealth per capita, income per capita, and retail sales per capita, Tennessee ranks very low among the States. It is not altogether surprising, therefore, to find that on measures of educational opportunity Tennessee also ranks among the lower group of States.

The percent of illiteracy is about 6 for the total population and nearly 15 for the Negro population.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The county as the pioneer administrative unit.—In the earliest plans for free public education, the county was the unit for local school administration. Laws passed in 1817 and 1823 provided for locally appointed county school commissioners to have charge of educational activities.

Apparently the county was considered too large as an administrative unit, for a law of 1830 directed that "school districts of convenient size" should be laid off in the several counties, each district to have its own board of school trustees chosen by popular vote. There was also provided for each county a board of school commissioners to handle certain school funds and to have limited supervision of the district schools. Thus a joint county-district system of administration was instituted, with the county board of school commissioners and the district boards of trustees cooperating.

The school district as the administrative unit.—In 1838 a law was enacted which established the school district as the unit for local administration,

with an elected board of school commissioners as the administrative agency. Under this law school districts became coterminous with civil units, but within a few years local officials were authorized to alter boundaries as they saw fit. This organization of local administrative units lasted until the Civil War disrupted educational activity.

Post-war reorganization.—The plan evolved by the Reconstruction Legislature of 1867 for reorganizing public schools made the counties intermediate units and provided for basic administrative units, coterminous with civil units, and for subunits. Divisions of territory within a civil district were called subdistricts, and each one had its own board of school directors. The civil district had a board of education consisting of the presiding officer from each subdistrict board of directors within the civil district. Over all was a county superintendent who supervised all schools in the county and served as treasurer of the school funds.

This administrative system was abandoned in 1870 by a new political regime which revived the pre-war school district organization.

Trend toward county control.—In 1873 a comprehensive general school law was passed providing that county and district officers work together in administering the schools. The county superintendent, county trustee, and county court functioned, respectively, as supervisor, financial officer, and local taxing authority for all schools in the county. A board of directors in each school district had immediate charge of the district school or schools. Many of the school districts at this time were coterminous with civil districts, but there was no fixed standard as to size.

The county unit.—A high-school law, passed in 1899, provided for high-school control on a county basis. A few years later several counties abolished their boards of district school directors in favor of the county-control plan for all schools. This led to the State-wide adoption in 1907 of the county as the unit for local administration. For the past 30 years the county has served as a basic administrative unit, with major administrative duties performed by the county superintendent, the county board of education, the county trustee, and the county court.

Special-type administrative units—cities and special school districts.—Under specific authority granted in their charters, a number of incorporated cities and towns have for years operated their own school systems as administrative units independent of any control by county school officers. While the form of administrative machinery varies, in a typical example, a city superintendent and a board of education manage the schools, and the regular city commissioners or the board of mayor and aldermen raise the necessary local funds.

Throughout the history of public schools in Tennessee, the legislature has, from time to time, exercised its right to fix the boundaries of school districts. In 1913 it initiated the practice of creating special school districts with authority to levy taxes and, in some cases, to establish administrative machinery. At succeeding sessions the legislature by special acts

created more districts. Some of these special districts functioned only as taxing areas for the purpose of financing building construction, while others had their own school boards and became dependent or independent basic administrative units.

During the past 10 years the number of special districts has been decreasing. Many have voluntarily gone out of existence and turned their schools over to county officials, and in recent school legislation private acts creating new districts have been less frequent.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The types of administrative units.—The fact that the county is not an intermediate unit, but is the predominating basic administrative unit in Tennessee, has already been pointed out. Attention has also been called to the fact that there are in existence certain districts in the State independent of county control: They are the city and special districts with functioning boards of education.

The county.—The county administrative unit consists of the territory within the county not included in those city or special districts independent of county control. In about half the counties where there are no such districts, the county is the sole basic administrative unit.

The city district and the special district.—It is difficult to give a single definition for the administrative units included under this heading. There is much variation among them, but those with functioning boards of education have the common characteristic of being independent of county control.

City school districts.—Towns or cities established by charters granted by the State Legislature usually constitute separate administrative school units. Under the charter provisions, city or town school boards are established and authorized to operate schools without any supervision by county school authorities. Although the organization of units for the administration of city schools varies widely, in most of the cities there are boards of education administering the schools. An exception is found in Chattanooga where the commissioner of education acts in the place of a board of education. Taxes for school purposes are levied by the city councils or boards of aldermen.

TABLE 73.—Local school administrative units, school enrollment, and teaching positions in Tennessee, distributed according to type of administrative unit, 1935-36

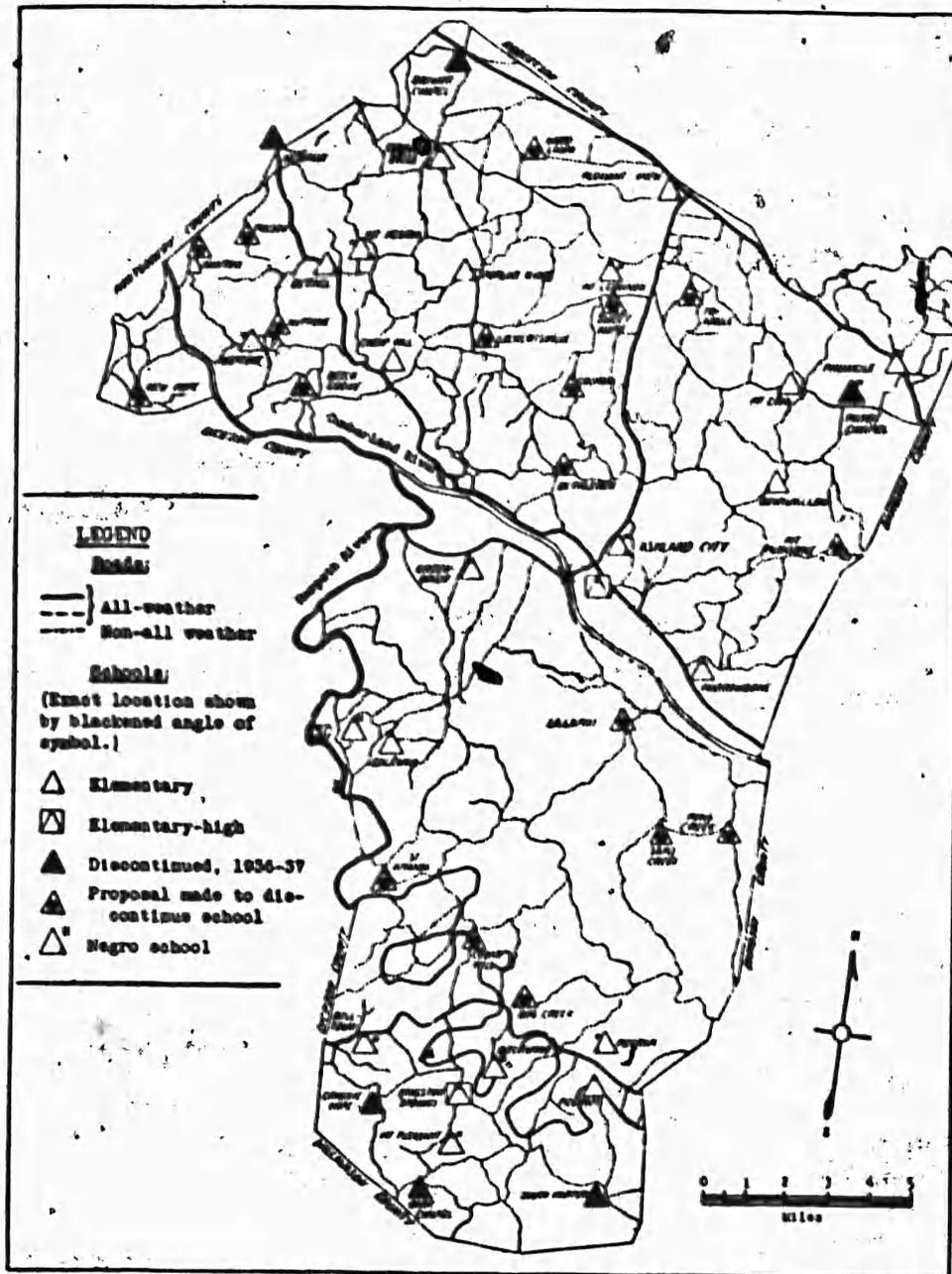
Type of administrative unit	Units				Enrollment				Teaching positions							
	Units with elementary schools only ¹		Units with elementary and high schools ¹		Units with elementary schools only ¹		Units with elementary and high schools ¹		Units with elementary schools only ¹		Units with elementary and high schools ¹		Total			
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent		
	Total		Total		Total		Total		Total		Total		Total			
City.....	25	39.1	13	11.8	30,942	69.6	142,273	23.3	173,215	26.5	828	70.1	3,778	20.4	4,606	23.3
Special.....	39	60.9	2	1.8	13,536	30.4	1,292	2	14,828	2.3	354	29.9	41	2	395	2.0
County.....	64	100.0	15	13.6	44,478	100.0	143,565	23.5	188,043	28.8	1,182	100.0	3,819	20.6	5,001	25.3
Grand total.....	64	100.0	110	100.0	44,478	100.0	609,747	100.0	654,225	100.0	1,182	100.0	14,746	79.4	14,746	74.7

¹ The division of units used in these headings represents a division based on practice and not on legal prescription. All units can provide both elementary and high schools. Some city and elementary districts provide only elementary schools, while others provide both elementary and high schools. All county units provide both levels of education.

Special school districts.—Special school districts are established by private legislation. There is no uniformity in the acts establishing them, which provides a variety of arrangements for their administration and for their relationships to the county administrative unit. Some complexities that exist and that must be considered in classifying these districts as dependent and independent are:

- (a) In practically every act creating a special district, the Legislature has set the tax rate for school purposes.
- (b) Many special districts were created for the sole purpose of financing new school buildings, and in such cases the proceeds of the special tax levies are used only to construct and equip buildings. The county pays the current cost of operating the schools, and the county school officers administer them.
- (c) In some cases the proceeds of the district tax levy are turned over to the county board to spend in managing the district schools.
- (d) In some cases the county board of education, in cooperation with a special district "advisory board" administers the schools of the special district.
- (e) There are cases of joint control and operation. Under special agreements, contracts, or provisions of private laws, these districts operate schools jointly with county units. There may be joint ownership of buildings by two units, and teachers may receive salaries from more than one source.
- (f) Boards of some special school districts have complete control over schools within their respective jurisdictions. In some instances, such boards report to the county superintendent who combines the statistics for these districts, as separate items, with those of county unit. Other district boards report directly to the State department of education.
- (g) Those special districts in which the local tax money, raised by the levy set by the Legislature, is turned over to the county school district or is used only for financing building construction, are regarded as forming a part of the county administrative unit.
- (h) School boards of some special school districts are almost entirely free from county control. In such cases, these boards have the same status and powers as boards of city school districts.

Since all special districts may not be considered as administrative units *independent* of the county, it should be understood that, in this chapter, the term "city and special districts" is used to include only those having functional boards, and that the term "county administrative unit" includes those special districts in which the county administers the schools.



MAP XI.—Cheatham County, Tennessee

Cheatham County is a typical rural county of the State. This map shows (1) the location of all schools; (2) the schools discontinued in 1936-37; and (3) the schools to be discontinued under the proposals of the State project staff. The problem in Cheatham County (which is one administrative unit) is to enlarge attendance areas.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

In Tennessee there are 174 basic administrative units, (95 counties, and 79 city and special districts) with a total of 654,225 pupils and 19,747 teachers.

The State has a high percentage of large administrative units, primarily because each county is a basic unit. The mean area per unit is 240 square

miles. The area of units and the density of population explain the large total enrollments and number of teachers employed per basic unit.

Approximately 80 percent of all administrative units have more than 500 pupils; 55 percent, more than 2,000 pupils; and 25 percent, more than 5,000 pupils. About one-fourth of the districts have fewer than 20 teachers; 48 percent, more than 90 teachers; and almost 30 percent, more than 150 teachers.

TABLE 74.—Local school administrative units in Tennessee distributed on the basis of the number of pupils enrolled,¹ 1935-36

Pupils enrolled per unit	Units with elementary schools only		Units with elementary and high schools ²		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1-50.....						
51-100.....						
101-150.....	1	1.6			1	0.6
151-200.....	1	1.6			1	.6
201-250.....	2	3.1			2	1.1
251-300.....	8	12.5			8	4.6
301-400.....	4	6.2			4	2.3
401-500.....	12	18.7			12	6.9
501-1,000.....	4	6.2			4	2.3
1,001-1,500.....	19	29.7	7	6.3	26	14.9
1,501-2,000.....	7	11.0	4	3.6	11	6.3
2,001-3,000.....	4	6.2	5	4.6	9	5.2
3,001-4,000.....	1	1.6	11	10.0	12	6.9
4,001-5,000.....	1	1.6	27	24.6	28	16.1
More than 5,000.....			13	11.8	13	7.5
			43	39.1	43	24.7
Total.....	64	100.0	110	100.0	174	100.0

¹ In Tennessee there are no units maintaining high schools only.

² If a unit offers 1 or more years of high-school work in addition to elementary grades, it is reported only in the elementary-high-school column.

TABLE 75.—Local school administrative units in Tennessee distributed on the basis of the number of teachers per unit,¹ 1935-36

Teachers per unit	Units with elementary schools only ²		Units with elementary and high schools ²		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1						
2-5	7	11.0			7	4.0
6-10	18	28.1			18	10.3
11-20	21	32.8	2	1.8	23	13.2
21-30	10	15.6	5	4.5	15	8.6
31-40	2	3.1	2	1.8	4	2.3
41-50	3	4.7	5	4.5	8	4.6
51-60	2	3.1	4	3.6	6	3.4
61-70			1	.9	1	.6
71-80			1	.9	1	.6
81-90			8	7.3	8	4.6
91-100			6	5.5	6	3.4
101-150	1	1.6	25	22.8	26	15.0
151-200			25	22.8	25	14.5
201-250			16	14.6	16	9.2
251-300			1	.9	1	.6
301-350						
351-400			1	.9	1	.6
401-450			2	1.8	2	1.1
451-500			2	1.8	2	1.1
More than 500			4	3.6	4	2.3
Total	64	100.0	110	100.0	174	100.0

¹ In Tennessee there are no units maintaining high schools only.

² If a unit offers 1 or more years of high-school work in addition to elementary grades, it is reported only in the elementary-high-school column.

In most of the existing administrative units in the State the numbers of pupils and teachers are large enough to permit the establishment of schools of such size as to provide maximum educational services economically. Actually, the schools in the State are, for the most part, small. About 44 percent of all schools have only 1 teacher; 71 percent, 1 or 2 teachers; 88 percent, 5 or fewer teachers; and only 5 percent, more than 10 teachers. It is apparent, therefore, that the problem in Tennessee is largely one of securing attendance areas of adequate size.

TABLE 76.—Schools, enrollment, and teachers in Tennessee distributed on the basis of number of teachers per school, 1935-36

Teachers per school	Schools						Enrollment						Teachers							
	White		Negro		Total		White		Negro		Total		White		Negro		Total			
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent		
1	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	13	13	14	16	17	18	18	19	19	
2	2,235	40.9	704	58.2	2,939	44.1	70,484	13.0	23,405	20.6	93,889	14.4	2,311	13.7	714	24.4	3,025	15.3	3,711	18.8
3	1,543	28.3	263	21.8	1,806	27.1	95,361	17.6	20,371	17.9	115,732	17.7	3,180	18.9	531	18.2	3,711	18.8	4,389	22.2
4	1,016	18.6	163	13.5	1,179	17.7	123,232	22.8	21,398	18.8	144,630	22.1	3,819	22.7	570	19.5	4,389	22.2	5,227	26.8
5	369	6.8	39	3.2	408	6.1	85,805	15.9	11,194	9.9	96,999	14.8	2,645	15.7	282	9.6	2,927	14.8	3,669	18.8
6-9	293	5.4	40	3.3	333	5.0	165,779	30.7	37,196	32.8	202,975	31.0	4,866	29.0	829	28.3	5,695	28.9	6,524	33.3
10 or more	5,456	100.0	1,209	100.0	6,665	100.0	540,661	100.0	113,564	100.0	654,225	100.0	16,821	100.0	2,926	100.0	19,747	100.0	22,673	100.0
Total	5,456	100.0	1,209	100.0	6,665	100.0	540,661	100.0	113,564	100.0	654,225	100.0	16,821	100.0	2,926	100.0	19,747	100.0	22,673	100.0

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The State.—In Tennessee, as in other States, the ultimate responsibility for providing public education rests with the State which has, however, delegated much of its authority to the local school administrative units. State regulations affecting basic administrative units are largely limited to the recommendation and approval of programs of studies, the adoption of textbooks, the certification of teachers, the prescription of rules for the distribution of State aid funds, and accreditation of high schools. The State acts in an advisory capacity in respect to the construction of school buildings, and to transportation, consolidation, and school libraries.

Basic administrative units.—For all practical purposes county units and city and special administrative units constitute coordinate agencies for the administration of schools. The sole relationship between the county and the city and special districts is that the county superintendent is charged with enforcing State textbook adoptions in city and special districts. Although there are variations due to provisions in the charters of city and special school districts, in general, all types of basic administrative units have the same powers and duties.

Except in counties where they are elected by popular vote, county superintendents are appointed by the county courts composed, in each case, of the magistrates of the county. City superintendents are appointed by the respective city boards of education. Special school districts usually do not have superintendents.

Powers in respect to maintaining schools.—Each county is required to maintain elementary schools and at least one high school. The authority to maintain elementary and/or high schools is determined by the provisions of the charters in the case of cities and by the special legislative acts in the case of special districts. When elementary schools only are maintained, as is the practice in many city and special districts, high-school facilities are provided by the county. By special acts of the Legislature, some counties have in recent years allocated to independent districts for the support of high schools State funds intended for county high schools. In effect, these independent district high schools become county high schools and are so reported to the State department of education.

Powers in respect to teachers.—The State is the only agency for certifying teachers. All basic administrative units have complete autonomy in selecting and appointing teachers.

Powers in respect to instruction.—In all administrative units the course of study must conform to legal prescriptions or to regulations by the State board of education or by the commissioner of education. Although the county and the city and special districts have considerable leeway in the selection of textbooks, they may use only books which have been adopted by the State Textbook Commission.

OPERATING RELATIONSHIPS OF AGENTS AND AGENCIES OF
SONNEL, CURRICULUM, FINANCE,

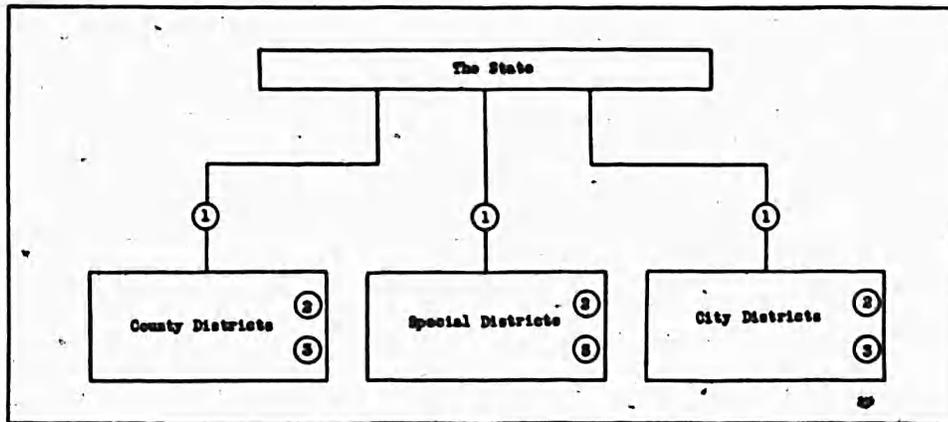


CHART XXXVII.—Tennessee: Personnel.

1. The State certifies all teachers.
2. The selection and appointment of teachers is a function of all basic units.
3. Supervision of instruction is a function of the chief executive in each basic unit.

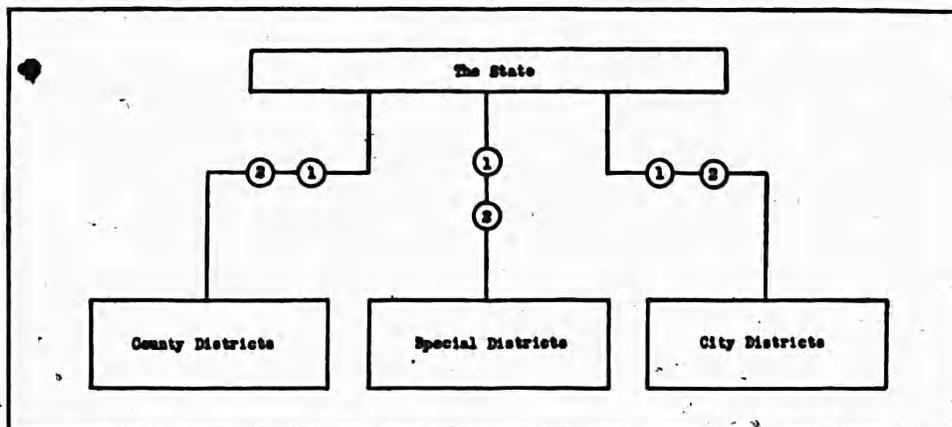


CHART XXXVIII.—Tennessee: Course of study and textbooks.

1. Programs of studies must conform to State regulations.
2. Textbooks are selected by the basic units from a group adopted by the State textbook commission.

City and county superintendents are responsible for classroom supervision in city and in county districts, respectively. In districts without superintendents, the principals have this responsibility.

Powers in respect to finances.—County school budgets are approved by the county court; city school budgets, by the city council. There is no uniform practice concerning approval of budgets of special school districts.

County tax levies for school purposes are made by the county court; city levies, by the city council. In the acts creating them, the Legislature fixes the tax rate for special school districts.

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT IN TENNESSEE CONCERNING PER- AND RECORDS AND REPORTS, 1936

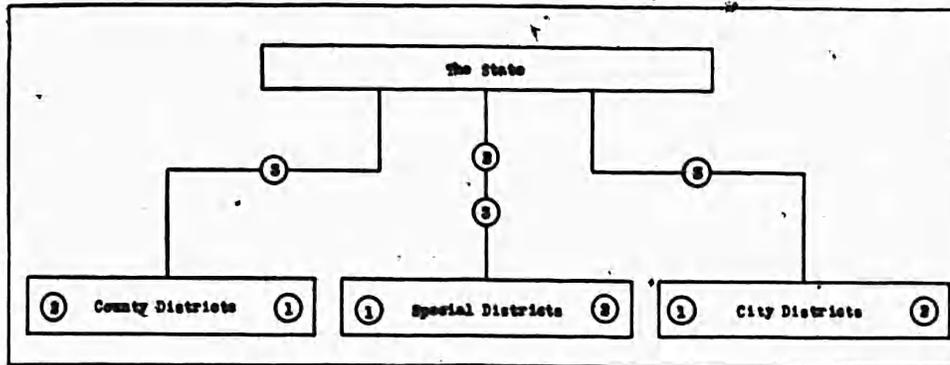


CHART XXXIX.—Tennessee: Financial.

1. County and city school budgets are approved by the county court and city councils.
2. County and city tax levies are made by the county court and city councils and the boards of education of the special districts. Tax rates are fixed by the legislative acts creating special districts.
3. State funds are sent directly to the basic units.

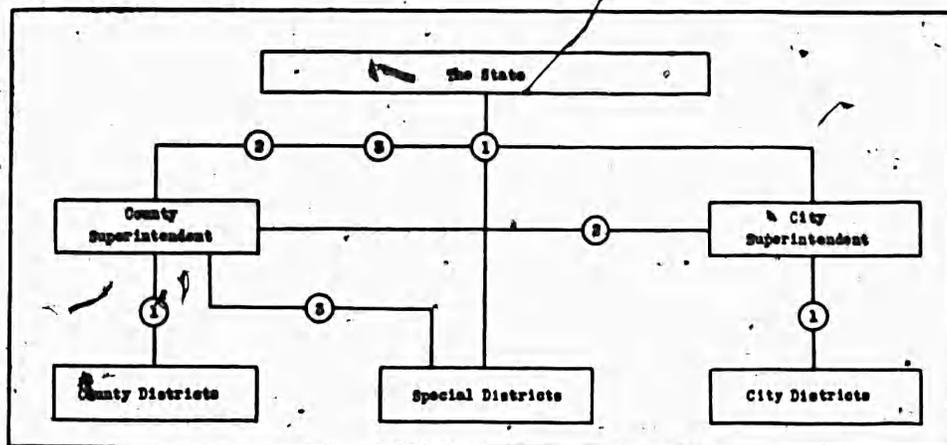


CHART XL.—Tennessee: Records and reports.

1. Each county superintendent and city superintendent sends annual financial and statistical reports to the State. Some special districts report directly to the State.
2. Each city superintendent also sends copies of reports submitted to the State to the county superintendent who includes them as special items in his report.
3. Some special districts send reports to the county superintendent who includes them in his report to the State.

Powers in respect to transportation.—Transportation is usually provided by counties but not by city and by special districts. This is due mainly to the small size of the latter and to the fact that in independent districts maintaining elementary schools only, the county assumes the responsibility for providing transportation necessary to fulfill its obligation to provide high-school opportunity for the pupils of such districts.

Records and reports.—City and county superintendents send annual financial and statistical reports to the State Department of Education. The city superintendent sends copies of his report to the county superintendent who includes it, as a separate item, in his annual report to the State. Some special district boards report all financial and school statistics directly to the State Department, while others report to the county superintendent, who incorporates these district data in his report to the State.

PROCEDURES FOR CHANGING THE BOUNDARIES OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

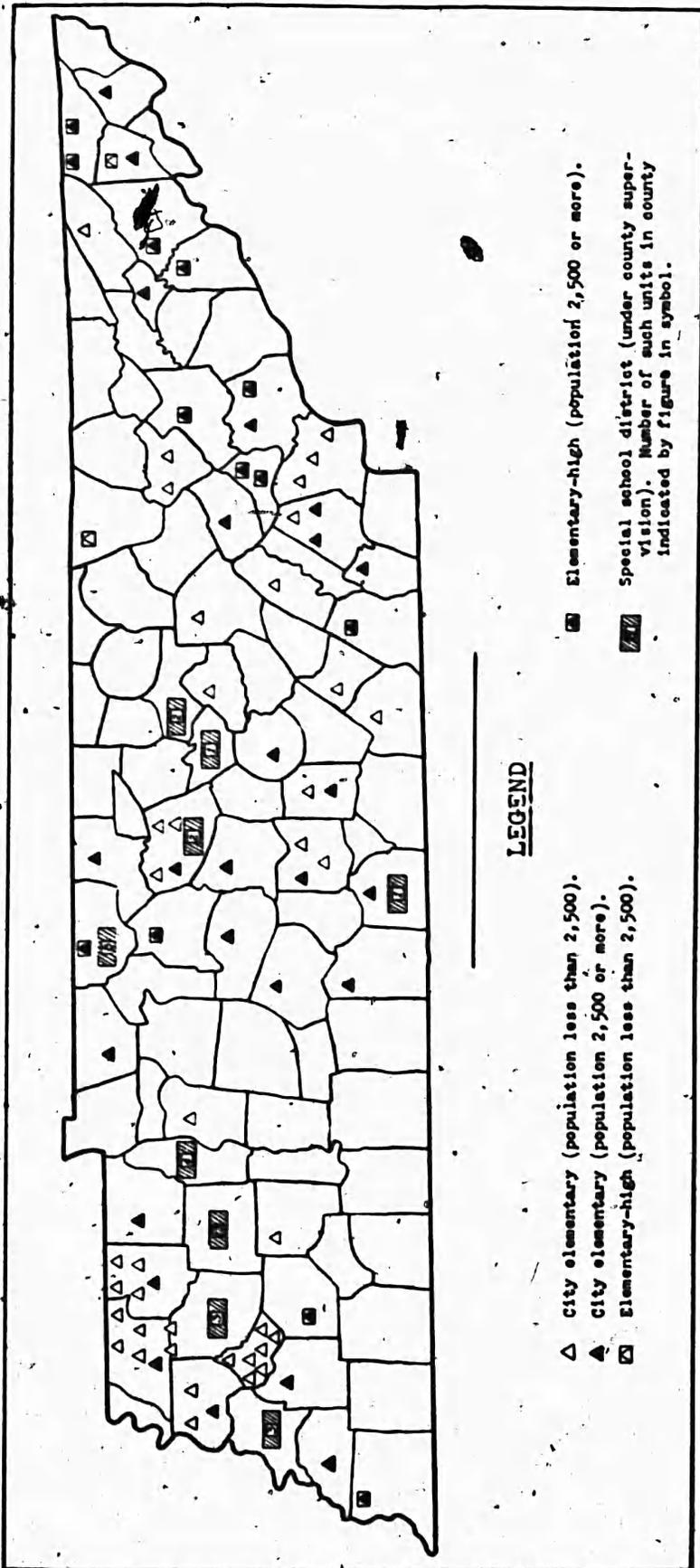
Special districts not encumbered by indebtedness may, by vote of the people, relinquish the legal control of schools and come under the county board of education. City districts may, by contracting with the county board of education to operate the city schools, give up control of their schools, or may, by having their charters amended, relinquish their authority to maintain schools. Such an amendment requires a special act of the Legislature.

Under the Tennessee constitution, legislative action, required to change the boundaries of a county, must be sanctioned by two-thirds of the qualified electors of the areas involved. Changes in the boundaries of city and special districts require legislative action, but not always a vote of the electors.

FACTORS ENCOURAGING AND DISCOURAGING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

In general, there are relatively few factors encouraging or discouraging the reorganization of administrative units. Attention has already been called to the State's principal problem—the organization of attendance areas of adequate size. Insofar as this problem affects schools already under county control, its solution, which is relatively simple in that it requires only action of the county board of education, depends largely upon the ability of the county to finance the erection of new buildings and the current cost of needed transportation. The enlargement of attendance areas presents a problem much more difficult of solution when it involves the modification of school district boundaries, especially those of city and special school districts.

City and special districts, particularly those maintaining elementary schools only, frequently constitute single attendance areas. The difficulty of modifying boundaries of such districts to include more territory has been cited under "Procedures for Changing Boundaries." It is possible, however, for city and special districts to surrender control of schools to the county board of education: This, in effect, constitutes a consolidation of such district with the county district. The one condition which operates



LEGEND

- △ City elementary (population less than 2,500).
- ▲ City elementary (population 2,500 or more).
- ◻ Elementary-high (population less than 2,500).
- ◻ Elementary-high (population 2,500 or more).
- ▨ Special school district (under county supervision). Number of such units in county indicated by figure in symbol.

MAP XII.—Tennessee: Administrative units.

There were 174 school districts in Tennessee in 1935-36: 95 counties, 38 city districts, and 41 special school districts. In addition, the map shows 37 special school districts under county control.

against consolidation under this procedure is that the special district must continue in existence so long as it has any bonded indebtedness. At the present time, there is a definite tendency for small independent districts to relinquish the control of their schools to the county.

TABLE 77.—*Legal provisions for changing boundaries of local school administrative units in Tennessee, 1936*

Automatic changes (by special legislative act)	By election called on petition of a percentage of electors in territory	By concurrent action of boards of education
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Change boundaries of county ¹ 2. Change boundaries of city and special districts ² 3. Annex territory to district of similar powers and duties. (Amend charters of city districts to relinquish authority to maintain schools) 4. Create special school districts ³ 5. Merge special districts, unencumbered by indebtedness, with county district 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Merge special districts, unencumbered by indebtedness, with county district 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Merge cities with county (by city district contracting with county board to operate city schools)

¹ Tennessee constitution requires sanction of such legislation by vote of two-thirds of qualified electors of the areas concerned.

² Vote of electors not required in all cases.

³ Some of which function only as taxing areas to finance new school buildings.

The smaller special districts are finding their financial obligations so heavy that they cannot adequately finance the current cost of operating their schools. In addition, the plan of distributing State aid to some degree favors the county unit. A large part of the State school funds is distributed on the basis of average daily attendance and is, therefore, shared by all types of administrative units. There are certain special grants for (1) high schools, (2) superintendents' salaries, and (3) the provision of a minimum 8-month term for elementary schools in all counties. These funds are distributed to the county units only; that is, they are not shared by any city or special districts. As a result of these factors, the trend toward a county unit system of administration is becoming more pronounced. It is significant that this trend is accompanied by the formation of larger attendance areas.

Summary: Status and Operation of Local School Units In the 10 States

The most important factors affecting the organization of local school units represented in this study are: (a) Geographic and topographic features, (b) existing patterns of educational administrative organization, and (c) sociological and economic factors arising from the composition of the population. Although only 10 States were included, the findings of this study will probably have significance for other States because the project States are fairly representative of the country as a whole. All but two of the generally recognized Divisions of States are represented: Pennsylvania from the Middle Atlantic Division; Ohio and Illinois from the East North Central Division; North Carolina from the South Atlantic Division; Kentucky and Tennessee from the East South Central Division; Arkansas and Oklahoma from the West South Central Division; Arizona from the Mountain Division; and California from the Pacific Division. The two Divisions not represented in the study are the New England Division and the West North Central Division.

Most of the patterns of school unit organization which have resulted from local geographical conditions or regional traditions are included in the study. The two exceptions are the administrative structure in which a supervisory union forms an intermediate unit, and that structure in which the entire county forms a single basic unit.

The total population of the 10 States studied is 42,673,468. Thus, although the 10 States constitute only 21 percent of the total number of States, they include 35 percent of the total population of the United States. It is probable that in the population of the States studied practically all of the religious, racial, economic, vocational, and cultural groups to be found in the entire United States are represented.

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC BACKGROUND

In considering the sociological and economic composition of the 10 States, two groups of factors are important: The first group includes those factors which affect the need for education and, therefore, help determine the extent of the task of providing education; and the second group, those affecting the State's financial ability and its effort to provide the needed education.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE NEED FOR PROVIDING EDUCATION

The amount and density of population.—The populations of the 10 States studied range from approximately one-half million in Arizona to nearly 10 million in Pennsylvania. In most of these States the population is not

increasing with sufficient rapidity to affect seriously the need for education. Only 3 of the 10 States—Arizona, California, and North Carolina—showed an increase in population from 1920 to 1930 of 20 percent or more. The State in which such increase has most directly affected educational need is California, with an increase of about 65 percent from 1920 to 1930.

In determining the difficulty of providing education, density of population is equally as important as, if not more important than, the total population. It is considerably easier to group pupils into large and effective schools and school units in States such as Pennsylvania with a density of population of 215 persons per square mile, or Ohio with a density of 163, than in a State such as Arizona with a density of only 4.

Nativity and racial groups.—States having a large population of foreign-born or native whites of foreign parentage often find the task of providing education more difficult because of varying educational needs. In Illinois 15 percent of the population is foreign-born and approximately 30 percent of foreign or mixed parentage. In Pennsylvania approximately 13 percent is foreign-born and nearly 27 percent of foreign or mixed parentage. In Arizona only 57 percent of the population is native white, while 26 percent is Mexican. Clearly, the educational needs of the Mexican population differ from those of the native white population. The group to be educated in Kentucky, with 90 percent of the population native white and mostly of native parentage, is relatively homogeneous.

The presence of a large population of Negroes tends to increase the educational load when separate schools are maintained. The States in which Negroes represent large percentages of the total population are North Carolina with 29 percent, Arkansas, with 26 percent, and Tennessee, with 18 percent.

Residence of population.—The 10 States vary widely in respect to the distribution of their population in urban communities, in villages, and on farms. The percentage of the population living in urban communities ranges from 21 in Arkansas to 74 in Illinois. The population in California, Illinois, Ohio, and Pennsylvania is predominantly urban, while that in Arizona, Arkansas, Kentucky, and North Carolina is predominantly rural. It is recognized that statistics revealing the percentages of population in rural and urban areas are not necessarily reliable guides to the extent to which rural residence affects the educational problem. Illinois, with 74 percent of its population in urban areas, is an illustration. Approximately 44 percent of the total population lives in Chicago, a single school administrative unit. The remaining 30 percent which is urban population is concentrated in only a few urban areas, including one city with a population of more than 100,000. In Illinois the operation of local school units is affected to a greater degree by rural residence than it would be in a State having an urban population as large as that of Chicago scattered in a number of small places. Compared with Illinois, Arizona has a relatively small urban population (34.4 percent), but 43 percent of the people in Arizona

live in villages and only 23 percent on farms. To some extent this grouping of population in cities and villages offsets the very low density of the population in Arizona. Although large percentages of their population live in urban centers, Pennsylvania and Ohio have relatively large percentages living in villages, many of which constitute small school units unable to supply all desirable educational services.

School population.—The relation between the number of children needing education and the number of adults who pay the cost is a significant indication of the extent of the educational burden in a State. The percentage of the total State population 5 to 19 years of age ranges from 23 in California to 37 in North Carolina. (See table 78 B.) The number of persons 5 to 20 years of age for each 1,000 persons 21 to 65 years of age is 399 in California and 861 in North Carolina. If other factors were equal, North Carolina would have to put forth more than twice as much effort as California to supply educational services. There are 574 persons 5 to 20 years of age to each 1,000 persons 21 to 65 years of age in the United States. This ratio is exceeded in Arizona, Arkansas, Kentucky, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.

School attendance.—The proportion of children in the several age groups who attend school varies. California, Illinois, Ohio, and Pennsylvania are educating more than 97 percent of all persons 7 to 13 years of age. These States differ, however, in respect to the percentages of pupils older than 13 years who are attending school. California, for example, has 97 percent of all persons 14 and 15 years of age and 82 percent of those 16 and 17 years of age in school, as compared with Pennsylvania's 91 percent and 49 percent. California, Ohio, and Oklahoma are the only States of the 10 in which more than 60 percent of children 16 and 17 years of age attend school.

Illiteracy.—The percentage of illiteracy is an indication of educational need. In general, those States with large proportions of Negroes or foreign-born whites have high percentages of illiteracy. The percentage of illiteracy for all groups in Arizona is 10, but for the native white group only 0.5. In Arkansas the percentage of illiteracy is 3.5 for native whites, as compared with 16 for Negroes. In Ohio the percentage of illiteracy for all groups is only 2.3, but for foreign-born whites it is 11.6.

ECONOMIC ABILITY AND EFFORT OF THE STATES TO PROVIDE EDUCATION

Measures of economic ability and effort.—There are indices which give a general idea of the ability, and other indices which show the efforts of the States to provide education. Data, provided in table 78 C, on the ability and effort of the project States to provide educational opportunity should be regarded as suggestive rather than definitive. California, Illinois, Ohio, and Pennsylvania rank relatively high on practically all measures of economic ability and on measures of effort, while Arkansas, Kentucky, North

Carolina, and Tennessee rank fairly low. The close relationship between the ranks of States on measures of ability and their ranks on measures of effort may be due to the fact that States spending large amounts per pupil for education are doing so because they are able to do so. From 1921 to 1932 Pennsylvania and Arkansas annually spent, on the average, practically the same percentage of their respective tax resources for schools: The percentage in Pennsylvania was 25 and in Arkansas 24. In 1932 Pennsylvania spent \$78.76 for each pupil enrolled; while Arkansas spent only \$24.08. It probably required more effort for Arkansas, which ranks lowest of the project States in taxpaying ability, to pay the smaller amount than for Pennsylvania, which ranks highest in taxpaying ability, to pay the larger amount.

TABLE 78.—Sociological and economic factors considered in studying the 10 States (A) Area and population, 1931

State	Total area in square miles	Population				Percentage distributions of population										Percentage of illiteracy				
		Census 1930; estimate for 1936 in parenthesis	Per-cent- age in- crease, 1930 over 1920	Per- cent- age of popu- lation	Den- sity per square mile	Native white			Total foreign-born white	Total white	Negro	Indian	Mex- ican	By residence		All groups	Native white	For- eign- born white	Negro	
						Total	Native per- cent- age	For- eign or mixed par- ent- age						Urban	Rural					On farm
Continental United States.....	3,036,789	8	6	100.0	41.3	7	8	0	10	11	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
Arizona.....	113,956	(406,000)	30.3	4	3.8	57.1	48.3	8.8	3.6	60.7	2.5	10.0	26.2	34.4	22.7	42.9	10.1	5	3.6	4.0
Arkansas.....	53,335	(1,854,482)	5.8	1.5	35.3	73.6	71.7	1.9	5	74.1	25.8			20.6	40.1	19.1	6.8	3.8	6.6	16.1
California.....	158,297	(6,059,000)	65.7	4.6	36.5	74.5	51.6	22.9	14.3	88.8	1.4	3	6.5	71.3	10.2	16.5	2.6	3	5.7	3.1
Illinois.....	56,665	(7,845,000)	17.7	6.2	136.2	79.3	49.4	29.9	16.0	95.2	4.3	4	73.9	13.0	13.2	2.4	6	9.0	3.6	
Kentucky.....	40,598	(2,883,000)	8.2	2.1	65.1	90.5	86.8	3.7	8	91.3	8.6			40.6	44.9	24.5	6.6	5.7	5.8	15.4
North Carolina.....	52,426	(3,170,276)	23.9	2.6	65.0	70.2	69.7	6	3	70.5	29.0	5		25.5	50.4	24.1	10.0	5.6	5.2	20.6
Ohio.....	41,040	(6,646,697)	15.4	5.4	163.1	85.6	65.1	20.5	9.7	95.3	4.7		1	67.8	15.1	17.1	2.3	7	11.6	6.4
Oklahoma.....	70,057	(2,396,040)	18.1	2.0	34.5	87.5	83.2	4.3	1.1	88.6	7.2	3.9	3	34.1	42.6	23.1	2.8	1.7	5.6	9.3
Pennsylvania.....	45,126	(9,651,350)	10.5	7.8	214.8	82.6	56.1	26.5	12.8	95.3	4.5			67.8	8.8	21.4	3.1	6	15.4	4.2
Tennessee.....	42,022	(2,616,556)	11.9	2.1	62.8	81.2	79.8	1.5	8	81.7	18.3			34.1	46.4	19.4	7.2	5.4	5.8	14.9

All data in this table are from the following publications, except as otherwise indicated:
 United States, Bureau of the Census, Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930, Washington, United States Government Printing Office, 1931.
 United States, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1935, Washington, United States Government Printing Office, 1935.
 Estimate furnished by Bureau of the Census.

TABLE 78.—*Sociological and economic factors considered in studying the 10 States: (B) Population of school age, 1930*¹

State	Number of persons 5-20 years of age to each 1,000 persons 21-65 years of age ²	Percentage of population		Percentage of persons in various age groups attending school			
		Under 5 years	5-19 years	7-13 years	14-15 years	16-17 years	18-20 years
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Continental United States.....	574	9.3	29.5	95.3	88.8	57.3	21.4
Arizona.....	615	11.5	30.6	90.8	85.4	56.6	22.6
Arkansas.....	753	11.3	34.5	90.6	84.9	59.5	22.6
California.....	399	7.1	23.3	97.6	97.2	82.1	32.7
Illinois.....	487	8.1	26.8	97.7	92.4	57.1	19.9
Kentucky.....	695	11.2	32.7	91.2	82.5	49.2	19.1
North Carolina.....	861	12.3	37.0	93.0	79.1	49.3	19.2
Ohio.....	517	8.6	27.5	97.9	96.6	67.7	22.8
Oklahoma.....	704	11.0	33.2	94.3	88.9	63.2	25.8
Pennsylvania.....	592	9.3	30.1	97.3	91.2	48.6	17.2
Tennessee.....	700	10.8	33.0	91.7	85.2	53.2	19.9

¹ All data in this table, except col 2, are from the following publication: United States. Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930. Washington, United States Government Printing Office, 1931. Vol. I, Population.

² Dawson, Howard A. Equalization of Educational Opportunity Through the Harrison-Fletcher Bill. Washington, National Education Association, 1935, 5 p. Mimeog.

TABLE 78.—Sociological and economic factors considered in studying the 10 States: (C) economic ability and effort to provide educational opportunity

State	Economic ability										Effort							
	Tax-paying ability per capita ²	Rank ³	Wealth per capita ⁴	Rank ⁵	Income per capita ⁶	Rank ⁷	Retail sales per capita ⁸	Rank ⁹	Percent paying ability required for schools ⁷	Rank ¹⁰	Current expenditures for schools per pupil enrolled ⁹	Rank ¹¹	Percent of tax resources expended for schools ¹⁰	Rank ¹²	Value of school property per pupil enrolled ¹¹	Rank ¹³	Average salary per teacher, principal, and superior ¹²	Rank ¹⁴
Continental United States.....	\$50.80	3	\$2,014.00	5	\$409.00	7	\$209.33	8	31.1	11	\$74.22	13	28.5	15	\$250.00	17	\$1,417.00	19
Arizona.....	52.79	26	2,402.00	17	402.00	18	174.48	32	35.0	29.5	91.29	13	34.5	11	188.00	32	1,605.00	9
Arkansas.....	23.88	45	1,097.00	44	170.00	47	96.52	47	65.0	43	24.08	43	24.1	42.5	90.00	45	593.00	49
California.....	56.09	22	2,083.00	30	580.00	4	320.05	2	27.5	15	119.98	2	34.0	13	391.00	3.5	2,189.00	4
Illinois.....	59.01	17	2,275.00	23	537.00	8	227.32	18	24.1	8	89.85	15	25.8	36	317.00	8	1,598.00	11
Kentucky.....	24.83	43	1,074.00	46	218.00	42	116.65	44	60.2	42	32.64	43	28.9	22	101.00	43	1,835.00	42
North Carolina.....	25.75	42	1,140.00	43	172.00	46	114.50	45	73.7	45	33.17	42	31.9	16.5	128.00	39	799.00	44
Ohio.....	57.16	20	2,198.00	25	434.00	15	213.19	21	27.0	13	85.54	17	28.0	28	296.00	12	1,573.00	12
Oklahoma.....	31.90	39	1,294.00	40	274.00	34	143.15	38	59.4	41	41.56	39	38.4	45	35.00	38	1,102.00	29
Pennsylvania.....	59.91	15	2,356.00	19	446.00	13	209.11	23	24.8	10.5	78.78	22	24.2	36.5	288.00	14	1,630.00	8
Tennessee.....	29.89	40	1,281.00	41	189.00	43.5	126.50	41	53.9	39	31.69	44	24.5	41	99.00	44	826.00	43

¹ Adapted from exhibits A and B in statement of Hon. Pat Harrison (Miss.) on equal opportunity for children. In Congressional Record, June 20, 1936; also reprinted privately. Unless otherwise indicated, rankings are from this source.

² Data derived from Chism, Leslie L. The economic ability of the States to finance public schools. New York, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1936; p. 124, table 27, col. 2 (Contributions to education, no. 669), and population estimates of Bureau of the Census. Taxpaying ability is based on the application to each State of the second model-tax plan of the National Tax Association as shown in Second report on a plan of a model system of State and local taxation, 1933.

³ Rank among the 48 States on item in preceding column; largest is assigned rank 1.

⁴ National Industrial Conference Board, Bulletin May 20, 1933. The national total is distributed among the States on the basis of the percent of 1930. National wealth allotted to each State in table 4, p. 96, of the Conference Board Bulletin, Feb-20, 1932. Per capita figures are derived by use of total population figures reported by the Bureau of the Census.

⁵ Sales management, Apr. 20, 1934.

⁶ Bureau of the Census, 1933.

⁷ Ashby, Lyle W. The efforts of the States to support education. Research bulletin (N. E. A.), 14: 150, May 1936. Taxpaying ability is based on taxes that could be raised in each State through the application of the second model tax plan of the National Tax Association. Funds required to support schools are based on the National average per pupil. The percentages here are those found by dividing the cost of a program of education in each State equal to the national average by the total taxpaying ability in that State.

⁸ Rank among the 48 States on item in preceding column; smallest is assigned rank 1.

⁹ Office of Education, Statistics of State school systems, Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1934, table 28, p. 91.

¹⁰ Office of Education, Bulletin, 1933, no. 2.

¹¹ Ashby. Op. cit., table 8, col. 8, p. 123, and table 1A, col. 8, p. 128.

¹² Office of Education. Op. cit. table 15, p. 71.

¹³ Office of Education. Op. cit. table 18, pp. 74-75.

In considering the economic ability and the effort of States to provide educational opportunity, the relationships of ability and effort to other factors affecting the educational burden should not be overlooked. Apparently, States with relatively low economic ability have relatively heavy educational burdens. Among the 48 States, Tennessee ranks from 39th to 43d on the several measures of economic ability. It has a high ratio of children of school age to adults, a large percentage of rural population, a high percentage of Negro population, and a comparatively high percentage of illiteracy. Arkansas, Kentucky, North Carolina, and Oklahoma are other States in which the educational load is heavy, and the economic ability to carry the burden is relatively low.

TYPES OF LOCAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

Legal classifications of school districts.—With three exceptions, the legal designations of types of school districts in one Project State are not used in any other project State. The exceptions are: "Common-school district" (Arizona, Illinois, and Oklahoma); "city district" (California, Ohio, North Carolina, and Tennessee); and "county district" or "county" (all project States). Frequently, the same legal designation in two States presents two different organizations. For example, the "common-school district" in Arizona legally may provide elementary education only, while the "common-school district" in Illinois may provide both elementary and secondary education; the "county district" in Ohio is an intermediate unit, while in North Carolina it is a basic administrative unit. On the other hand, districts having similar organizations, powers, and relationships bear different names in different States. For example, the "city district" in Tennessee and the "independent district" in Kentucky are similar in many respects, as are the "dependent majority districts" in Oklahoma and the "rural and village districts" in Ohio.

Each of the project States has a different legal basis for classifying districts. In Pennsylvania they are classified on the basis of population, as first-, second-, third-, or fourth-class districts. In Ohio they are classified partly on the basis of population, partly on the basis of assessed valuation, and partly on the basis of whether an incorporated village or city is included. In Oklahoma, districts are classified on the basis of whether an incorporated city or town is included, and also on the basis of the manner in which districts were established. In Illinois, the legal classification is based partly upon the population of districts, partly on the manner in which districts were established, and—in the case of high-school districts—partly upon the level of school work maintained. In California and Arizona, all school districts, exclusive of junior college districts, are classified as elementary districts or as high-school districts. In these two States, however, both elementary and high-school districts are classified also on bases other than the level of school work offered.

An analysis of the organization, functions, powers, and duties of districts in the project States (see table 79) reveals that the similarities between districts are as striking as the differences. As indicated in chapter III, these similarities form the basis for a classification of school districts useful in analyzing the administrative structure of public education in the several States. Although any important item on which districts show marked similarities or differences might be used as a basis for classification, an ideal classification would indicate (1) the functions of a district, and (2) the place occupied by it in the administrative structure of the State school system. For reasons pointed out in chapter III, it is felt that, under existing conditions, the nearest approach to this ideal is a classification showing (1) whether a district is an intermediate or a basic unit, and (2) whether a basic unit is dependent or independent.¹ In classifying districts in the project States on these bases, difficulties were encountered in some States in distinguishing between dependent and independent districts and between the county as a basic unit and the county as an intermediate unit. These difficulties are described in the following paragraphs.

¹ See chapter III.

TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions in 10 States, 1935-36

NOTE.—To get a true picture of the relationships between units and the significance of any one unit, all units in the State should be considered. Unless otherwise indicated, "board" or "superintendent" referred to in columns 5 through 12 is that named in column 4)

State and legal name of unit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	State and legal name of unit	Definition	Grades or schools legally authorized	Board, number of members, and executive officer	Responsibilities of educational and civil agents and agencies in connection with educational functions of administrative units	Certification and employment of teachers	Formulation of course of study
1. Common-school district.	ARIZONA	Unit for the support and administration of elementary education (usually including territory around a population center).	Grades 1-8; or grades 1-9	Board of trustees; 3 members. May employ superintendent or principal if A. D. A. of district is 300 or more.		Certified by State; appointed by board.	Determined by board; course of study must meet State requirements.
2. High-school district.		Unit for the support and administration of secondary education.	Grades 9-12; grades 9-14 at discretion of board.	Boards of trustees. May employ superintendent or principal if A. D. A. of district is 300 or more.		do	Do.
(a) Single		Coterminous with single common-school district.	do	do		do	Do.
(b) Union		Embraces two or more common-school districts.	do	do		do	Do.
(c) County union		Same as union but coterminous with entire county; has only one high school.	do	do		do	Do.
(d) County		Similar to county union; may have several high schools.	do	do		do	Do.
3. Junior-college district.		Unit for the support and administration of secondary education in grades 13 and 14.	Grades 13-14	Governing boards; 5 members		do	Do.
(a) Single (district)		Coterminous with single high-school district.	do	do		do	Do.

(b) Union.....	Embraces two or more high-school districts.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
(c) County.....	Coterminous with county.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
4. The county.....	Unit for providing general supervision of common-school, high-school, and junior-college districts.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Determined by superintendent for accommodation schools; must meet State requirements.
ARKANSAS					
1. School district.....	Unit for the support and administration of schools.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Determined by board, usually following suggested State course which is not mandatory.
2. The county.....	Unit for providing the general supervision of school districts.	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....
CALIFORNIA					
1. Elementary school district.....	Unit for support and administration of elementary education.	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....
(a) City.....	Includes a chartered or incorporated city of any class other than sixth class.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Determined by board; course of study must meet but can exceed State requirements.
(b) Regular.....	A single elementary district other than a city elementary district.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
(c) Union.....	Formed by a union of two or more regular districts.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
(d) Joint.....	Same as regular but includes territory in more than one county.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.

*Columns 7-12 appear on pp. 227-29.

TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions in 10 States, 1935-36—Continued

State and legal name of unit	Definition	Grades or schools legally authorized	Board, number of members, and executive officer	Responsibilities of educational and civil agents and agencies in connection with educational functions of administrative units	Formulation of course of study
1. CALIFORNIA—Con. Elementary school district—Con. (e) Joint union.....	3	3	4	8	8°
(f) Suspended.....	Whose A. D. A. has dropped to 5 or fewer and whose pupils have been transferred to an active adjacent district.	Grades 1-8.....	5 members.....	Certified by State; appointed by board.	Determined by board, course of study must meet, but can exceed State requirements.
2. High-school district.....	A unit for the support and administration of secondary education.	Grades 9-12.....	Governing board. May employ superintendent or principal.	Certified by State; appointed by board.	Determined by board. Course of study must be approved by State.
(a) City.....	Superimposed upon a city elementary district or upon a city elementary district and adjacent elementary districts.	do.....	Membership identical with elementary district board but separately organized as high-school district board.	do.....	Do.
(b) Regular or "district".....	Coterminous with a regular or union elementary school district.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
(c) Union.....	Superimposed upon two or more elementary districts of any type except joint.	do.....	5 members.....	do.....	Do.
(d) Joint union.....	Similar to union but superimposed upon elementary districts not all in the same county.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
(e) County.....	Coterminous with an entire county.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.

<p>3. Junior-college district</p>	<p>Unit for support and administration of secondary education in grades 13 and 14: Coterminous with a single high-school district of any type.</p>	<p>do.</p>	<p>Do.</p>
<p>(a) Single</p>	<p>Membership identical with high-school district board but separately organized as junior-college district board.</p>	<p>do.</p>	<p>Do.</p>
<p>(b) Separate</p>	<p>Superimposed upon two or more high-school districts.</p>	<p>do.</p>	<p>Do.</p>
<p>4. Unified school district (created July 1, 1936).</p>	<p>Unit for support and administration of elementary schools and high schools and/or junior colleges; formed when an elementary-school and high-school and/or junior-college district are coterminous and have boards of identical personnel.</p>	<p>do.</p>	<p>(See col. 4.)</p>
<p>5. The county</p>	<p>Unit for the general enforcement of school laws and the rules and regulations of the State department of education; for directly supervising instruction in certain elementary and unified districts; and for generally assisting local school districts in the performance of their assigned functions.</p>	<p>do.</p>	<p>Responsible for enforcing State regulations.</p>
	<p>Governing board</p>	<p>do.</p>	<p>Responsible for enforcing State regulations.</p>
	<p>Board of education; superintendent and 4 members (majority must be experienced and certified teachers).</p>	<p>do.</p>	<p>May examine teachers for certification in emergencies.</p>
	<p>County board of supervisors County auditor, county assessor, and county treasurer.</p>	<p>do.</p>	<p>Must conform to State requirements.</p>

*Columns 7-12 appear on pp. 229-30.

TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions of boards and officers in 10 States, 1935-36—Continued

State and legal name of unit	Definition	Grades or schools legally authorized	Board, number of members, and executive officer	Responsibilities of educational and civil agents and agencies in connection with educational functions of administrative units	Formulation of course of study
ILLINOIS 1					
1. Common-school district.	Unit for the support and administration of public education; usually provides only elementary schools.	Grades 1-12.....	Districts with less than 1,000 population have boards of directors of 3 or 5 members, others have boards of education of 7 or more members. (Boards of directors may not employ superintendents; boards of education may.) do..... do..... do.....	Certified by State; appointed by board.	Determined by board; course of study must conform to State regulations. Do. Do. Do.
(a) Common.....	An original school district which has never been consolidated.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
(b) Consolidated.....	Formed from two or more common-school districts by a vote in each district.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
(c) Community consolidated.	Formed from territory in two or more common-school districts by vote in entire area and in each city or town.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
(d) Special charter.....	Chartered by legislature.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
2. High-school district...	Unit for the support and administration of secondary education; includes all or parts of common-school districts not supporting high schools.	Grades 9-12.....	Number determined by charter provisions. Board of education: 5, 7, or more members. Employs principal.	do..... do.....	Do. Do.

(a) Community	Usually includes a community center and surrounding territory.	do.	do.	Do.
(b) Township	Composed of one or more school townships or parts of school townships.	do.	do.	Do.
(c) Validated township	Same as township, but validated by legislature after act under which organized was declared unconstitutional.	do.	do.	Do.
(d) Special charter	Chartered by legislature.	do.	do.	Do.
3. Non-high-school district	Unit established to pay tuition of high-school pupils residing in territory within a county not included in a district providing a 4-year high school.	do.	Board of education; 3 members and county superintendent ex officio.	Do.
4. The school township	Unit, 6 miles square, having jurisdiction over school districts within its boundaries.	do.	Boards of trustees; 3 members. Township treasurer is ex officio treasurer of each underlying district.	Do.
5. The county	Unit for the general supervision of all school districts within its boundaries.	do.	Acts as agent of State in examining teachers for certification.	Do.
KENTUCKY				Enforce State standards.
1. Independent district	Unit for the support and administration of schools; must include a city, or have 250 white census children, or have approval of State department of education.	do.	Grades 1-12	Determined by board. Course of study must conform to State regulations.

^eColumns 7-12 appear on pp. 231-32.

^fExcluding Chicago school district.

TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions of boards and officers in 10 States, 1935-36—Continued.

State and legal name of unit	Definition	Grades or schools legally authorized	Board, number of members, and executive officer	Responsibilities of educational and civil agents and agencies in connection with educational functions of administrative units	Certification and employment of teachers	Formulation of course of study
1		1				6
KENTUCKY—Continued						
2. County district	Unit for the support and administration of schools; includes all territory in the county except that in independent districts.	do	Board of education; 5 members. Appoints superintendent and may appoint assistant superintendent. (Some counties have sub-districts each with a district trustee.)		Certified by State; appointed by board, on nomination of superintendent (or of sub-district trustee if only an elementary school is located in subdistrict.)	Determined by board. Course of study must conform to State regulations.
NORTH CAROLINA						
1. City administrative unit.	Unit for the support and administration of schools; must have scholastic population of more than 1,000 and be approved by State school commission.	Grades 1-12.	Board of education (variety of names); 3-15 members. Superintendent appointed by board, approved by State school commission and State superintendent.		Certified by State; appointed by board.	Determined by board; must meet but may exceed course of study prepared by the State. Approved by State.
2. County administrative unit.	Unit for the support and administration of schools; includes all territory in the county except that in city administrative units.	do	Board of education; 3 or 5 members. Superintendent appointed by board, approved by State school commission and State superintendent. (All counties divided into subdistricts, each with a subdistrict committee.)		Certified by State; appointed by board on nomination of subdistrict committees.	Do.

SUMMARY

Ohio	Unit for the support and administration of schools; usually embraces rural territory, or, if it includes an incorporated place, has valuation of less than \$500,000, except district of less than 1,500 population which has voted to be rural district.	Grades 1-12	Board of education; 5 members. May not employ superintendent, but may delegate superintendent's powers to principal.	Certified by State; appointed by board on nomination of county superintendent.	Prepared by board; course of study must be approved by State director.
1. Rural district.....	Unit for the support and administration of schools; usually embraces rural territory, or, if it includes an incorporated place, has valuation of more than \$500,000, and, usually, a population of less than 3,000.	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....
2. Village district.....	Unit for the support and administration of schools; includes an incorporated place, with population of more than 3,000, whose local board has voted to become exempt from county supervision.	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....
3. Exempted-village district.....	Unit for support and administration of schools; includes an incorporated place, with population of more than 3,000, whose local board has voted to become exempt from county supervision.	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....
4. City district.....	Unit for support and administration of secondary education; composed of two or more districts whose boards cooperate to maintain a single high school. The cooperating districts retain their identity for elementary-school purposes.	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....
5. Joint high-school district.....	Unit for the general supervision of rural and village districts.	Grades 9-12.....	Joint high-school committee (composed of two members from each cooperating district board); has same powers as boards of districts comprising district.	See col. 4.....	See col. 4.....
6. The county.....	None; but may operate schools of rural or village district if district board fails to provide adequate educational services.	None; but may operate schools of rural or village district if district board fails to provide adequate educational services.	Board of education; 5 members. Appoints superintendent.	Certified by State. Superintendent nominates teachers in rural and village districts.	Board publishes a suggestive course of study.

*Columns 7-12 appear on pp. 232-33.

TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions of boards and officers in 10 States, 1935-36—Continued

State and legal name of unit	Definition	Grades of schools legally authorized	Board, number of members, and executive officer	Responsibilities of educational and civil agents and agencies in connection with educational functions of administrative units	Certification and employment of teachers	Formulation of course of study
OKLAHOMA						
1. Dependent majority district:	Unit, separately organized, for the support and administration of schools for the majority race in the district.	Grades 1-12	Board of education; 3 members.	Uses State course of study.	Certified by State. Elects own teachers subject to routine approval of county superintendent.	Do.
(a) Common	One of the original school districts—comprising one-fourth of a township—which has not merged with another district since its formation by the Territorial legislature.	May maintain more than one school but cannot transport pupils.	do	do	do	Do.
(b) Consolidated	Formed by merger of common-school districts involving centralization of schools.	Can maintain only one school (all grades); must transport pupils.	do	do	do	Do.
(c) Union graded	Formed by merger of common-school districts.	May maintain more than one school. If so, grades 7-12 in central building, and grades 1-6 in wing building. May transport pupils.	do	do	do	Do.
2. Independent majority district.	Unit, separately organized, for the support and administration of schools for the majority race. Must include a city of the first class, or an incorporated city or town and maintain an accredited 4-year high school.	Grades 1-12	Board of education; 3 or more members, depending on population, or charter provisions. May appoint superintendent. Governs the independent minority unit, as a separate unit.	Certified by State. Appointed by board.	Do.	Do.

3. Independent minority unit.	Unit, coterminous with an independent majority unit, for the support and administration of schools for the minority race.	do	Governed as a separate unit by the board of education of the independent majority district.	Directly administered by county superintendent.	Do
4. County minority unit.	Unit for the support and administration of minority schools in all dependent majority districts in county.	do	Superintendent. (No board of education.)	Superintendent enforces State standards in districts under his supervision, and may recommend additions to their programs.	Do
5. The county.	Unit for the general supervision of dependent majority districts and for administration of the county minority unit.	do	Board of school directors, 15 members. Must appoint superintendent.	Certified by State. Appointed by board after competitive examinations.	Do
PENNSYLVANIA					
1. First-class district	Unit, with population of 500,000 and over, for support and administration of schools.	Grades 1-12	Board of directors, 9 members. Must appoint superintendent.	Certified by State, appointed by board.	Determined by board. Course of study must meet but can exceed State requirements.
2. Second-class district	Unit, with population of 30,000 to 500,000, for support and administration of schools.	do	Board of school directors, 7 members. May appoint superintendent.	do	Do
3. Third-class district	Unit, with population 5,000 to 30,000, for support and administration of schools.	do	Board of directors, 5 members. Cannot appoint superintendent.	do	Do
4. Fourth-class district	Unit, under 5,000 population, for support and administration of schools.	do	Superintendent. (No board of education. See text.)	Certified by State. (Issues temporary teachers certificates in emergencies.)	Do
5. The county	A unit for the educational supervision of third-class districts not employing superintendents and of fourth-class districts.	do			

*Columns 7-12 appear on pp. 233-35.

† School districts, except a few small ones, are coterminous with governmental units and are classified on the basis of population.

TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions of boards and officers in 10 States, 1935-36—Continued

State and legal name of unit	Definition	Grades or schools legally authorized	Board, number of members, and executive officer	Responsibilities of educational and civil agencies and agencies in connection with educational functions of administrative units
1. City district	Unit for support and administration of schools; includes town or city constituted as school district when chartered by legislature.	Elementary and/or secondary schools depending on charter provisions.	Board of education (number of members varies); or commissioner of education acts as board depending on charter provisions. May appoint superintendent.	Certified by State; appointed by board.
2. Special district	Unit for support and administration of schools established by special act of legislature and having functioning board of education.	Do.	Board of education. Number of members depends on provisions of special act creating district. May appoint superintendent or principal.	Determined by board; course of study must conform to legal regulations.
3. The county	Unit for the support and administration of schools; includes all territory within the county except that in city districts and special districts with functioning boards.	Must maintain elementary schools and at least one high school. Provides high-school opportunity in city and special districts not maintaining a high school.	County board of education; 7 members. Superintendent appointed by county court or elected by voters.	Do.

*Columns 7-12 appear on pp. 235.

TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions of boards and officers in 10 States, 1935-36
 Note.—To get a true picture of the relationships between units and the significance of any one unit, all units in the State should be considered. Unless otherwise indicated, "board" or "superintendent" referred to in columns 5 through 12 is that named in column 4

State and legal name of unit	Adoption and selection of textbooks	Supervision of instruction	Preparation and approval of budget	Taxation	Depositing and disbursing funds	Preparation and submission of reports
1	7*	8	9	10	11	12
Arizona						
1. Common-school district	Must use textbooks adopted by State.	By superintendent or principal where employed; by county superintendent in small districts.	Prepared by board		Board draws orders on county treasurer.	Reports made to county superintendent.
2. High-school district	Selected by board	do	do	do	do	Do.
(a) Single	do	do	do	do	do	Do.
(b) Union	do	do	do	do	do	Do.
(c) County union	do	do	do	do	do	Do.
(d) County	do	do	do	do	do	Do.
3. Junior-college district	do	do	do	do	do	Do.
(a) Single (district)	do	do	do	do	do	Do.
(b) Union	do	do	do	do	do	Do.
(c) County	do	do	do	do	do	Do.
4. The county	Accommodation schools must use textbooks adopted by State.	By superintendent: District supervision in small districts (and accommodation schools); general supervision in other districts.	Superintendent consolidates district budgets; determines share to be borne by county; adds amount sufficient to establish county reserve fund, part of which may be used to support accommodation schools.	All taxes levied by county board of supervisors.	County treasurer deposits funds for all districts; expends funds on order of local district boards.	Superintendent summarizes district reports and transmits to State.

* Columns 1-6 appear on pp. 216-17.



TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions of boards and officers in 10 States, 1935-36—Continued

Responsibilities of educational and civil agents and agencies in connection with educational functions of administrative units—Continued						
State and legal name of unit	Adoption and selection of textbooks	Supervision of instruction	Preparation and approval of budget	Taxation	Depositing and disbursing funds	Preparation and submission of reports
1	7*	8	9	10	11	12
ARKANSAS						
1. School district.....	Must use State approved textbooks in elementary schools; may select any textbooks for high schools.	By superintendent in districts with such officer. (In others by county examiner, who is authorized but not required to visit schools.)	Prepared by board in districts of 2,500 or more; usually prepared by county examiner in other districts.	Levy set (within legal limits) by vote of electors.	Each district handles own funds.	Reports made to county examiner.
2. The county.....		County examiner authorized but not required to visit schools.	County examiner usually prepares budget for small districts.			County examiner summarizes district reports and transmits them to State.
CALIFORNIA						
1. Elementary school district.	Must use basic textbooks printed and provided by State; may select and purchase supplementary textbooks from State approved list.	Districts with more than 300 A. D. A. must provide supervision, either directly or by contract with county superintendent; county superintendent must provide supervision in elementary districts with less than 300 A. D. A.	Prepared by board.....		County court distributes State funds to local districts.	Reports made to county superintendent.

TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions of boards and officers in 10 States, 1935-36—Continued

State and legal name of unit	Responsibilities of educational and civil agents and agencies in connection with educational functions of administrative units—Continued					
	Adoption and selection of textbooks	Supervision of instruction	Preparation and approval of budget	Taxation	Depositing and disbursing funds	Preparation and submission of reports
1	7°	6	9	10	11	12
California—Continued.	Responsible for enforcing State regulations.	Provides supervision in elementary districts with less than 300 A. D. A. and in elementary schools in unified districts with less than 1,500 A. D. A. in the elementary schools. May provide such supervision in other districts or schools on contract.	Suggests changes and approves budgets submitted by basic districts and compiles an aggregate budget.	Computes amount to be raised by local taxation. Certifies amount to board of supervisors.	Must sign and charge orders for expenditures of district funds drawn by district boards of education.	Summarizes reports submitted by local districts and transmits to State.
5. The county.....	May prepare lists of supplementary elementary textbooks based on State approved lists.			Computes rate of school taxes in each district. County assessor and county treasurer assess and collect taxes.	County treasurer holds or deposits funds for districts and pays funds on orders of district board when signed by county superintendent and county auditor.	

ILLINOIS	1. Common-school district.	Selected by board.....	By county superintendent: Districts under direct supervision; districts under boards of education are under advisory supervision.	Prepared by board; approved by county superintendent.	Each district sets own tax rate which must be within legal limits unless extended by vote.	District board draws orders on township treasurer.	Reports made to county superintendent.
	(a) Common.....do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	(b) Consolidated.....do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	(c) Community consolidated.....do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	(d) Special charter.....do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	2. High-school district.....do.....	do.....	By county superintendent. Advisory supervision.	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	(a) Community.....do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	(b) Township.....do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	(c) Validated township.....do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	(d) Special charter.....do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	3. Non-high-school district.....do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	4. The school township.....do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	do.....	Do.
	5. The county.....do.....	do.....	By superintendent: Districts with boards of directors; advisory supervision in others.	Approves budgets of local school districts.	Taxes within legal limits levied by board.	Board draws orders on county treasurer for expenditure of funds. Township treasurer receives and deposits all funds for underlying districts; pays out funds on orders of local districts. Audits accounts of township treasurers.	Township treasurer submits to county superintendent financial reports for all districts. Summarizes reports from local districts and school townships; submits summaries to State.

*Columns 1-6 appear on pp. 219-21.
 †Excluding Chicago school district.

TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions of boards and officers in 10 States, 1935-36—Continued

State and legal name of unit	Responsibilities of educational and civil agents and agencies in connection with educational functions of administrative units—Continued					
	Adoption and selection of textbooks	Supervision of instruction	Preparation and approval of budget	Taxation	Depositing and disbursing funds	Preparation and submission of reports
1 KENTUCKY	7*	8	9	10	11	12
1. Independent district.....	Districts having less than 9-month term must use textbooks prescribed by State textbook commission; others select from multiple list approved by commission. do.....	By superintendent..... do.....	Prepared by board; must be submitted to State for approval. do.....	Taxes (within legal limits) indicated in budget must be levied by municipal government, in districts contiguous with cities of classes 1 to 4; and by fiscal court in others. Taxes set by budget must be levied by fiscal court if within legal limits. do.....	District treasurer expends funds on order of board. Treasurer of county boards deposits and disburses school funds. do.....	Report made directly to State. Do. Reports made directly to State board of education and to State school commission (See chart XXIV.) Do.
2. County district.....	Selected by board from a multiple list approved by State textbook commission. do.....	By superintendent..... do.....	Prepared by board and superintendent, to indicate amount needed from State and amount to be raised locally; must be approved by State school commission. do.....	Local taxes levied only for capital outlay and to supplement minimum program financed by State. Local taxes levied by civil authorities to provide amounts called for in approved budget. do.....	State funds for units held by State treasurer who issues check for each expenditure requested by local superintendent on approval of State school commission. Local funds held and expended by local officers. do.....	Do.
1. City administrative unit.						
2. County administrative unit.						

	Selected by board	By county superintendent	Prepared by board; must be approved by county budget commission and by State.	Tax rate set by county budget commission.	Deposits and disburses own funds.	Reports made directly to State and to county superintendent.
Ontio						
1. Rural district	do.	do.	do.	do.	do.	Do.
2. Village district	do.	By superintendent	do.	do.	do.	Do.
3. Exempted - village district	do.	do.	do.	do.	do.	Do.
4. City district	do.	do.	do.	do.	do.	Do.
5. Joint high-school district	See col. 4.	See col. 4.	See col. 4.	do.	Funds deposited as separate fund in treasury of school district in which located. Paid out by action of committee.	Reports included in reports of component districts.
6. The county	Board may refer superintendent's recommendations on textbooks to local districts.	By superintendent in rural and village districts.	Prepared by board for its own and county superintendent's expenses. Certifies its own budget to State.		Receives funds for its own expenses directly from State; expends own funds.	County board makes annual survey and reports to State.
OKLAHOMA						
1. Dependent majority district:	Must use textbooks adopted by State textbook commission.	By county superintendent: General supervision.	Prepared by board; must be approved by county excise board.	Tax levied by county excise board.	Funds held by county treasurer and expended on requisition of local board.	Reports are made to county superintendent.
(a) Common	do.	do.	do.	do.	do.	Do.
(b) Consolidated	do.	do.	do.	do.	do.	Do.
(c) Union graded	do.	do.	do.	do.	do.	Do.
2. Independent majority district.	do.	By superintendent (who also supervises independent minority unit).	do.	do.	May have own treasurer or may designate county treasurer to handle funds.	Reports made directly to State.
3. Independent minority unit.	do.	By superintendent of independent majority unit.	Separate budget prepared by board of independent majority district.	County-wide tax levied by county excise board.	do.	Do.

*Columns 1-6 appear on pp. 221-25.

LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 79.—Legal name and definition of administrative units and functions of boards and officers in 70 States, 1935-36—Continued

Responsibilities of educational and civil agents and agencies in connection with educational functions of administrative units—Continued						
State and legal name of unit	Adoption and selection of textbooks	Supervision of instruction	Preparation and approval of budget	Taxation	Depositing and disbursing funds	Preparation and submission of reports
1	7°	8	9	10	11	12
OKLAHOMA—Contd.						
4. County minority unit.	Must use textbooks adopted by State textbook commission.	By county superintendent.	County superintendent prepares budget.	County-wide tax levied by county excise board.	Funds held and expended by county, treasurer on order of county superintendent.	Reports made directly to State.
5. The county.	do.	By superintendent; General supervision in dependent majority units and direct in county minority unit.	Signs applications for State aid submitted by dependent majority districts. County excise board approves all budgets.	County excise board levies all taxes.	County treasurer handles funds for dependent majority districts; the county minority unit and independent units designating him as treasurer.	Do.
PENNSYLVANIA						
1. First-class district.	Selected by board.	By superintendent or his assistants.	Prepared by board; approved by city controller, who is ex officio school controller.	Tax levy recommended by city controller; set by board of directors.	Deposits and expends own funds.	Reports made directly to State.
2. Second-class district.	do.	do.	Prepares and approves own budget.	Board sets tax levy.	do.	Do.
3. Third-class district.	do.	If superintendent is appointed, supervised by him; if none, supervised by county superintendent.	do.	do.	do.	Superintendent reports directly to State; if no superintendent, reports made to county superintendent.
4. Fourth-class district.	do.	By county superintendent.	do.	do.	do.	Reports made to county superintendent.

The county	Supervises instruction in third-class districts not employing superintendents and in fourth-class districts.	Prepared by board; approved by city council.	Taxes levied by city council or board of aldermen.	Summarizes reports from local districts and transmits to State.
<p>Tennessee</p> <p>1. City district.....</p>	<p>By superintendent.....</p>	<p>Prepared by board; approved by city council.</p>	<p>Taxes levied by city council or board of aldermen.</p>	<p>Reports made directly to State and to county.</p>
<p>2. Special district.....</p>	<p>do.....</p>	<p>No uniform practice.....</p>	<p>Tax rate usually fixed by special act creating district.</p>	<p>Reports made directly to State. (Those without functioning boards report to county.)</p>
<p>3. The county.....</p>	<p>do..... (County superintendent enforces use of State textbooks in all districts.)</p>	<p>Prepared by superintendent; approved by county court.</p>	<p>Taxes levied by county court.</p>	<p>Reports made to State for county district (in which reports are included reports of special districts without functioning boards).</p>

*Columns 1-6 appear on pp. 225-26.

† School districts, except a few small ones, are coterminous with governmental units and are classified on the basis of population.

Administrative dependence and independence of basic administrative units.— Usually there is little, if any, difficulty in identifying independent units because they are entirely free from all supervision or control, except that exercised by the State. In many States there is no difficulty in determining whether districts are dependent. Although districts in Illinois exercise considerable local autonomy, every administrative unit in the State, except Chicago, is to some degree responsible to the county superintendent, as the officer of the intermediate unit. Since no matter affecting a local district can be referred to the State department of education except through the county superintendent, districts in Illinois, except Chicago, have been classified as dependent. In some States districts which, according to the definition stated in chapter III, should be classified as dependent are so nearly autonomous that there may be some hesitancy in so classifying them. In California, the county superintendent, the county board of education, the county board of supervisors, the county auditor, and the county treasurer have certain responsibilities and functions in connection with the operation of all school districts within the county. In Pennsylvania, the county superintendent has no jurisdiction over dependent districts other than to supervise classroom instruction. In spite of the administrative weakness of the intermediate units in California and Pennsylvania, all basic units in California and those basic units subject to the educational supervision of the county superintendent in Pennsylvania have been classified as dependent. It is thought that the situation in which the units in these two States operate is totally different from the one in which a district having no relationships with any unit other than the State operates.

Distinguishing between the county as a basic unit and the county as an intermediate unit.—In Kentucky, North Carolina, and Tennessee the county, as a basic administrative unit, and in Ohio, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania the county, as an intermediate unit, embraces that territory of the civil county not included in independent school administrative units.

Normally there is little difficulty in deciding whether a county, functioning as a school unit, is an intermediate or a basic unit. In most cases it is relatively easy to determine whether the officers of a county school unit are primarily concerned with supervising the operation of basic administrative units or with the direct support and administration of schools. Two situations in which it may appear difficult to decide whether a county is functioning as an intermediate or as a basic unit are (1) when the county, functioning as a basic unit, is divided into subdistricts which may be confused with the dependent districts within a county functioning as an intermediate unit; and (2) when the officers of the county, functioning as an intermediate unit have, in addition to their primary function of supervising administrative units, a secondary responsibility for directly administering some schools.

The difference between the county as a basic and as an intermediate unit may be illustrated by the respective situations in Kentucky and Ohio.

In Kentucky some of the county school units are divided into subdistricts, each with its own trustee. Although these trustees have certain functions, they exercise no powers which are not subject to ultimate control by the educational officers of the county. For example, the trustees of subdistricts maintaining elementary schools only, may nominate teachers for those schools, but the teachers are appointed by the county board of education. The ultimate authority for administering schools rests with the county board of education, and the subdistrict organization is merely a device for exercising that authority. The county school unit in Kentucky, therefore, is a basic administrative unit. In Ohio, the county superintendent nominates teachers for schools in local districts under the jurisdiction of the county, but these teachers are elected by the local boards of education. The ultimate authority for directly administering schools rests with the local boards of education and not with the county. Therefore, in Ohio, the county is an intermediate unit and the districts under its jurisdiction are dependent units.

Examples of the situation in which a county functions as an intermediate unit and also directly maintains some schools are found in Arizona and Oklahoma. Since the primary function of the county superintendent is the "general oversight" of school districts within the county boundaries, the county in Arizona is an intermediate unit. In many counties in Arizona there is territory which, because of sparse population, is not organized into school districts. As part of the county superintendent's responsibility for "general oversight" of education within the county, he is responsible for providing educational opportunities for children living in the unorganized territory of the county by maintaining accommodation schools (usually small, 1-teacher schools). Although the county in Arizona thus performs some of the functions of a basic administrative unit, these are secondary to, and logically a part of, its functions as an intermediate unit. The primary function of the county superintendent in Oklahoma is likewise the supervision of dependent administrative units within the county. In Oklahoma separate schools must be maintained for whites and Negroes. Since most districts under the jurisdiction of the county are so small that they can maintain school for the majority race only, the responsibility for supporting and for administering minority schools in all dependent districts within the county is given to the county. Thus, as in Arizona, the county in Oklahoma, serving primarily as an intermediate unit, does perform some functions of a basic administrative unit.

The position of the county as an intermediate unit.—In the 10 project States the amount of authority exercised by the county as an intermediate unit varies considerably. In Pennsylvania and California the county is largely a service organization performing for dependent units functions which they are not organized to perform themselves. Even in Illinois, where all school units are responsible in some degree to the county superintendent, the county as an intermediate unit has no direct authority over schools or school districts.

Although, generally speaking, in none of the project States using the county as an intermediate unit is the county legally given direct administrative authority over dependent units, it occupies a strategic position in the administration of public education, especially in rural areas. It is possible for county superintendents of counties, functioning as intermediate units, to be exceedingly influential in guiding the educational progress of the districts under their supervision. The findings of the study seem to indicate that in States with many administrative units having small enrollments and employing few teachers, the operating efficiency of such units is greatly improved, when they are under the supervisory jurisdiction of an intermediate unit.

Although there are no two project States exactly alike in respect to the organization and operation of administrative units, it is possible to classify the 10 States into three groups on the basis of the position occupied by the intermediate unit in the State school system:

- (1) Kentucky, North Carolina, and Tennessee have no intermediate units. In these States the county functions as the basic administrative unit.
- (2) In Arizona, Illinois, and California, the county as an intermediate unit has some degree of jurisdiction over all basic units within its boundaries. These three States differ among themselves in respect to the authority and mode of operation of the intermediate units but are alike in that all basic units have some relationship with an intermediate unit. In Illinois the township functions as a sub-intermediate unit between the county and the dependent units.
- (3) In Oklahoma, Ohio, and Pennsylvania the intermediate units have jurisdiction over some, but not all, basic units. In these States the units under the jurisdiction of the intermediate unit are in most cases the small basic administrative units.

Arkansas has not been classified in any of the above groups because of the peculiar conditions existing within the State. There is legal provision for an intermediate unit having jurisdiction over all basic units within its boundaries, and, therefore, Arkansas, theoretically, should be classified with Arizona, Illinois, and California. However, since the substitution of the county court and the county examiner for the county board of education and the county superintendent, the intermediate unit in Arkansas has been practically nonexistent. Recent changes in the school law, which make the office of county examiner a full-time position, indicate that the county as an intermediate unit is again becoming a real factor in the administration of education in Arkansas.

NUMBER AND SIZE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS.

In 1935, the number of pupils enrolled in the schools of the States studied was 9,377,766, and the number of teachers employed, 288,951. Of the 28,619 administrative units in the 10 States, 28,344 maintained schools while

275 did not. The statistics revealing the number of schools are not complete, but 9 States reported 47,250 schools. For two of these States, however (Ohio and Pennsylvania), only schools under the supervision of the county superintendent are reported. In several States data were not available for a few administrative units.

THE SIZE OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

Three measures have been used in considering the size of local school administrative units: Area, number of pupils enrolled, and number of teachers employed. From the standpoint of indicating the probable efficiency of school districts, the number of pupils enrolled and the number of teachers employed are more important than area. The findings of this study concerning the relationships between the size of school districts and their educational efficiency are discussed in chapter XV.

TABLE 80.—Local school administrative units by legal designation distributed according to operating relationships, for 10 States, 1936

State	Independent basic units	Dependent basic units	Intermediate units
1	2	3	4
Arizona.....		Common-school district, single high-school district, union high-school district, county-union high-school district, county high-school district, single junior-college district, union junior-college district, county junior-college district.	The county.
Arkansas.....		School district.....	Do.
California.....		City elementary district, regular elementary district, union elementary district, joint elementary district, joint-union elementary district, suspended elementary district, city high-school district, regular high-school district, union high-school district, joint-union high-school district, county high-school district, single junior-college district, separate junior-college district, unified school district.	Do.

TABLE 80.—Local school administrative units by legal designation distributed according to operating relationships, for 10 States, 1936—Continued

State	Independent basic units	Dependent basic units	Intermediate units
1	2	3	4
Illinois	Cities with population of 500,000 or more (Chicago).	Common-school district, consolidated common-school district, community consolidated common-school district, special charter common-school district, community high-school district, township high-school district, validated-township high-school district, special-charter high-school district, non-high-school district.	The school township. The county.
Kentucky	Independent district, county district.		
North Carolina	City administrative unit, county administrative unit.		
Ohio	Exempted-village district, city district.	Rural district, village district, joint high-school district.	The county.
Oklahoma	Independent majority district, independent minority district.	Common-school district, consolidated district, union-graded district, county minority unit.	Do.
Pennsylvania	First-class district, second-class district, third-class district (employing district superintendent).	Third-class district (not employing district superintendent), fourth-class district.	Do.
Tennessee	City district, special district, county district.		

TABLE 81.—Local administrative units, school enrollment, and teaching positions in 10 States distributed according to type of administrative unit, 1934-35

Type of administrative unit by State	Units		Enrollment ¹		Teaching positions		Mean enrollment per unit (Col. 4+Col. 2)	Mean number of teaching positions per unit (Col. 6+Col. 2)	Mean area (land) per unit (on total units)
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent			
ARIZONA¹									
Common school.....	367	86.2	76,147	81.8	2,125	79.2	207.5	5.8	
High school.....	59	13.8	17,004	18.2	559	20.8	288.2	9.5	
Total.....	426	100.0	93,151	100.0	2,684	100.0	218.7	6.3	262.2
ARKANSAS									
School districts.....	3,134	100.0	463,693	100.0	12,424	100.0	148.0	4.0	16.8
CALIFORNIA¹¹									
Elementary:									
City.....	21	7	35,911	2.6	1,084	2.5	1,710.0	51.6	
Regular.....	2,367	79.4	228,940	16.6	8,256	19.3	96.7	3.5	
Joint.....	52	1.7	3,861	0.3	138	0.3	74.3	2.7	
Union.....	204	6.8	40,607	2.9	1,458	3.4	194.1	7.2	
Joint union.....	8	0.3	2,178	0.2	75	0.2	272.3	9.4	
Suspended district ¹	736	1.2							
Total elementary.....	2,688	90.1	311,487	22.5	11,011	25.7	115.9	4.1	58.6
High school:									
County.....	5	2	2,369	0.2	76	0.2	473.8	15.2	
Union.....	212	7.1	177,528	12.7	6,153	14.4	837.4	29.0	
Joint union.....	24	0.8	10,082	0.7	395	0.9	420.1	16.5	
Total.....	241	8.1	189,979	13.7	6,624	15.5	788.3	27.5	656.8
Elementary-high school:									
City elementary-high.....	37	1.2	857,679	62.1	24,298	56.9	23,180.5	656.7	
Regular-high.....	18	0.6	24,069	1.7	819	1.9	1,337.2	45.5	
Total.....	55	1.8	881,748	63.8	25,117	58.8	16,031.8	456.7	
Grand total.....	2,984	100.0	1,383,214	100.0	42,752	100.0	463.5	14.3	52.1
ILLINOIS									
Common school: ¹									
(a) Units maintaining elementary schools (grades 1-8).....	10,750	91.4	1,037,751	75.6	34,164	72.4	96.5	3.2	
(b) Units maintaining elementary and high school grades.....	482	4.1	203,705	14.8	7,234	15.1	422.6	15.0	
Total.....	11,232	95.5	1,241,456	90.4	41,398	87.7	110.5	3.7	
High school.....	524	4.5	131,864	9.6	5,781	12.3	251.6	11.0	
Grand total.....	11,756	100.0	1,373,320	100.0	47,179	100.0	116.8	4.0	4.7

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 81.—Local school administrative units, school enrollment, and teaching positions in 10 States distributed according to type of administrative units, 1934-35—Con.

Type of administrative unit by State	Units		Enrollment		Teaching positions		Mean enrollment per unit (Col. 4 + Col. 2)	Mean number of teaching positions per unit (Col. 6 ÷ Col. 2)	Mean area (land) per unit (on total units)
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent			
KENTUCKY									
County.....	120	40.0	424,069	62.8	11,985	66.1	3,533.9	99.9	
Independent.....	180	60.0	201,707	32.2	6,141	33.9	1,120.6	34.1	
Total.....	300	100.0	625,776	100.0	18,126	100.0	2,085.9	60.4	133.9
NORTH CAROLINA									
County.....	100	60.0	659,989	73.9	17,707	74.8	6,599.9	177.1	
City.....	67	40.0	232,659	26.1	6,005	25.3	3,472.5	89.6	
Total.....	167	100.0	892,648	100.0	23,712	100.0	5,345.2	142.0	291.9
OHIO									
City.....	109	5.7	754,840	60.4	22,572	55.6	6,925.1	207.1	
Exempted village.....	57	3.0	55,904	4.5	1,764	4.4	980.8	30.9	
Rural and village.....	1,737	91.3	439,864	35.1	16,243	40.0	253.2	93.5	
Total.....	1,903	100.0	1,250,608	100.0	40,579	100.0	657.2	213.2	21.5
OKLAHOMA									
Independent majority district.....	11,401	8.1	344,247	52.1	9,477	48.4	858.5	23.6	
Dependent majority district.....	114,383	88.5	269,950	40.9	8,618	44.1	61.6	2.0	
Total.....	114,784	96.6	614,197	93.0	18,095	92.5	128.1	3.8	14.6
Independent minority unit.....	111	2.3	26,660	4.0	818	4.2	240.2	7.4	
County minority unit.....	56	1.1	19,419	3.0	655	3.3	346.8	11.7	
Total minority units.....	167	3.4	46,079	7.0	1,473	7.5	275.9	8.8	419.4
Grand total.....	114,951	100.0	660,276	100.0	19,568	100.0	133.4	4.0	14.0
PENNSYLVANIA									
Cities.....	47	1.8	745,049	37.7	22,861	36.8	15,852.1	486.4	
Boroughs.....	18,872	34.2	579,293	29.3	18,303	29.4	664.3	20.1	
Incorporated towns.....	1		1,885		49		1,885.0	49.0	
Townships.....	191,502	58.9	620,037	31.3	19,673	31.7	412.4	11.1	
Independent districts.....	1351	7.1	5,170	3.3	181	3.3	105.3	3.5	

	2	1	1,925	1	60	1	462.5	30.0
	1074	2.9	18,362.	.9	560	.9	234.6	7.6
Union districts joint 1-12 ¹¹								
Subtotal	112,549	100.0	1,971,921	99.6	61,687	99.2	773.6	24.2
Joint high schools ¹⁷			7,312	.3	411	.7		
Joint vocational departments ¹⁷			84		82	.1		
Training schools in State teachers colleges ¹⁸			1,538	.1				
Subtotal			8,934	.4	493	.8		
Grand total	112,549	100.0	1,980,855	100.0	62,180	100.0	777.1	24.4
TENNESSEE								
City	38	21.8	173,215	26.5	4,606	23.3	4,558.3	121.2
Special	41	23.6	14,828	2.3	395	2.0	361.7	9.6
Total	79	45.4	188,043	28.8	5,001	25.3	2,380.3	63.3
County	95	54.6	466,182	71.2	14,746	74.7	4,907.2	155.2
Grand total	174	100.0	654,225	100.0	19,747	100.0	3,759.9	113.5
Grand total, 10 States	28,344	100.0	9,377,766	100.0	288,951	100.0		239.6

¹¹ Information not available for 1 independent majority and 5 dependent majority units. The total number of majority units is, therefore, 4,790 and the grand total number of school administrative units in Oklahoma is 4,957.

¹² Each minority school system in an independent district constitutes, in effect, a separate unit for administrative purposes. It is under the supervision of the majority race board of education of the independent district, but in actual administration, it is not a part of the majority race school system. It is not, however, a separately organized district.

¹³ All minority schools in dependent districts in any one county are directly administered and supervised by the county superintendent and, therefore, may be considered as constituting a county unit.

¹⁴ The classification of administrative units is according to governmental units with which coterminal; for legal classification see table 64.

¹⁵ There were additional units maintaining no schools as follows: 13 boroughs, 19 townships, and 2 independent districts. The total number of administrative units in Pennsylvania is, therefore, 2,583.

¹⁶ A joint 1-12 unit is not, legally, a separate administrative unit but a school maintained by two or more districts. There are 37 schools of this kind maintained by 74 administrative units, including 30 boroughs, 43 townships, and 1 independent district.

¹⁷ Not administrative units, but schools or departments jointly maintained by two or more districts each of which separately maintains other schools. These districts are tabulated in the proper classifications elsewhere in the table.

¹⁸ Not administrative units.

¹⁹ Includes 1,024 county pupils in city schools.

²⁰ As indicated by footnotes to figures in this column there are 275 additional units maintaining no school or from which no data were available. The total number of school administrative units in these 10 States is, therefore, 28,619.

¹ Excluding kindergarten.

² Data not included for 32 county accommodation schools enrolling 499 pupils and employing 37 teachers.

³ There are 8 additional common-school districts maintaining no schools, 6 of which transport pupils to other districts. The total number of school administrative units in Arizona is therefore 434.

⁴ Data for 1935-36.

⁵ In addition to the elementary districts and high-school districts for which data are presented in this table, there are 17 separate junior-college districts and 20 combined high-school and junior-college districts. High-school statistics for the 20 combined districts are tabulated under high-school classifications in this table.

⁶ Six additional regular elementary units report no school maintained as they have contracts with other districts for the education of their children. The total number of elementary and high-school-administrative units in California is therefore 2,990.

⁷ Suspended districts are those whose average daily attendance has been five pupils or fewer. They remain suspended for 2 years, after which they are lapsed and their territory is added to a contiguous district. Pupils of a suspended district are transferred to the nearest adjacent district.

⁸ There are 11,453 common-school districts in Illinois, 221 of which maintain no school. The total number of school administrative units in Illinois is, therefore, 11,977.

⁹ It is difficult to determine the exact number of independent units on any given date. This figure is for July 1, 1935. Figures for other dates during the same year may vary. Mergers are taking place at frequent intervals but often official notification is not given to the State department of education for several months. The number of independent units for May 15, 1937, was 159.

¹⁰ Ohio reported average daily attendance instead of enrollment.

LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 82.—Number and percentage of total local school administrative units distributed on the basis of enrollment per unit for 10 States, 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Number and percent of total school administrative units in—										Total	
	Arizona ¹	Arkansas ²	California ⁴	Illinois	Kentucky ⁵	North Carolina	Ohio ⁶	Oklahoma ⁷	Pennsylvania	Tennessee ⁸	Number	Percent
0											32	33
1	18	4	0	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	31	33
1-5	78	43	42	221	1		1	93	34			441
6-10	22	11	35	459			9	47	1			554
11-20	88	26	362	2,208			36	226				2,853
21-30	51	272	567	5,472			54	705				7,161
31-50	59	499	319	1,378			95	665				3,014
51-100	60	822	318	1,583			251	974				2,955
101-150	34	654	444	613	1		251	1,307				3,407
151-200	17	229	214	364	10		220	151				1,040
201-250	19	120	115	160	15		212	151				1,829
251-300	8	81	78	97	18		179	123				872
301-400	16	55	87	68	14		159	114				672
401-500	8	46	54	82	24		220	110				887
501-1,000	29	113	150	59	20		103	85				550
1,001-1,500	7	40	53	100	38		195	135				1,143
1,501-2,000	4	13	27	43	27		60	37				427
2,001-3,000	1	12	22	18	43		25	8				219
3,001-4,000	2	2	10	11	25		16	16				234
4,001-5,000	2	6	6	17	18		3	11				150
More than 5,000			28	17	22		24	5				84
Total	434	3,127	2,990	11,977	300	167	1,879	4,951	2,583	174	100.0	28,582
			100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

¹ In Arkansas, Kentucky, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee there are no units maintaining high schools only; and in North Carolina there are no units maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only.
² Data not available on 32 county accommodation schools enrolling 499 pupils.
³ Data for 1935-36.
⁴ Data for Jan. 1, 1936.
⁵ Data not available for 6 majority administrative units.
⁶ Of these, 6 transport pupils to other units.
⁷ Of these 221 are common-school districts which maintain no school but have the legal right to maintain elementary grades only or elementary grades and one or more high-school grades.
⁸ Of these 300 units, 176 have Negro schools. There is no administrative unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school.
⁹ Of these 167 units, 164 have Negro schools. There is no unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school.
¹⁰ Of these 4,951 units, 225 maintain schools for Negroes.



TABLE 83.—Number and percentage of local school administrative units maintaining elementary schools only, distributed on the basis of enrollment per unit, for 9 States,¹ 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Number and percent of local school administrative units maintaining elementary schools only in—										Total		
	Arizona	Arkansas	California	Illinois	Kentucky	Ohio	Oklahoma	Pennsylvania	Tennessee			Number	Percent
0													
1-5													
6-10	18	11	742	455		1	93	1				135	0.6
11-20	70	24	35	2,205		9	47					550	2.5
21-30	47	270	362	5,465		36	226					2,844	12.7
31-50	46	488	318	1,368		54	705					7,134	31.8
51-100	43	787	317	1,542		93	664					2,987	13.3
101-150	17	135	430	329		233	969					2,854	12.9
151-200	9	46	183	176		152	226					1,138	5.1
201-250	13	63	93	46		73	30					1,471	6.4
251-300	6	14	63	31		33	13					312	1.4
301-400	13	6	44	16		22	13					213	0.9
401-500	4	12	64	19		23	8					267	1.2
501-1,000	23	2	37	14		10	1					156	0.7
1,001-1,500	7	3	91	36		20	3					310	1.4
1,501-2,000	3		27	21		2	3					80	0.4
2,001-3,000	1		13	14		1	3					44	0.2
3,001-4,000			6	7								20	0.1
4,001-5,000			1	3								7	0.03
More than 5,000				1								1	0.005
Total	321	2,351	2,694	10,750	11	761	4,098	1,390	64	100.0	100.0	22,440	100.0

¹ There are no administrative units in North Carolina maintaining elementary schools only.

² Data not available for 7 local school administrative units.

³ There are also 221 common-school districts in Illinois which maintain no school but have the legal right to maintain elementary grades only or elementary grades and one or more high school grades.

⁴ Data for Jan. 1, 1936.

⁵ Data not available for 6 majority administrative units.

⁶ These units were established to maintain elementary schools only but maintain no school.

⁷ These units, when last maintaining schools, maintained elementary schools only.

LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 84.—Number and percentage of local school administrative units maintaining high schools only, distributed on the basis of enrollment per unit, for 3 States,¹ 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Number and percent of local school administrative units maintaining high schools only in—							
	Arizona		California ²		Illinois		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1-5.....					3	0.6	3	0.4
6-10.....					3	.6	3	.4
11-20.....	1	1.7			6	1.1	7	1.2
21-30.....	1	1.7	1	0.4	8	1.5	10	1.2
31-50.....	7	11.9	1	.4	27	5.2	35	4.2
51-100.....	11	18.6	14	5.8	166	31.7	191	23.2
101-150.....	12	20.3	31	13.0	100	19.1	143	17.4
151-200.....	7	11.9	22	9.1	69	13.1	98	11.8
201-250.....	6	10.1	14	5.8	33	6.3	53	6.5
251-300.....	2	3.4	10	4.2	18	3.4	30	3.6
301-400.....	2	3.4	23	9.5	24	4.6	49	5.9
401-500.....	4	6.8	16	6.6	18	3.4	38	4.6
501-1,000.....	4	6.8	54	22.4	28	5.3	86	10.4
1,000-1,500.....			19	7.9	10	1.9	29	3.5
1,501-2,000.....	1	1.7	13	5.4	4	.8	18	2.2
2,001-3,000.....			12	5.0	2	.4	14	1.7
3,001-4,000.....			6	2.5	4	.8	10	1.2
4,001-5,000.....	1	1.7	3	1.2			4	.5
More than 5,000.....			2	.8	1	.2	3	.4
Total.....	59	100.0	241	100.0	524	100.0	824	100.0

¹ 7 of the project States have no units maintaining high schools only. These States are: Arkansas, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.

² Data for 1935-36.

TABLE 85.—Number and percentage of local school administrative units maintaining elementary and high schools, distributed on the basis of enrollment per unit, for 10 States, 1934-35

Pupils enrolled per unit	Arizona		Arkansas		California		Illinois		Kentucky		North Carolina		Ohio		Oklahoma		Pennsylvania		Tennessee		Total	
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
1-5	3	8	6	5	6	7	6	9	10	11	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
6-10	4	8.7	2	0.3			1	0.2														
11-20	17	37.0	2	1.5			1	2.4														
21-30	3	6.5	11	4.8			2	2.9														
31-50	6	13.0	35	13.8			14	24.5														
51-100	6	13.0	101	12.8			118	18.3														
101-150	5	10.9	94	10.1			88	9.3														
151-200	1	2.2	74	9.1			45	6.8														
201-300			67	6.7			33	7.1														
301-400			49	6.7			34	8.1														
401-500			71	9.7			39	5.6														
501-1,000			44	6.0			27	2.5														
1,001-1,500			110	5.5			36	2.5														
1,501-2,000			40	5.5			12	2.5														
2,001-3,000			13	1.7			4	8.8														
3,001-4,000			12	1.6			9	1.9														
4,001-5,000			3	5.5			4	8.8														
More than 5,000			2	3			1	2.2														
			6	8			14	2.9														
Total	46	100.0	733	100.0	55	100.0	482	100.0	289	100.0	167	100.0	1,118	100.0	853	100.0	1,159	100.0	110	100.0	5,012	100.0

¹ In Arkansas, Kentucky, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee there are no units maintaining high schools only; and in North Carolina there are no units maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only.
² Data not available for 32 county accommodation schools enrolling 499 pupils.
³ Data not available for 7 school administrative units.
⁴ Data for 1935-36.
⁵ There are also 221 common-school districts in Illinois which maintain no school but have the legal right to maintain elementary grades only or elementary grades and one or more high-school grades.
⁶ Data for Jan. 1, 1936.
⁷ Data not available for 6 majority administrative units.



The size of administrative units in square miles.—Although it was not possible to get complete data on the area of school administrative units in all project States, sufficient information was reported to indicate that there is great variation in their size of school units. The mean area of administrative units ranges from 4.7 square miles in Illinois to 262 square miles in Arizona. Approximately 60 percent of all districts in Arkansas, 56 percent in Oklahoma, 45 percent in Pennsylvania, and 93 percent in Illinois are less than 11 square miles in area. None of the districts in Illinois, 1.6 percent in Arkansas, 0.3 percent in Oklahoma, and 0.3 percent in Pennsylvania have more than 100 square miles. None of the independent units in Kentucky is more than 50 square miles, and 82 percent are between 6 and 25 square miles in area; in contrast, none of the county units is less than 100 square miles, and 60 percent are between 250 and 500 square miles in area.

The size of administrative units measured by enrollment.—When the size of administrative units is measured by enrollment, the 10 States tend to fall into three general groups based on the prevailing size of these units within the States.

- (1) In Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, and Oklahoma, 65 percent or more of all school districts report enrollments of 100 or fewer. The percentages by States are: Arizona, 66; Arkansas, 74; California, 70; Illinois, 91; and Oklahoma, 78. In Arizona, 27 percent; Arkansas, 11 percent; California, 34 percent; Illinois, 70 percent; and in Oklahoma, 22 percent of the districts report enrollments of 20 or fewer.
- (2) In Ohio 59 percent and in Pennsylvania 55 percent of the districts have enrollments of more than 100 and fewer than 500. In Ohio 23 percent and in Pennsylvania 17 percent of the districts have enrollments of fewer than 100, while in Ohio 18 percent and in Pennsylvania 27 percent have enrollments of more than 500.
- (3) In Kentucky, North Carolina, and Tennessee 65 percent or more of the districts have enrollments of 500 or more pupils. This is due to the fact that in these States the county functions as a basic unit. All of the districts in North Carolina, 66 percent in Kentucky, and 82 percent in Tennessee have enrollments of 500 or more. In these three States the percentages of districts with enrollments of 2,000 or more are: Kentucky, 36; North Carolina, 78; and Tennessee, 55.

The size of administrative units measured by the number of teachers employed.—When the size of administrative units is measured by the number of teachers per unit, the 10 States again fall into three groups based on the prevailing size of such units within the States.

- (1) In Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, and Oklahoma approximately 75 percent or more of the districts employ from 1 to 5 teachers. The percentages by States are: Arizona, 75; Arkansas, 83; California, 75; Illinois, 90; and Oklahoma, 83. The proportion

of the districts in each of these five States employing only one teacher are: Arizona, 36 percent; Arkansas, 52; California, 44; Illinois, 81; and Oklahoma, 51.

- (2) In Ohio 64 percent and in Pennsylvania 59 percent of the districts employ from 6 to 40 teachers. These States also have fairly large percentages of districts employing from 2 to 5 teachers: Ohio, 23; and Pennsylvania, 25. Relatively few of the districts in these States employ only 1 teacher (Ohio, 2 percent; and Pennsylvania, 4.7 percent) or more than 100 teachers (Ohio, 2.0 percent; and Pennsylvania, 2.8 percent).
- (3) In Kentucky, North Carolina, and Tennessee the percentages of the districts employing 40 or more teachers are: Kentucky, 49; North Carolina, 89; and Tennessee, 62. The percentages of the districts employing 100 or more teachers are: Kentucky, 18; North Carolina, 55; and Tennessee, 44.

THE SIZE OF ATTENDANCE AREAS

The size of schools.—Some of the project States found it impossible to secure data on the area of attendance areas and on enrollments by schools. The data on the size of schools as measured by the number of teachers are not complete (see table 90). Ohio and Pennsylvania reported the number of teachers employed for only those schools in dependent districts. Kentucky reported the number of teachers employed for only those schools in county districts. Since the county as an intermediate unit in Ohio and in Pennsylvania and the county as a basic unit in Kentucky embrace mainly rural territory, the data presented for these States reflect only partially the conditions in schools located in urban areas.

In spite of the incompleteness of the data on the number of teachers per school, two conclusions may be drawn: First, that extremely large percentages of schools in the project States are very small; and, second, that small districts normally have small schools, but that it does not necessarily follow that large districts have large schools.

In five of the nine States for which information is available, more than half of the schools reported are 1-teacher schools. The percentages are as follows: Kentucky, 74; Pennsylvania, 64; Arkansas, 58; Ohio, 55; and Oklahoma, 54. In the other four States reporting, the percentages of schools having only one teacher are: Tennessee, 44; Arizona, 36; California, 33; and North Carolina, 28. In these nine States the percentage of 2-teacher schools ranges from 10 in Pennsylvania to 27 in Tennessee. In seven of the nine States, more than half of the schools reported have one or two teachers: Kentucky, 89 percent; Pennsylvania, 75 percent; Arkansas, 79 percent; Ohio, 67 percent; Oklahoma, 77 percent; Tennessee, 71 percent; and Arizona, 53 percent. In California and North Carolina, the percentages of schools with one or two teachers are, respectively, 45 and 49. California reports the largest percentage (28) of schools with 10 or more teachers. In Arkansas, Tennessee, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania, the percentages of schools with 10 or more teachers range from 5 to 7.3, and in North Carolina, Ohio, and Arizona, from 11 to 14.

LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 86.—Number and percentage of total local school administrative units distributed on the basis of number of teachers per unit, for 10 States, 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Number and percent of total school administrative units in—										Total											
	Arizona ¹	Arkansas ²	California ³	Illinois	Kentucky ⁴	North Carolina	Ohio ⁵	Oklahoma ⁶	Pennsylvania	Tennessee ⁷		Total										
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent										
0	18	2.0	43	1.4	42	1.4	221	1.8	124	6.8	193	1.9										
1	154	35.5	1,626	52.0	1,302	43.5	9,700	81.1	432	23.0	2,536	51.3										
2-5	170	39.2	967	30.9	955	31.9	1,057	8.9	452	23.0	1,548	31.3										
6-10	49	11.2	253	8.2	251	8.4	560	4.7	556	29.6	1,450	9.1										
11-20	32	7.3	128	4.1	181	6.1	219	1.8	481	25.6	215	4.3										
21-30	12	2.8	60	1.9	92	3.1	64	0.5	117	6.2	48	1.0										
31-40	11	2.5	41	1.4	41	1.4	44	0.4	51	2.7	20	0.4										
41-50	1	0.2	11	0.4	32	1.0	29	0.2	36	1.9	6	0.1										
51-60	1	0.2	6	0.2	23	0.8	17	0.1	15	0.8	11	0.2										
61-70	1	0.2	1	0.0	9	0.3	10	0.1	11	0.6	5	0.1										
71-80	1	0.2	1	0.0	12	0.4	10	0.1	16	0.8	11	0.2										
81-90	1	0.2	1	0.0	6	0.2	10	0.1	10	0.5	5	0.1										
91-100	1	0.2	2	0.1	6	0.2	1	0.0	5	0.3	3	0.0										
101-150	1	0.2	4	0.1	11	0.4	14	0.1	13	0.7	7	0.1										
151-200	1	0.2	1	0.0	8	0.3	8	0.1	12	0.6	5	0.1										
201-250	1	0.2	1	0.0	1	0.0	5	0.0	9	0.5	2	0.0										
251-300	1	0.2	1	0.0	4	0.1	5	0.0	12	0.6	2	0.0										
301-350	1	0.2	1	0.0	2	0.1	3	0.0	9	0.5	1	0.0										
351-400	1	0.2	1	0.0	1	0.0	2	0.0	7	0.4	1	0.0										
401-450	1	0.2	1	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0	5	0.3	1	0.0										
451-500	1	0.2	1	0.0	1	0.0	1	0.0	2	0.1	1	0.0										
More than 500	1	0.2	1	0.0	11	0.4	1	0.0	6	0.3	2	0.0										
Total.....	434	100.0	3,127	100.0	2,990	100.0	11,977	100.0	1,282	100.0	1,167	100.0	1,879	100.0	4,951	100.0	2,581	100.0	174	100.0	28,564	100.0

¹ In Arkansas, Kentucky, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee there are no units maintaining high schools only; and in North Carolina there are no units maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only.
² Data not available on 32 county accommodation schools employing 37 teachers which would fall in the second and third intervals.
³ Data not available for 7 school administrative units.
⁴ Data for 1935-36.
⁵ Data for July 1, 1936.
⁶ Data not available for 6 majority administrative units.
⁷ Of these, 6 transport pupils to other units.

* These units were established to maintain elementary schools only, but maintain no school.
¹ These 221 are common-school districts which maintain no school but have the legal right to maintain elementary grades only or elementary grades and one or more high-school grades.
² These units, when last maintaining schools, maintained elementary schools only.
³ This figure was reported for the interval 31-50 by Arizona.
⁴ There is no administrative unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school. (On Jan. 1, 1936, 176 of the 300 units had Negro schools.)
⁵ Of these 167 units, 164 have Negro schools. There is no administrative unit in the State which has a Negro school and does not have a white school.
⁶ Of these 4,951 units, 225 maintain schools for Negroes.



TABLE 87.—Number and percentage of local school administrative units maintaining elementary schools only distributed on the basis of number of teachers per unit, for nine States, 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Number and percent of local school administrative units maintaining elementary schools only in—																			
	Arizona		Arkansas		California		Illinois		Kentucky		Ohio		Oklahoma		Pennsylvania		Tennessee		Total	
	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent	Num-ber	Per-cent
1	3	3	4	6	6	7	8	9	10	11	13	14	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
0	132	41.0	1,606	68.3	742	1.6	9,695	90.2	2	20.0	128	16.8	193	2.3	7	135	15.516	11	0.6	
2-5	125	39.1	716	30.4	1,302	48.4	713	6.6	2	20.0	397	52.2	2,535	61.8	18	15,516	69.2	18	0.6	
6-10	25	7.8	25	1.1	194	35.0	162	1.5	2	20.0	179	23.5	1,441	35.2	21	4,908	21.9	21	0.6	
11-20	23	7.2	2	.1	191	7.1	77	0.7	2	20.0	41	5.4	22	0.5	10	1,073	4.8	10	0.3	
21-30	10	3.1	2	.1	115	4.3	32	0.3	1	10.0	72	9.5	3	0.1	2	167	2.7	2	0.1	
31-40	3	0.9	2	.1	47	1.7	22	0.2	1	10.0	4	0.5	3	0.1	2	58	0.3	2	0.1	
41-50	1	.3	1	.1	16	0.6	17	0.2	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	2	42	0.2	2	0.1	
51-60	1	.3	1	.1	11	0.4	8	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	25	0.1	1	0.1	
61-70	1	.3	1	.1	3	0.1	8	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	13	0.1	1	0.1	
71-80	1	.3	1	.1	2	0.1	6	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	10	0.1	1	0.1	
81-90	1	.3	1	.1	1	0.1	4	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	7	0.1	1	0.1	
91-100	1	.3	1	.1	1	0.1	3	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	2	0.1	1	0.1	
101-150	1	.3	1	.1	1	0.1	2	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	4	0.1	1	0.1	
151-200	1	.3	1	.1	1	0.1	2	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	4	0.1	1	0.1	
201-250	1	.3	1	.1	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	1	0.1	1	0.1	
251-300	1	.3	1	.1	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	1	0.1	1	0.1	
301-350	1	.3	1	.1	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	1	0.1	1	0.1	
More than 350	1	.3	1	.1	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	10.0	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	1	0.1	1	0.1	
Total	321	100.0	2,351	100.0	2,694	100.0	10,750	100.0	10	100.0	761	100.0	4,098	100.0	64	22,419	100.0	22	100.0	

1 There are no administrative units in North Carolina maintaining elementary schools only.
 2 Data not available for 7 local school administrative units.
 3 Data for 1935-36.
 4 There are also 221 common-school districts in Illinois which maintain no school but have the legal right to maintain elementary grades only or elementary and one or more high-school grades.
 5 This figure was reported for the interval 31-50 by Arizona.
 6 These units were established to maintain elementary schools only but maintain no school.
 7 These units, when last maintaining schools, maintained elementary schools only.
 8 Data for July 1, 1936.
 9 Data not available for 6 majority administrative units.



LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

TABLE 88.—Number and percentage of local school administrative units maintaining high schools only, distributed on the basis of number of teachers per unit, for three States,¹ 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Number and percent of local school administrative units maintaining high schools only in—							
	Arizona		California ²		Illinois		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1								
2-5	25	42.3	11	4.6	5	1.0	5	1.6
6-10	24	40.7	59	24.4	227	43.3	192	23.8
11-20	6	10.2	65	26.9	88	16.8	310	37.6
21-30	2	3.4	42	17.4	16	3.0	159	19.3
31-40	1	1.7	20	8.3	10	1.9	60	7.3
41-50			12	5.0	7	1.3	31	3.7
51-60			8	3.3	5	1.0	19	2.3
61-70			4	1.7			13	1.6
71-80			6	2.5	2	.4	4	.5
81-90			4	1.7	1	.2	8	1.0
91-100	1	1.7	4	1.7			5	.6
101-150			4	1.7			5	.6
151-200			2	.8	5	1.0	9	1.1
201-250					1	.2	3	.4
More than 250					1	.2	1	.1
Total	59	100.0	241	100.0	524	100.0	824	100.0

¹ 7 of the project States have no units maintaining high schools only. These States are: Arkansas, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.

² Data for 1935-36.

SUMMARY

TABLE 89.—Number and percentage of local school administrative units maintaining elementary and high schools, distributed on the basis of number of teachers per unit, for 10 States, 1934-35

Teachers per unit	Number and percent of local school administrative units maintaining elementary and high schools in—										Total				
	Arizona	Arkansas	California	Illinois	Kentucky	North Carolina	Ohio	Oklahoma	Pennsylvania	Tennessee					
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent			
1	3	3	4	0	10	11	13	15	16	16	18	19	20	23	23
2-5	22	49.8	20	2.7	1	0.4	1	0.1	35	3.1	4	0.3	79	47	47
6-10	20	42.6	251	34.1	50	18.4	107	12.5	377	33.7	276	6.8	428	681	681
11-20	3	6.4	228	31.2	56	20.5	212	24.9	440	39.5	301	26.0	455	1,531	1,531
21-30			58	7.9	21	7.7	6	3.6	107	9.4	148	12.8	188	1,195	1,195
31-40			22	3.0	13	4.8	13	7.8	47	4.2	105	9.1	148	407	407
41-50			11	1.5	16	5.9	13	7.8	36	3.2	65	5.6	91	239	239
51-60			6	0.8	18	6.6	10	6.0	45	4.0	34	2.9	55	159	159
61-70			1	0.1	10	3.7	7	4.2	12	1.1	11	1.8	11	107	107
71-80			1	0.1	15	5.5	8	4.8	3	0.3	27	2.3	11	64	64
81-90			1	0.1	9	3.3	12	7.2	5	0.4	15	1.3	8	62	62
91-100			2	0.3	12	4.4	6	3.6	6	0.5	11	1.0	6	45	45
101-150			4	0.5	29	10.7	32	19.1	12	1.1	26	2.3	25	156	156
151-200			1	0.1	5	1.8	22	13.1	6	0.5	13	1.1	25	95	95
201-250			1	0.1	12	4.4	13	7.8	6	0.5	4	0.3	46	146	146
251-300			1	0.1	5	1.8	9	5.4	2	0.2	3	0.3	1	21	21
301-350			1	0.1	3	1.1	7	4.2	1	0.1	3	0.3	1	15	15
351-400			1	0.1	1	0.4	2	1.2	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	9	9
401-450			1	0.1	1	0.4	2	1.2	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	12	12
451-500			1	0.1	1	0.4	2	1.2	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	5	5
More than 500			1	0.1	1	0.4	2	1.2	1	0.1	1	0.1	1	5	5
Total	46	100.0	733	100.0	272	100.0	167	100.0	1,118	100.0	853	100.0	1,159	4,995	100.0

¹ In Arkansas, Kentucky, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee there are no units maintaining high schools only; and in North Carolina there are no units maintaining elementary schools only or high schools only.
² Data not available on 32 county accommodation schools employing 37 teachers.
³ Data not available for 7 school administrative units.
⁴ Data for 1935-36.
⁵ There are also 221 common-school districts in Illinois which maintain no school but have the legal right to maintain elementary grades only or elementary grades and one or more high-school grades.
⁶ Data for July 1, 1936.
⁷ Data not available for 6 majority administrative units.



The problem of the 1-teacher schools.—In view of the fact that it is practically impossible to provide, in a 1-teacher school, the educational offerings essential for a well-balanced school program, the multiplicity of 1-teacher schools in the States studied constitutes a serious problem. The number of 1-teacher schools reported for nine of the project States is 24,998, with an enrollment of 777,601 pupils. These children are not receiving the educational opportunity to which they are entitled. It is significant that in practically all of the States studied, the number of 1-teacher schools has been steadily reduced during the period from 1920 to 1936 (see table 91); with a striking reduction in several States. During the 16-year period, the number of 1-room buildings in North Carolina was reduced from 4,174 to 1,168, and in Pennsylvania, from 10,254 to 5,855. In the country as a whole, the number of 1-room buildings was reduced from 189,227 in 1920 to 133,223 in 1936.

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ATTENDANCE AREAS AND ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

Effect of size of school units.—The data presented indicate that in all of the States studied many attendance areas and administrative units fall below desirable standards of size. As these States institute programs for enlarging such units to meet desirable standards, their specific problems may be expected to vary. In Kentucky, North Carolina, and Tennessee large percentages of their administrative units have sufficient numbers of pupils and teachers to make possible the establishment of schools adequate in size; however, many of the existing schools in these States are very small. Although the problem is mainly one of enlarging attendance areas, it may become necessary to change boundaries of some of the existing administrative units. The problem of enlarging administrative units is not so pressing in Kentucky, North Carolina, and Tennessee as in those States in which many existing administrative units are small in terms of area, enrollment, and number of teachers. In Illinois, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and California, many school districts are so small that, even if all pupils within each district attended a given school, the school would not be of sufficient size to be educationally efficient. Accordingly, in these States it will be necessary to enlarge administrative units before much progress can be made in improving attendance areas. Because of the large area and sparse population of Arizona, it is probable that relatively little improvement in either attendance areas or administrative units can be secured merely by increasing the areas of such units. In many parts of Arizona a school unit with enough pupils to form a single school of adequate size would be so large in area that the transportation of pupils from the outlying portions of the unit to a central school would be practically impossible. In the more thickly settled portions of Arizona, however, much improvement can be made in the organization of school units.

SUMMARY

TABLE 90.—Number and percentage of schools, enrollment, and teaching positions distributed on the basis of number of teaching positions, for 8 States, 1931-35

State	1-teacher schools			2-teacher schools			3-, 4- and 5-teacher schools			6- to 9-teacher schools			10-or-more teacher schools			Total		
	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Arizona:	154	2,720	154	73	3,138	146	97	10,848	363	43	10,479	326	59	65,966	1,695	426	93,151	2,684
Arkansas:	36.2	2.9	5.7	17.1	3.4	5.4	22.8	11.7	13.4	10.1	11.2	13.3	13.8	70.8	62.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
California:	2,747	102,297	2,747	994	69,623	1,988	517	71,224	1,908	264	69,766	1,863	241	143,942	3,728	4,763	456,852	12,234
	57.7	22.5	22.5	20.9	15.2	16.3	10.9	15.6	15.6	5.5	15.3	15.2	5.0	31.5	30.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
North Carolina:	1,455	23,396	1,455	515	25,319	1,030	672	73,458	2,571	528	113,470	3,944	1,235	799,178	28,110	4,405	1,035,021	37,110
	33.0	2.3	3.9	11.7	2.5	2.8	15.3	7.1	6.9	12.0	10.9	10.6	28.0	77.2	75.8	100.0	100.0	100.0
Ohio:	1,532	60,309	1,532	1,137	88,983	2,274	1,360	190,722	5,467	781	212,854	5,809	590	339,780	8,630	5,400	892,648	23,712
	28.0	6.8	6.5	21.0	9.9	9.6	25.0	21.4	23.1	15.0	23.8	24.4	11.0	38.1	36.4	100.0	100.0	100.0
Oklahoma:	2,385	56,436	2,393	458	25,739	930	484	52,679	1,781	466	98,722	3,448	540	214,704	7,337	4,333	448,280	15,889
	55.0	12.6	15.1	10.6	5.7	5.8	11.2	11.6	11.2	10.7	22.0	21.7	12.5	47.9	46.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Pennsylvania:	2,804	76,952	2,804	1,217	79,831	2,434	425	50,537	1,558	401	92,579	2,953	362	360,377	9,819	5,204	660,276	19,568
	53.8	11.7	14.3	23.4	12.1	12.4	8.2	7.6	8.0	7.7	14.0	15.1	6.9	34.6	50.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Tennessee:	5,733	167,176	5,733	908	60,697	1,816	966	129,777	3,761	663	162,816	4,860	653	345,297	10,848	8,923	865,763	27,018
	64.3	19.3	21.2	10.2	7.0	6.7	10.8	19.0	13.9	7.4	18.8	18.0	7.3	39.9	40.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Texas:	2,939	93,889	3,025	1,806	115,732	3,711	1,179	144,630	4,389	408	96,999	2,927	333	202,975	5,695	4,665	654,225	19,747
	44.1	14.4	15.3	27.1	17.7	18.8	17.7	22.1	22.2	6.1	14.8	14.8	5.0	31.0	28.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
Total for 8 States:	19,749	583,375	19,843	7,108	469,062	14,329	5,700	723,875	21,798	3,554	857,685	26,130	4,013	2,472,219	75,862	40,124	5,106,216	157,962
	49.2	11.4	12.6	17.7	9.2	9.1	14.2	14.2	13.8	8.9	16.8	16.5	10.0	48.4	48.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

See footnotes on p. 256.



TABLE 90.—Number and percentage of schools, enrollment, and teaching positions, etc.—Continued

¹ Information for Kentucky cannot be entered under the distribution classifications used in this table due to the procedures followed for reporting data in that State. However, available data from Kentucky for 1935-36 show the following distribution for county school districts only and does not include schools, pupils, and teachers for independent districts:

State	1-teacher schools			2-teacher schools			3-teacher schools			Schools with 4 or more teachers			Total		
	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions	Schools	Enrollment	Teaching positions
1	3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Kentucky:	5,249	194,226	5,161	1,086	81,172	2,178	220	21,964	596	539	132,389	3,836	7,094	429,751	11,771
Number.....	74.0	45.2	43.9	15.3	18.9	18.5	3.1	5.1	5.0	7.6	30.8	32.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Percent.....															

² Data for Illinois not available.

³ Data are not included for 32 county accommodation schools enrolling 499 pupils and employing 37 teachers.

⁴ Data not available for 7 administrative units.

⁵ Data for 1935-36.

⁶ Data are for rural and village administrative units only.

⁷ Does not agree with number of 1-room schools because the figure reported as "number of teaching positions" includes duplicates; i. e. the number of teachers employed was reported instead.

⁸ Data not available for 1 independent majority and 5 dependent majority units.

⁹ Data for districts under supervision of county superintendents; do not include Philadelphia and other districts under supervision of district superintendents.

TABLE 91.—Total school buildings in use, number of 1-room buildings, and percentage the 1-room buildings are of all school buildings in State and of all 1-room buildings in United States, for various years, in 10 States¹

State	School buildings in use											
	1920			1926			1930			1936		
	Total	Number	Percent 1-room buildings are of	Total	Number	Percent 1-room buildings are of	Total	Number	Percent 1-room buildings are of	Total	Number	Percent 1-room buildings are of
Continental United States	271,319	189,227	69.7	256,104	161,531	63.1	247,289	148,790	60.2	238,867	133,223	55.8
Arizona	599	265	44.2	525	208	39.6	538	172	32.0	711	145	20.4
Arkansas	6,642	5,215	78.5	6,611	4,303	65.1	5,371	3,141	58.5	4,879	2,655	54.4
California	6,372	2,366	37.1	5,348	1,795	33.6	7,400	1,607	21.7	8,720	1,455	16.7
Illinois	13,872	10,145	73.9	14,028	10,148	72.3	14,209	10,072	70.9	13,966	9,925	71.1
Kentucky	8,820	6,500	73.7	7,853	6,122	78.0	8,009	6,089	76.0	7,943	5,367	66.3
North Carolina	7,994	4,174	52.2	6,759	2,510	37.1	5,825	2,096	36.0	4,803	1,168	24.3
Ohio	10,327	8,090	78.3	7,975	4,742	59.5	7,761	4,258	54.9	6,157	2,451	39.8
Oklahoma	7,004	4,426	63.2	6,344	3,603	56.8	5,868	2,600	44.3	5,868	2,804	47.8
Pennsylvania	15,303	10,254	67.0	12,854	8,298	64.6	13,211	7,089	53.7	11,689	5,855	50.1
Tennessee	6,726	4,766	70.9	6,488	3,692	56.9	6,031	3,091	51.3	6,629	2,939	44.3
Total	83,659	56,201	67.2	74,785	45,421	60.7	74,223	40,215	54.2	71,365	34,764	48.7

¹ Data from biennial surveys of education and State project reports.
² In State.
³ In United States.
⁴ Statistics for 1925.
⁵ Statistics for 1932.
⁶ Statistics for 1935.
⁷ Statistics for 1934.
⁸ Statistics for 1928.
⁹ Statistics for 1935; this figure, however, does not include data for 1 independent majority unit and 6 dependent majority units.



Levels of work provided by school units.—One interesting aspect of the relationship of attendance areas to administrative units is the level of education offered by school districts. In Arizona and California certain districts are restricted to the offering of elementary-school work. In other project States most school districts are legally authorized to provide both elementary and secondary education, but, in practice, a great many districts support only the elementary grades. Although 11,232 common-school districts in Illinois are legally authorized to offer both elementary and high-school work, 10,750, or 91 percent, offer only elementary work. Eighty-one percent of the districts in Oklahoma, 72 percent in Arkansas, 72 percent in Pennsylvania, 41 percent in Ohio, and 37 percent in Tennessee maintain elementary schools only. In all of the project States provision is made for education on the secondary school level for pupils living in districts not maintaining high schools. In many cases, however, adequate transportation facilities are not provided, and the fact that high schools are not conveniently located for pupils being transported has a generally discouraging effect on attendance.

EXISTING LEGAL PROVISIONS FOR CHANGING THE ORGANIZATION OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

Legal provisions for changing the boundaries or for otherwise modifying the organization of local school units indicate that there has been a recognition of the need for improving the organization of local school units. An analysis of the results of the application of these provisions, however, reveals that the problem of securing needed improvements has not been solved. It is relatively easy for boards of education to make any needed changes in the attendance areas under their control, for usually only action by the board of education concerned is necessary. In sharp contrast to the simplicity of the provisions for changing the organization of attendance areas are the diverse, rigid, and complex provisions for altering the organization of administrative units.

TYPES OF PROVISIONS FOR CHANGING THE ORGANIZATION OF ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS

In the project States there are legal provisions for making a variety of changes in the organization of administrative units. The changes for which provision is made may be classified as follows (see table 92):

- (1) Nonboundary changes.
- (2) Formation of joint districts for specific purposes.
- (3) Creation of new districts.
- (4) Annexation of:
 - (a) Parts of districts.
 - (b) Entire districts.

TABLE 92.—Authorizing agencies for creating, modifying, and abolishing school administrative units in 10 States, distributed by existing legal provisions and State, 1935

Existing legal provision	Arizona	Arkansas	California	Illinois	Kentucky
<p>A. NONBOUNDARY CHANGES</p> <p>I. Change name..... (perhaps minor changes in number of board members).</p> <p>II. Change supervisory jurisdiction.</p> <p>III. Centralize schools within a district.</p> <p>NOTE.—In States where centralization is not specifically authorized by law, schools can be centralized by action of local board of education as part of its general regulatory authority over attendance areas.</p> <p>IV. Merge coterminous districts.</p>					
<p>B. BOUNDARY CHANGES</p> <p>I. Form joint districts for specific purposes (original districts retain their identity):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> To maintain a high school..... To maintain a 1-8 or 1-12 grade school. To maintain a certain department (as vocational education). 			<p>By State legislature: Form unified district from elementary district and high-school district or elementary district and high-school district and junior college district (automatic).</p>		

*Columns 7-11 appear on p. 263-64.

Footnotes appear on p. 262.

TABLE 92.—Authorizing agencies for creating, modifying, and abolishing school administrative units in 19 States, distributed by existing legal provisions and State, 1936—Continued

Existing legal provision	Arizona	Arkansas	California	Illinois	Kentucky
B. BOUNDARY CHANGES—Con.					
II. Create new districts:					
1. From part of an existing district.	By county superintendent on petition of 15 percent of parents of 250 children. ¹	By electorate by vote or by county court on petition of majority of electors. ²	By county board of supervisors on petition. ¹	By township board of trustees on vote or petition. ¹	By county board of education. ¹
2. From parts of 2 or more existing districts.	By county superintendent on petition of parents 4 miles from schools. ¹	do.	1. By State legislature, (automatic when city or town above 6th class is incorporated). 2. By county board of supervisors on petition. ¹	do. ¹	Do. ¹
3. By subdividing the entire territory of existing district or districts into new districts.		do.		do. ¹	Do. ¹
4. By merger of 2 or more districts, as now constituted, to form some type of union or consolidated district.	By electorate by vote.		1. By county board of supervisors on petition or on recommendation of county superintendent. ¹ 2. By electorate by vote, after petition (both elementary- and high-school district).	1. By township board of trustees on vote of petition. ¹ 2. By electorate by a majority vote (both elementary- and high-school districts). By electorate by a majority vote.	By boards of education in 2 or more districts by concurrent action.
5. By creation of districts composed of high-school or junior-college districts.	By electorate by vote: Form high-school or junior-college district.				
6. By creation of joint districts from territory in more than one county.					By county boards of education by concurrent action.

<p>III. Annex territory:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Of part of district or districts. <p>Of an entire district or districts:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> (a) To district offering higher level of work without changing annexing district's status (an elementary district to a high-school district or high-school district to junior-college district). (b) To a district of similar status and powers. 	<p>By county board of supervisors on petition.⁸</p>	<p>By electorate by vote or by county court on petition of majority of electors.</p>	<p>By township board of trustees on vote or petition.⁹ 11</p> <p>By county superintendent on petition.⁹ 11</p>	<p>By county board of education.¹¹ 11</p> <p>By electorate as consequence of changing boundary of a city with which an independent district is coterminous.</p>
<p>IV. Detach or dissolve districts:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Detach a component district. 2. From a union of like districts. 	<p>By county board of supervisors on petition.⁸</p>	<p>By electorate by vote or by county court on petition of majority of electors.</p>	<p>By township board of trustees on vote or petition.⁹ 11</p> <p>By county superintendent on petition.⁹ 11</p>	<p>By county board of education.¹¹ 11</p> <p>By electorate as consequence of changing boundary of a city with which an independent district is coterminous.</p>
<p>By county board of supervisors on petition.⁸</p>	<p>By township board of trustees on vote or petition.⁹ 11</p> <p>By county superintendent on petition.⁹ 11</p>	<p>By electorate by vote or by county court on petition of majority of electors.</p>	<p>By county board of education.¹¹ 11</p> <p>By electorate as consequence of changing boundary of a city with which an independent district is coterminous.</p>	<p>By county board of education.¹¹ 11</p> <p>By electorate as consequence of changing boundary of a city with which an independent district is coterminous.</p>
<p>By county board of supervisors on petition.⁸</p>	<p>By township board of trustees on vote or petition.⁹ 11</p> <p>By county superintendent on petition.⁹ 11</p>	<p>By electorate by vote or by county court on petition of majority of electors.</p>	<p>By county board of education.¹¹ 11</p> <p>By electorate as consequence of changing boundary of a city with which an independent district is coterminous.</p>	<p>By county board of education.¹¹ 11</p> <p>By electorate as consequence of changing boundary of a city with which an independent district is coterminous.</p>

*Columns 7-11 appear on pp. 264-65. Footnotes appear on p. 262.



TABLE 92.—Authorizing agencies for creating, modifying, and abolishing school administrative units in 10 States, distributed by existing legal provisions and State, 1930—Continued

Existing legal provision	Arizona	Arkansas	California	Illinois	Kentucky
B. BOUNDARY CHANGES—Con.					
IV. Detach or dissolve districts—					
1. Detach component district— Continued.					
b. From a union for high-school purposes.	By electorate by petition of two-thirds of electors.	By electorate by vote or by county court on petition of majority of electors.	By electorate by vote, after petition. ¹⁰	By State legislature (automatic when component districts offer 4-year high-school courses).	
2. Dissolve a consolidated district and revive original districts.					
3. Dissolve a superimposed district.				By electorate by two-thirds majority vote.	

¹⁰ All boundary changes in Arkansas—creation of districts, annexations, transfers of territory, dissolutions, etc.—are made by the county court on petition of, or on vote of, a majority of the electors in the territory affected.

¹¹ The legal provisions of the Kentucky School Code regulating the change of school boundaries indicate no methods whereby the external boundary of a county district can be modified by the annexation of small sections of territory lying outside the county. Independent districts may change their boundaries but only as a concomitant to changing the municipal limits of the city with which the independent district is coterminous. Bonded indebtedness of subdistrict or independent district is coterminous. Bonded indebtedness of subdistrict or independent district may not be assumed by annexing unit without two-thirds vote of the electors of the territory concerned. The law requires a district with bonded indebtedness to continue to levy for sinking fund purposes even after its merger with another district.

¹² North Carolina: "Districts" within a county may be modified in any way by joint action of State school commission and county board of education.

¹³ Tennessee State legislature may create special school districts (some of which function only as taxing areas to finance school buildings) by special legislative act.

¹⁴ The county board can require a vote on the question of centralization at any time and in any territory under its control.

¹⁵ Joint high-school districts are being discouraged.

¹⁶ Subject to approval of county board of supervisors, whose action is final. Districts changed must be under county supervision.

¹⁷ California constitution prevents district being annexed from assuming bonded indebtedness of district to which annexed unless assumption is authorized by two-thirds vote of electors.

¹⁸ Petition by vote not mandatory on county authorities.

¹⁹ Appeal may be taken to county superintendent.

²⁰ County board of education controls boundary changes only of the "districts" in its own county.

²¹ Action of county board of education is final unless bonded indebtedness is involved, when vote of two-thirds of electors is necessary to assume it.

²² County board can change only districts under its control.

²³ Subject to appeal to board of county commissioners whose action is final.

²⁴ Petition of majority necessary to annex or detach territory to or from independent district; petition of one-third necessary to make any boundary changes in districts under county control.

²⁵ District from which territory is taken cannot have valuation reduced by more than 5 percent.

²⁶ Concurrent action in 2 counties necessary.

²⁷ Appeal may be taken to State superintendent.

²⁸ Petition of 50 percent is permissive; 75 percent, mandatory. County board can transfer territory to a district not under its control only if latter district board accepts it.

²⁹ In transferring territory to or from a centralized district.

³⁰ If children of another district attend high school, change subject to remonstrance by majority in elementary district in 60 days.

³¹ Subject to remonstrance by majority of high-school district in 15 days.

³² When a district lapses.

³³ Action of boards final unless bonded indebtedness is involved, when a vote of two-thirds of electors is necessary to assume it.

³⁴ And attach it to another high-school district.

³⁵ Columns 7-11 appear on pp. 263.



TABLE 92.—Authorizing agencies for creating, modifying, and abolishing school administrative units in 10 States, distributed by existing legal provisions and State, 1936—Continued

Existing legal provision	North Carolina ¹	Ohio	Oklahoma	Pennsylvania	Tennessee ²
I	7 ^b	8	9	10	11
A. NONBOUNDARY CHANGES					
I. Change name. (perhaps minor changes in number of board members).		1. By State legislature: Change rural district to village district (automatic when village is incorporated). 2. By electorats by vote: Change rural district to village district.			
II. Change supervisory jurisdiction.		1. By State legislature: Change village district to city district (automatic when population exceeds 5,000). 2. By vote of village board of education: Exempt village district from county control. By electorate by vote.	By State legislature: Make district independent (automatic when city or town incorporates and 4-year high school is maintained).		
III. Centralize schools within a district. NOTE.—In States where centralization is not specifically authorized by law, schools can be centralized by action of local board of education as part of its general regulatory authority over attendance areas.					
IV. Merge coterminous districts.					

¹ Columns 1-6 appear on pp. 259. Footnotes appear on page 262.

TABLE 92.—Authorizing agencies for creating, modifying, and abolishing school administrative units in 10 States, distributed by existing legal provisions and State, 1930—Continued

Existing legal provision	North Carolina ¹	Ohio	Oklahoma	Pennsylvania	Tennessee ¹
1	7 ^o	8		10	11
B. BOUNDARY CHANGES					
I. Form joint districts for specific purposes (original districts retain their identity):					
1. To maintain a high school		By boards of education of 2 or more districts by concurrent action. ⁹		By boards of education of 2 or more districts by concurrent action. do.	
2. To maintain a 1-8 or 1-12 grade school.					
3. To maintain a certain department (as vocational education).					
II. Create new districts:					
1. From part of an existing district.	By county board of education and State school commission. ¹¹ do. ¹¹	By county board of education on own initiative. ¹³ do. ¹³	By county superintendent on petition. ^{14 15 16} do.	By county court on petition of majority of tax payers.	By State legislature by special act.
2. From parts of 2 or more existing districts.	do. ¹¹	do. ¹³	do.		
3. By subdividing the entire territory of existing district or districts into new districts.	do. ¹¹				
4. By merger of 2 or more districts, as now constituted, to form some type of union or consolidated district.		1. By county board of education on own initiative. ¹³ 2. By electorate by vote. ¹⁴	1. By electorate by vote in each district. 2. By electorate by vote in a territory.	By electorate by vote in each district.	
5. By creation of superimposed high-school or junior-college districts.		By boards of education of 2 or more districts by concurrent action.			
6. By creation of joint districts from territory in more than 1 county.			By 2 or more county superintendents by concurrent action.		

III. Annex territory:

1. Of part of district or districts.

By county board of education and State school commission. ¹¹

1. By county board of education on own initiative. ¹¹
2. By county board of education on petition of 50 percent or 75 percent of electors ¹⁸ (or by two-thirds petition). ¹⁹

1. By county superintendent on petition. ¹¹ ¹⁸
2. By electorate by petition, plus approval of adjoining district.

By electorate as consequence of adding territory to governmental unit.

1. By State legislature, and (Tennessee constitution requires) sanction of two-thirds of qualified electors of areas concerned (as consequence of adding territory to civil county).
2. By State legislature (vote not required in all cases).

2. Of an entire district or districts:

(a) To district offering higher level of work without changing annexing district's status (an elementary district to a high-school district or high-school district to junior-college district).

(b) To a district of similar status and powers.

1.do. ¹¹
2. By boards of education (county and independent units) by concurrent action.

1. By county board of education on own initiative. ¹¹
2. By county board of education on petition of 50 percent or 75 percent of electors ¹⁸ (or by two-thirds petition). ¹⁹
3. By electorate by vote.

1. By county superintendent on majority petition. ¹⁸ ¹⁹
2. By electorate by petition, plus approval of board of adjoining district.

1. By electorate by vote of majority.
2. By contracting with county board to operate schools.
3. By State legislature by special act to amend charter to relinquish authority to maintain schools.

IV. Detach or dissolve districts:

1. Detach a component district

a. From a union of like districts.

b. From a union for high-school purposes.

2. Dissolve a consolidated district and revive original districts.

3. Dissolve a superimposed district.

By electorate by vote of 70 percent of electors.

Columns 1-6 appear on pp. 259-61.

Footnotes appear on p. 262.

TABLE 93.—Existing legal provisions for creating, modifying, and abolishing school administrative units in 10 States, distributed by authorizing agency and State, 1936

Authorizing agency	Arizona	Arkansas	California	Illinois	Kentucky
I					
1. The State legislature (mandatory or automatic changes).			1. Create a new elementary district by incorporation of city or town. 2. Form a unified district (from contiguous high-school district and elementary district and/or junior-college district).	Detach common-school district from high-school district when former offers 4-year high-school course and is not surrounded by latter.	
II. The civil county board (supervisors, commissioners) or the county court:			1. Annex lapsed elementary district to contiguous district. 2. Annex to high-school an elementary district outside any high-school district. Annex elementary district to high-school district or high-school district to junior-college district (on petition of board of latter district if children of former district attend). 1. Change boundaries of an elementary district. 2. Create a new elementary district. 3. Form a joint elementary district (from parts of districts). 1. Create new elementary district by merger of contiguous districts. 2. Form joint elementary district by merger. 3. Annex contiguous territory to city elementary district. 4. Annex union high-school district to city high-school district.		
2. On petition:					
a. Of a local board of education.	Change boundaries of any district (at its discretion).				
b. Of a specified number of electors.	(On majority petition and approval of adjoining district board): 1. Annex one district to similar district. 2. Annex common-school district to high-school district. (Petition of two-thirds of electors). 3. Detach a district from union high-school district.	Make any boundary changes, transfers, or annexations of territory and dissolutions (on petition of majority of electors in each district).			
c. Of a specified percent of electors.					

3. On agreement of local boards of education.

4. On recommendation of county superintendent.

III. The county board of education:

1. On own volition

2. On petition

IV. The county superintendent.

1. Make any transfer or annexation of territory after notifying boards affected (when certifying boundaries).
2. Create a new district or subdivide an old one (on petition).

- (After a majority petition)
1. Annex elementary district to union elementary district.
 2. Annex elementary district to high-school district.
- (Without petition)
1. Annex high-school district to junior-college district.
 1. Create single elementary district by merger (when school-houses less than 3 miles apart).
 2. Form joint elementary district by merger of districts.

- (Board action final, except that two-thirds vote is necessary for assuming bonded indebtedness if any is involved)
1. Change boundaries of subdistricts.
 2. Annex subdistricts or parts of subdistricts.
 3. Create or abolish subdistricts.

- (On two-thirds petition, not mandatory in effect)
1. Annex common school district to, or detach it from, community consolidated district.
 2. Transfer territory between common school and community consolidated district, or between community consolidated districts.

* Columns 7-11 appear on pp. 270-71. Footnotes appear on p. 262.

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TABLE 93.—Existing legal provisions for creating, modifying, and abolishing school administrative units in 10 States, distributed by authorizing agency and State, 1936—Continued

Authorizing agency	Arizona	Arkansas	California	Illinois	Kentucky
1					
V. The township board of trustees. (In Illinois vote may be substituted for petition but neither is mandatory in effect. Appeal may be taken to county superintendent.)				(On majority petition in district or districts): 1. Subdivide a district. 2. Consolidate districts. 3. Transfer territory between districts. 4. Create new district from parts of districts. (On two-thirds petition in a territory in district): 5. Transfer territory between districts. 6. Create new district by dividing a single district.	
VI. The local board of education: 1. A single board. 2. Two or more boards (acting concurrently).					1. Form new district by merger of districts. 2. Form a subdistrict lying in more than one county.
VII. The electorate through election: 1. Called on petition: a. Of a percentage of electors in a territory (or district.)	1. Form a consolidated district (15 percent petition). 2. Form high-school district of any type. Election may be called by: (a) 15 percent petition; (b) District board of boards and petition of 100 electors; (c) county board of supervisors.		1. Form city or district high-school district. 2. Form a consolidated district. 3. Form a county high-school district (only 50 taxpayers need petition).	1. Create a community consolidated district. 2. Create a community high-school district. 3. Create a township high-school district. 4. Discontinue a high-school district. 5. Compel county superintendent to detach former common-school district from consolidation.	Change boundaries of an independent district by changing boundary of a city.

<p>b. Of a percentage of electors in each district.</p>	<p>Form union or county junior college district (5 percent petition) (must meet certain average daily attendance and assessed valuation requirements).</p>	<p>Make any boundary changes, transfers, annexations, and dissolutions.</p>	<p>1. Form a union or joint union elementary district. 2. Form consolidated district. 3. Transfer an elementary district from one high-school district to another (petition of $\frac{2}{3}$ of family heads followed by a vote of $\frac{3}{4}$ is necessary). 1. Form consolidated district. 2. Form union or joint-union high-school district. 3. Form junior-college district. (State board must approve before election is held). Annex other districts to a unified district.</p>	<p>Annex a school township to a township high-school district.</p>
<p>2. Called by local or county board.</p>				<p>(Joint resolution of local boards): 1. Form consolidated district. 2. Annex high-school district to adjoining high-school district.</p>
<p>3. In one district and approval of Board of an adjoining district.</p>				

1 In California, subject to $\frac{2}{3}$ vote if bonded indebtedness is involved, State constitution prevents annexed district from assuming bonded indebtedness of annexing district.
 2 May be nullified by petition of majority of annexed district in 60 days.
 3 Concurrent action in 2 or more counties necessary.
 4 May be nullified by petition of majority of annexing district (in 15 days).
 5 Of districts under county control.
 6 Subject to acceptance or rejection by board of district to which territory wishes to be annexed.

7 Subject to final approval of civil county board, whose action may not be appealed.
 8 Subject to appeal to State superintendent of public instruction.
 9 District losing territory may not have its total assessment reduced by more than 5 percent.
 10 By concurrent action 2 or more county superintendents may create and change joint districts in same manner as one superintendent in a county.
 11 Vote in each district necessary if more than 1 is involved.
 12 A vote of $\frac{3}{4}$ of electors necessary.
 13 A majority petition followed by an election carried by 75 percent majority
 14 Columns 7-11 appear on pp. 271-72.

TABLE 93.—Existing legal provisions for creating, modifying, and abolishing school administrative units in 10 States, distributed by authorizing agency and State, 1930—Continued

Authorizing agency	North Carolina	Ohio	Oklahoma	Pennsylvania	Tennessee
1. The State legislature (mandatory or automatic changes).	7.	6	9	10	11
I. The civil county board (supervisors, commissioners) or the county court: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. On own volition. 2. On petition: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Of a local board of education. b. Of a specified number of electors. c. Of a specified percent of electors. 	(And State school commission acting jointly): Modify subadministrative "district" units in any way.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Change name and status of village district to city district, or reverse, as population goes above or below 5,000. 2. Form village district when village is incorporated (includes original rural area up to 16 square miles). 	Make a district independent (provided 4-year high-school course is maintained) by incorporation of city or town.	Create a new district when territory in township is incorporated as a borough (new district must be approved by State council of education).	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Change boundaries of county (with sanction as required by Tennessee constitution of two-thirds of qualified electors in areas concerned). 2. Change boundaries of city and special districts (vote not required in all cases). 3. Merge special districts, unencumbered by indebtedness with county. 4. Merge cities with county by special act amending charters. 5. Create special districts by private legislation.
II. The county board of education: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. On own volition. 					
III. The county board of education: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. On own volition. 					
3. On agreement of local boards of education.					
4. On agreement of county superintendent.					
Create a new district from part of an existing district, usually a township (on petition of a majority of the electors in area to be made a new district).					

<p>2. On petition.....</p>	<p>1. Transfer whole or part of the county district to any kind of district? (50 percent petition permissive; 75 percent, mandatory).</p> <p>2. Transfer territory to or from a centralized district.</p>	<p>(On majority petition; not mandatory in effect):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Transfer territory to or from an independent district. 2. Annex entire common-school district to an independent district. <p>(On one-third petition):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Make any boundary changes or annexations. 4. Two or more county superintendents acting concurrently). 5. Form district lying in more than one county. 	<p>Establish joint schools or departmental districts retain identity).</p>	<p>Merge cities with county (by contracting to operate schools).</p> <p>Merge special districts, unencumbered by indebtedness, with county.</p>
<p>IV. The county superintendent.</p>	<p>(By vote of village board of education):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Exempt a village district from county supervision. 2. Create joint high-school district. 	<p>(On petition of 25 percent or local board; election call must be approved by county board):</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Annex village district to rural district. 2. Change rural district to village district. 		
<p>V. The township board of trustees.</p>	<p>(Of city and county units):</p> <p>Merge city administrative unit with county unit.</p>			
<p>VI. The local board of education:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A single board..... 				
<p>2. Two or more boards (acting concurrently).</p>				
<p>VII. The electorate through election:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Called on petition: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. Of a percentage of electors in a territory (or district). 				

* Columns 1-6 appear on pp. 266-68. Footnotes appear on p. 269.

TABLE 93.—Existing legal provisions for creating, modifying, and abolishing school administrative units in 10 States, distributed by authorizing agency and State
1930—Continued

Authorizing agency	North Carolina	Ohio	Oklahoma	Pennsylvania	Tennessee
1	7 ^a	8	9	10	11
VII. The electorate through election—Continued. 1. Called on petition—Con. b. Of a percentage of electors in each district.			(On $\frac{1}{8}$ petition): 1. Form united independent district by merger. ^b 2. Form a union-graded district. (On majority petition): 3. Consolidate districts or parts of districts. 4. Dissolve consolidated or union-graded district; revive original districts (must carry by 70 percent of voters).		
2. Called by local or county board.		1. Annex village district or city district to a city district (concurrent board action). 2. Centralize school townships of more than one district (county board can force vote on this question).		Form a union district (election must be authorized by State superintendent).	
3. In one district and approval of board of an adjoining district.			(On $\frac{3}{8}$ petition in place of vote): 1. Dissolve independent district and annex it to another independent district. (On majority petition in place of vote): 2. Annex whole or parts of districts to consolidated district.		

^aColumns 1-6 appear on pp. 268-269. Footnotes appear on p. 269.

- (5) Dissolution of districts or detachment of original districts from consolidated districts.

Nonboundary changes.—Generally, in the project States, provision has been made for improving the internal organization of administrative units without altering their boundaries. Some provisions of this type are relatively unimportant. In Ohio a rural district may, under certain conditions, vote to become a village district. This is no more than a change in name and results in no real modification in the internal organization of the district. A much more important provision is that permitting districts under the jurisdiction of intermediate units to become exempt from the supervision of such units. Provisions for this type of change are found in Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Oklahoma. In Oklahoma the incorporation of a city or of a town (no matter how small) within a dependent district and the provision of 4 years of high-school work makes the district independent by exempting it from the supervision of the county superintendent. When the population of a dependent district in Ohio or Pennsylvania reaches 5,000, such a district, automatically in Ohio and by action of the board of education in Pennsylvania, becomes exempt from the supervision of the county superintendent.

Another important type of provision not affecting the boundaries of administrative units is that permitting the consolidation or centralization of schools within an administrative unit. In Ohio the law provides for the centralization of schools within a district by a vote of the electors in the district. In some project States such a centralization is dependent upon action by the board of education of the district as part of its power to alter attendance areas in any way it sees fit; however, the question is frequently decided by the voters since the incurring of bonded indebtedness to erect needed school buildings must be authorized at an election.

California provides by recent law for unifying elementary and high-school districts occupying the same territory and governed by the same board members (see ch. VI, p. 58). This provision is important because it marks a step toward the administrative coordination of elementary and secondary education in a State which, in the past, has restricted some districts to the provision of elementary education and others to secondary education.

Formation of joint districts for specific purposes.—Ohio is the only project State legally providing that two or more districts may create a joint district, which, although having purposes different from the original districts, still retains some relationships with the original districts. Under this provision, the boards of education of two or more districts maintaining elementary schools only—although legally authorized to maintain high schools—may form a joint high-school district to support a single high school for the children of the several cooperating districts (see ch. X, p. 135). The distinguishing features of this joint district are: (1) That it is formed by the boards of districts already existing; (2) that it is administered by a committee of members of the boards of the existing districts; and (3) that it includes all

the territory of the districts whose boards establish it. Other project States have local administrative organizations which, although resembling the joint high-school district in Ohio, are not *joint* districts in the same sense. So-called "joint" districts in California and Oklahoma are districts with territory lying in more than one county: They are not different in purpose or organization from districts of the same kind lying within one county. In Illinois some high-school districts are formed by a vote of the electors in two or more common-school districts, but the resulting high-school district has no relationship with the common-school districts and does not necessarily include all the territory in the common-school district. The Pennsylvania school law does not authorize the organization of joint districts similar to those in Ohio, but it does permit two or more districts to organize "joint" schools, either for high-school purposes or for both elementary and high-school purposes. Forming "joint" schools in Pennsylvania secures practically the same results as forming "joint" districts in Ohio.

*Creation of new districts.*²—All of the project States, except Pennsylvania, have provisions for creating new districts from parts of existing districts or by subdividing an existing district. In Pennsylvania, a new district may be created from part of a district coterminous with a township. When new districts are created in either of these ways, the administrative organizations of the districts already existing are not abolished but continue to function in the territory not incorporated into the new districts. It is probable that provisions for the creation of new districts from parts of several districts would permit, with careful planning, the organization of more effective administrative units. It is less likely that provisions permitting a new district to be formed entirely from a part of a single existing district will result in improved organization, especially if the new district has a similar administrative structure as the old district. Such a district is frequently created because some locality within an existing district wishes to administer its own schools, irrespective of whether it can do so efficiently.

In Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania, the entire territory of two or more existing districts may be merged to form a new district. In Pennsylvania this is practically the only way in which boundary changes may be made. In Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Tennessee, the territory embraced in two or more existing districts may be divided to form new districts. When new districts are formed in either of these two ways, the administrative organizations of the previously existing districts are replaced by the administrative organizations of the new districts. In most cases, provisions whereby two or more existing districts, or parts of such districts, are merged to form a district entirely different in organization from any of the merged districts permit changes which, if carefully planned, result in improved organization.

² The term "new district," as used here, may be defined as an entirely new local administrative structure distinct in organization, and sometimes in purpose, from the districts or parts of districts previously occupying the territory embraced in the "new district."

Another type of provision for the creation of new districts is found in Arizona, California, Illinois, and Ohio, where high-school districts may be created and are superimposed upon existing districts offering elementary work only without affecting the organization of the existing districts. Since the problem of coordinating elementary and secondary work is correspondingly more difficult, many careful observers believe that the establishment of superimposed high-school districts is not conducive to an improved school unit organization.

Annexation.—All project States, except Pennsylvania, have provisions whereby existing districts may be enlarged through the annexation of all, or a part, of a contiguous district. When an entire district is annexed, the organization of the annexing district is not changed and, therefore, the situation is entirely different from the one, previously described, in which districts were merged to form a new district.

Dissolution or detachment of original districts from consolidated districts.—In some of the project States consolidated districts may be dissolved and the original districts revived, or one or more of the original districts may be detached from the consolidated district. Although it may be desirable to have provisions for dissolution or detachment, such provisions sometimes constitute a threat to the continuance of satisfactory consolidated districts. For example, during 1 year in Arkansas, 20 consolidations were made, while 31 dissolutions of previously consolidated districts were effected.

The relative importance of provisions for changing the organization of administrative units.—The most important types of provisions for improving the organization of existing administrative units are (1) those for enlarging districts by annexation and (2) those for creating new districts by the merger of existing districts. Such provisions make possible almost any modification in school district boundaries required by a program for improving the organization of local school administrative units. The study of the 10 States reveals that, although provisions for making such changes do exist, the procedures for executing them are so complex and cumbersome that progress toward improvement in organization is usually slow and uncertain.

AGENCIES AND PROCEDURES FOR AUTHORIZING BOUNDARY CHANGES

Authorizing agencies.—In the 10 States there is little uniformity with respect to the agent or agents having the ultimate discretionary authority to make boundary changes. (See table 93.) In any one State a particular type of change, as, for example, the annexation by a district of parts of contiguous districts, may require the action of several agencies. In Arizona the county superintendent has considerable authority in changing boundaries, while in Pennsylvania he has no authority. In all of the project States, except Tennessee, the State legislatures have the power to make all types of boundary changes, while in Tennessee the Legislature can make all but one type of change. Although, in some instances, State legislatures exercise this power,

they customarily delegate the authority for making boundary changes, or at least for ultimately deciding whether a change should be made. The most commonly designated agents, and the States in which they are authorized to act on boundary changes, are:

- (1) A board or officer of the political county, such as the board of supervisors, the county commissioners, the county court, etc. (Arizona, Arkansas, and California.)
- (2) The county board of education. (Kentucky, North Carolina, and Ohio.)
- (3) The school township board of trustees. (Illinois.)
- (4) The county superintendent. (Arizona, Illinois, and Oklahoma.)
- (5) The local boards of education, usually by concurrent action of two or more local boards. (Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania,¹ and Tennessee.)
- (6) The electorate—by petition or by vote. (All but North Carolina.)

Variations in procedures.—In relatively few instances can any of the authorizing agents or agencies listed above act alone or entirely on their own volition in making boundary changes. Although in Arizona the county superintendent can, when annually certifying boundaries, change school district boundaries, and although in California the county board of supervisors can, under certain circumstances, make some boundary changes on its own volition, these instances are exceptions rather than the general rule. However, in Arizona, the county superintendent must notify in advance the districts whose boundaries he intends to change and must hold hearings on the question before finally making changes. In the other project States, at least two agencies must act in making boundary changes. For example, in Tennessee, an act of the Legislature changing the boundaries of a county—and, consequently, the boundaries of the county school district coterminous with the county—must be ratified by a vote of two-thirds of the qualified electors in the counties concerned.

One of the most common combinations of authorizing agencies is found in the procedures which require: (1) Action, through petition or vote, by the residents of the areas to be affected by a proposed boundary change, and (2) action, discretionary, ministerial, or both, on the part of some educational or civil officer or board. In many instances, the agent having ultimate discretionary authority to make a particular change may not have authority to initiate the change; and conversely, the agent initiating the change may not have the authority to decide whether the change takes place. These statements are best illustrated by the procedures, found in the several project States, in which the first step toward altering the boundaries of school districts is a petition from the electorate to some officer or board. Petitions for boundary changes, even though signed by more than a majority of the voters concerned, usually are not mandatory upon the

¹ To establish joint schools.

officer or board petitioned. A petition of a majority of the electors concerned to the county superintendent in Oklahoma, or a petition of two-thirds of the electors concerned to the township board of trustees in Illinois, does not compel either to make the petitioned change. In Ohio, a petition to the county board of education of 50 percent of the electors concerned is only permissive, while a petition of 75 percent is mandatory.

When the procedures for making a boundary change involve an election on the question, the vote in such an election is always the deciding factor in determining whether the change shall be made. Sometimes an election on the question of making a boundary change may be called by an officer or a board, such as the county superintendent or the county board of education. In other cases, a petition of a specified percentage of the electors is necessary before the election can be held. Arkansas presents an interesting example of what seems to be a common distinction between the powers of the electorate as expressed in a petition and as expressed in a vote. In Arkansas, residents in two or more districts desiring to consolidate may express their wishes either by petition or by vote. If a majority of the electors vote for consolidation, the county court is required by law to make the desired change, but if the same majority of electors petition the county court, the county court may or may not make the desired change.

In some instances, practically all authorizing agencies within a State may be called upon in deciding the question of whether a single boundary change shall be made. In Illinois, a petition of two-thirds of the electors in the areas concerned is necessary before the township board of trustees may transfer territory from one common-school district to another, but the board of trustees exercises its discretion in deciding whether to make the change. The decision of the board of trustees may be appealed to the county superintendent who, in turn, decides the question. His decision may be appealed to the State department of education which has ultimate authority. Because of this cumbersome procedure of petition, decision-appeal-decision-appeal-decision, a minority group can postpone indefinitely changes desired by two-thirds of the electors concerned.

Not only is it possible for a number of agencies to be concerned in deciding a boundary change, but the same agency may be called upon to act more than once upon the same question. In Oklahoma, the following procedures are necessary to annex a consolidated district to another consolidated district:

- (1) One-third of the electors in one of the consolidated districts must petition for an election on the question of dissolving the consolidated district.
- (2) The question of dissolving the consolidated district and reviving the original district must be carried by a vote of 70 percent of the voters.
- (3) After the original districts—component parts of the consolidated district—have been revived, one-third of the voters in each original

district must petition for an election on the question of consolidating it with the other consolidated district.

- (4) A separate election is held in each of the original districts, and the proposal to unite with the other consolidated district must be carried by a majority vote at the election.

Procedures almost as complex as those cited for Illinois and Oklahoma are found in other project States. The general effects of such complexity of procedures are: (1) To diffuse the authority for making boundary changes so that improvement in school district organization becomes everyone's concern and no one's responsibility; (2) to prevent desirable changes from being made simply and quickly; and (3) to make almost impossible any real coordination of changes to insure that they will contribute to the more effective organization of school units within a State.

AN EVALUATION OF EXISTING PROVISIONS FOR REORGANIZING LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The facts which have been presented indicate that existing provisions for improving the organization of local school units are, on the whole, relatively ineffective. Pennsylvania offers a somewhat extreme example. In that State, although a law permitting the consolidation of two or more districts has been on the statute books for a number of years, only two such consolidations have taken place in the entire State. In the other States studied there are legal provisions for modifying school district boundaries which are never used. Some of the more important reasons for the ineffectiveness of existing provisions for boundary changes are discussed below:

Type of changes for which provision is not made.—In a few of the States studied types of changes much needed are not authorized by law. School districts in Pennsylvania can be enlarged only by the merger of two or more entire districts or by the extension of the boundaries of the political unit with which a school district is coterminous. In Oklahoma there is no provision by which territory may be added to or taken from a union graded district.

Restrictive requirements.—The legal provisions for modifying school unit organization frequently require that a petition must be filed or an election must be carried by an unduly large proportion of the electors concerned in order to make changes in school district boundaries. A vote or petition of two-thirds of the electorate is necessary in Oklahoma and Illinois to make certain boundary changes. In California, a constitutional provision requires that if the consolidation of school districts or the annexation of territory by school districts involves the assumption of bonded indebtedness, two-thirds of the voters in the territory assuming the indebtedness must approve such assumption. Requirements of this nature tend to reduce, if not nullify, the practical value of legal provisions for modifying school unit organization. The approval of two-thirds of the voters is always difficult to secure for any proposition, and especially so if—as is sometimes

the case in matters pertaining to schools—the proposition is opposed by minority vested interests for selfish reasons.

The situation is further aggravated by the fact that even after a large percentage of the citizens have formally approved a proposed change, the officials designated by law to make the change may not be required to comply with the expressed wishes of the citizens. A petition of a majority of the electors concerned in Ohio and Oklahoma, and a petition of two-thirds in Illinois, are not mandatory. Although the officer or officers to whom these large petitions are addressed cannot act unless petitioned, they may or may not make the requested change.

Complexity of procedures.—Some procedures for modifying school unit organization are so complicated that they are never used. The method for annexing a consolidated district in Oklahoma to another consolidated district is an example of complex procedure (see p. 171). A procedure almost as unwieldy is found in Tennessee, where in order to change the boundary of a school unit coterminous with a county, the Legislature must pass a law providing for the proposed change and then, as provided in the constitution, the change must be sanctioned by a vote of two-thirds of the electors residing in the counties affected. In most, if not all, of the States studied, legal provisions for boundary changes are found which, if not as complicated as the examples cited, are so cumbersome as to be ineffective.

Procedures for remonstrance.—In some project States changes in school district boundaries made by an officer or board may be nullified by remonstrance of a majority of the electors in the areas affected by the changes. In all States individuals or groups opposed to boundary changes may resort to the courts as a means of obstructing such changes.⁴

Elections in more than one district.—In several States there are requirements that an election on the question of consolidating a number of districts must be carried by a majority vote in each of the districts rather than by a majority vote of the electors in the entire area affected. As illustrated in Illinois and Arkansas, this tends to make such unions more difficult. In 1919 a law was enacted in Illinois permitting a community consolidated district to be established by a majority vote throughout the entire territory to be included in the proposed district. In a few years, following the enactment of the law, several score of consolidated districts were created. In 1923, however, the law was changed to require a separate majority vote in each town, as well as in the rural area to be included in the proposed district. The rate of consolidation immediately fell off after the passage of this amendment and relatively few consolidated districts have been formed since.⁵

⁴ This aspect of the problem of effecting changes in school unit organization is discussed in: Axtell, Paul H., *Judicial determinations affecting the power to create and alter school districts in the United States*. New York, school of education, New York University, 1933. 224 p. ms.

⁵ Grimm, L. R. *The larger school district unit, some problems and issues in Illinois*. Springfield, Ill., Illinois State teachers association, 1934-35, vol. 3, p. 69.

In 1927 a law was passed in Arkansas permitting boundary changes upon a majority vote in the entire area affected. Following the passage of this law, a great many consolidations of districts were made. In 1931 the law was changed so as to require a separate favorable vote in each district concerned. Since this change in the law, consolidation of school districts has practically ceased.

Lack of provision for planning or coordinating boundary changes.—One of the outstanding difficulties of present provisions for reorganizing administrative units is the failure to assign responsibility for planning such reorganization. Ohio is the only project State which requires that school units be studied to determine necessary changes in district boundaries and which sets up procedures for planning the changes to be made. The effect of a coordinating and planning agency upon progress in the reorganization of local school units is discussed in more detail later (see p. 309).

SOME DETERMINING FACTORS IN THE ORGANIZATION OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The existing organizations of school units in all of the project States are the outcomes of a series of interrelated and sometimes complicated factors. Although some of the forces producing existing organizations have become nonexistent and although all have been modified by time, many of them remain and tend to perpetuate the existing organizations. Other factors, developing more recently, tend to produce changes in the existing organizations. Any program for improving local school units must recognize the existence of all the factors involved and must consider their relative effects upon school units.

TOPOGRAPHICAL FACTORS

The topography of a State or of a given area within a State, by determining partly the location of cities, villages, and rural areas, has played a large part in determining the location and organization of existing school units. Although many topographical obstacles have been overcome or ameliorated by improvements in highways and other means of communication, in a large number of instances, the geography of a region will continue to affect seriously the size and kind of school units within the region. The wide variation in the topography of California, for example, makes it impossible to apply a single standard for local school unit organization throughout the State. The many sparsely populated areas of Arizona, of necessity, require a different organization for the provision of educational opportunities from the densely populated and highly industrialized regions of Pennsylvania. There are some areas within each of the States studied where peculiar topographical conditions make for a low density of population and, therefore, probably make impossible the organization of local school units meeting desirable standards of size. The number of areas in

which it is impossible to overcome topographical conditions is, however, relatively small and in many States much of the best work in the reorganization of local school units has been accomplished in areas where geographical conditions have been unfavorable.

SOCIOLOGICAL FACTORS

Sociological factors affecting the organization of local school units are often closely allied with topographical factors. Frequently, the topography of a region, through its effect upon vocational pursuits and recreational activities, helps to determine the composition of the population in that region. Racial and national origin, religion, and cultural background are some of the factors important in conditioning the social philosophy of a region in its attitude toward educational affairs. Although sociological factors such as these may not be directly attributable to topography, the topographical factors in a region may be important in holding together communities of people with somewhat similar national or racial origins, or it may help to give a community feeling to heterogeneous racial groups. Concomitant outcomes of sociological and related topographical factors frequently are strong local vested interests, local prejudices, and community rivalries. Local vested interests, together with the social philosophy of a region, in large measure, determine the attitude which the people of the area will take in regard to all social services, including education. When the social philosophy of a particular locality reflects the provincialism which comes from inbreeding and from satisfaction with local tradition, there is a tendency for residents of the locality to limit their interest in education to local school affairs and to attempt to restrict the administrative control of schools to the locality. In such cases, the recognition of education, or at least the effectiveness of education, as a State-wide concern is accepted by relatively few citizens. To some extent these situations result from the failure of both professional educators and citizens generally to realize that the public school, and the units for its support and administration, are integral parts of the total State structure for social service. Notwithstanding the prevalence of conditions just described, certain areas in all of the States have broken the shackles of provincialism and have made attempts to establish attendance areas and administrative units which are organized on the basis of their educational efficiency.

FINANCIAL FACTORS IN LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

The most rapid progress in improving the organization of local school units has been made in those areas in which it has been relatively easy to provide adequate funds for school purposes. It seems quite likely, therefore, that there is a fairly direct relationship between the economic wealth of a community and the extent to which sociological and topographical factors tending to impede improvement in school unit organization can be overcome. It is not possible in this publication to analyze the relationships

between the several factors. It is important to note, however, that all of the 10 States studied report that the most powerful group of factors encouraging or discouraging changes in the organization of local school units relate either to local or State financial policy toward education. The more important local financial factors are the financial ability of local school districts and the existing indebtedness of school districts.

The financial ability of local school districts.—It has long been recognized that differences in the ability of local school units to finance schools tend to retard improvement in the organization of local school units. Districts with considerable wealth, on the whole, oppose any plan by which they will be merged with poorer districts on the grounds that the wealthier districts will be adding to their financial burdens without receiving commensurate improvement in educational services. Strangely enough, poorer districts also are apt to oppose such mergers with the argument that, if the standard of educational services maintained in the wealthier districts is to be made the standard for the entire territory merged, the residents of the poorer districts will have to pay higher taxes.

All of the project States report variation in financial ability of school districts as one of the very important obstacles to the reorganization of school units. Whether such variation in local financial ability does constitute an obstacle seems to depend in large measure upon whether the greater proportion of funds for school purposes come from local sources or from the State. In 1924 the proportion of total funds expended for education paid by the State varied from 65 percent in North Carolina to 6.9 percent in Illinois. The proportion of school expenses borne by strictly local taxation varied from 14 percent in North Carolina and in Tennessee to 80 percent in Pennsylvania, 84 percent in Arkansas, and 93 percent in Illinois. The differences between the proportion of financial support borne by the local districts may, in part, explain differences in the extent to which State governments and State departments of education are able to effect changes in local school unit organization.

Existing indebtedness of school districts.—Closely allied with the factor of variation in financial ability of school districts is the factor of variation in the amount of bonded indebtedness of school districts. Many districts have extremely large bonded indebtedness, while others are almost free from debt. As a general rule, a district with a small bonded indebtedness will oppose consolidation with a district with a large bonded indebtedness, if the consolidation requires an assumption of the second district's indebtedness. Some States provide that when districts consolidate only the territory originally incurring the indebtedness will liquidate that indebtedness. Other States, however, require the mutual assumption of obligations as a part of the act of consolidating school districts. Wherever the latter condition holds, existing bonded indebtedness constitutes a serious obstacle to improvement in the organization of local school units.

PROGRAMS OF STATE FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

From the standpoint of the general improvement of school unit organization throughout a State, the methods of apportioning State funds to a local school unit constitute an extremely important conditioning factor. All of the States studied grant State funds to local school units, theoretically for the purpose of (1) offsetting variations in the financial ability of local school units and (2) equalizing educational opportunity throughout the State. Irrespective of whether methods of distributing State funds effectively equalize educational opportunity, such methods frequently are most important in determining the amount and rapidity of change in the organization of local school units.

Although in some project States the methods for apportioning State funds apparently are intended to have no effect, favorable or unfavorable, upon enlargement or other reorganization of school units, in others certain provisions for apportioning State funds are designed to encourage the enlargement of school units. In general, however, the ultimate effect, if not the intention, of the methods now used to distribute State funds has been to discourage the organization of larger and more effective school units. Some of the ways in which systems of State financial assistance affect the organization of school units are: The subsidizing of small and inefficient administrative units; the ineffectiveness of existing rewards for consolidation; the penalizing of consolidation; and the misinterpretation of the term "equalizing educational opportunity."

The subsidizing of small and inefficient administrative units.—One likely concomitant of the attempt by States to equalize the financial ability of local school units has been the subsidizing of school districts, which, from the standpoint of educational efficiency, have no excuse for existence. In Oklahoma alone some 1,500 small school units are entirely supported by State funds. In California almost 60 percent of all elementary districts levy no local tax for any school purpose. In practically all of the 10 States there are districts which, if they do not receive their entire financial support from the State, receive at least a disproportionate share in relation to their size and educational efficiency. Obviously, if a school district can, by remaining small, escape from all or a large part of local financial support of schools, its citizens will likely resist any change in its organization which will require them to assume a reasonable share of the burden of supporting local schools.

The ineffectiveness of existing reward for consolidation.—Several States have included in their systems of apportioning State school funds provisions designed to encourage consolidation by rewarding local districts to unite or to improve the organization of attendance areas. In Pennsylvania, a fourth-class district receives \$200 annually for each 1-room school permanently closed since 1921. In Oklahoma an elementary school must have 18 pupils in average daily attendance and a high school must have an

average daily attendance of 40 pupils in order to receive State funds. In Arkansas, very small units receive no State funds. Pennsylvania and Ohio attempt to encourage consolidation, but perhaps not too effectively. They pay from State funds part or all of the cost of transporting pupils in certain districts. Oklahoma districts are encouraged to meet the minimum average daily attendance required by the State, but even if this number is attained the district is still small. Recent changes in apportioning State funds in Ohio have been accompanied by real improvement in the organization of school units, but the improvement has probably been due as much to other factors in the Foundation Program law as to the changes in method.

The penalizing of consolidation.—Not only do the methods of distributing State funds for local school purposes often fail to reward consolidation, but, in many instances, they actually penalize such consolidation. A fourth-class district in Pennsylvania receives \$200 a year for each 1-room school closed. This district loses the subsidy if it merges with another district and becomes large enough to be classified as a third- or second-class district. Similarly, third- and fourth-class districts lose their subsidies for transportation if through consolidation they become large enough to be classified as second-class districts. Under the law, as a district increases in size and advances from one class to another, it must pay higher salaries to teachers, but, at the same time, it will receive a smaller amount of State aid per teacher. A fourth-class district of normal wealth receives from the State 50 percent of its teachers' salaries, while a third-class district of the same per capita wealth receives only 35 percent of its teachers' salaries. A somewhat similar penalty is found in Illinois where it is possible for four small districts remaining separate to receive a total amount of State funds almost four times as large as the amount which would be received by the single district resulting from consolidation of these four districts.

The misinterpretation of the term "equalization of educational opportunity."—It seems apparent that in the States studied many of the obstacles which the system of distributing State funds to the local districts presents to the improvement of local school units may be attributed to a rather common misinterpretation of the term "equalization of educational opportunity." Findings of the study presented in chapter XV indicate that educational opportunity within the States has not been equalized and that improvements in educational organization which would make possible a real equalization of educational opportunity have been rather thoroughly discouraged by the efforts of the States to help small districts support schools. Since public education generally is conceded to be a function of the State, it would seem that any effort at equalization of educational opportunity would require that the State concern itself not only with furnishing State funds to local districts but with requiring (1) that districts receiving the funds be so organized that optimum educational services may be secured from the expenditure of the funds, and (2) that districts receiving the funds

make a reasonable local effort to support their schools. It seems proper that the State's primary concern should be to guarantee to every child at least a desirable minimum of educational services as part of a planned State program. Professional educators, local and State, are obligated to concern themselves with the economic soundness of plans for distributing State school funds and with the effectiveness of the educational services to be provided with such funds, as well as with the matter of increasing the amounts of State school funds apportioned to local districts.

Formulation of Plans for the Improvement of Public-School Organization

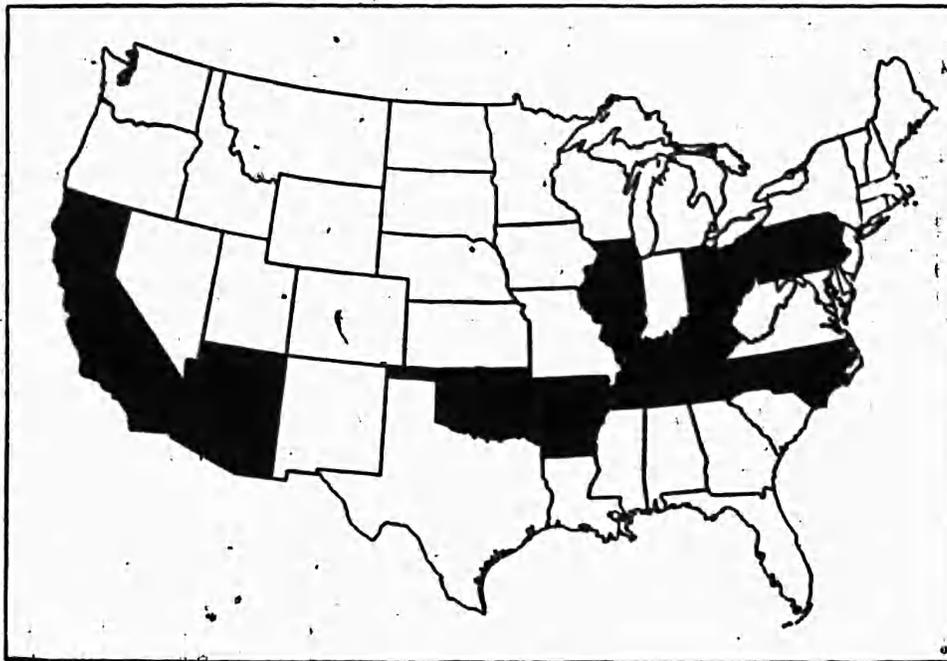
PROCEDURES IN PLANNING THE ORGANIZATION OF SATISFACTORY SCHOOL UNITS

In the preceding chapters the conditions in respect to local school units in 10 representative States have been reviewed and the needs for programs of improvement have been indicated. The point of view adopted throughout has been to regard local school units as component elements of the administrative structures of State school systems. It has seemed advisable to emphasize this approach to the problem because, in the past, many changes in school unit organization, made purely on the basis of local considerations, have been of the patchwork variety—without regard for their effect on education in the State as a whole. Factors which affect the operating relationships of school units and which tend to encourage or discourage the reorganization of such units were discussed in chapter XIV. The State project staffs and the State departments of education of the 10 States were convinced that school units would not be improved by reorganization unless adequate consideration were given to all such factors.

Outcomes of the Study of Local School Units.—Many changes which may be expected from the Study of Local School Units will probably be of a fundamental nature; hence States cannot be expected in a short period of time to put into effect proposed programs. Nevertheless, the study has contributed already by pointing out the necessity for changes and by indicating rather specifically the types of changes needed and the way in which such changes can be most easily made. Specific contributions of the study are:

1. Collecting of data, not previously available, on status of local school units.
2. Organization of data collected, together with information already available, to reveal the strengths and weaknesses of individual school units.
3. Evaluation of the data collected and analyzed as a basis for formulating tentative but specific recommendations:
 - (a) For improving individual school units in each State,
 - (b) For making such changes in the State educational program as will:
 - (1) Facilitate the establishment of improved school units,
 - (2) Eliminate existing complexities of inter-unit relationships,
 - (3) Reduce operating inefficiencies in the administrative structure of the State school system.

Difficulties in summarizing project proposals.—It is the purpose of this chapter to describe briefly the findings of the States participating in the Local School Units Project and to give some specific illustrations of attainments in individual States. This involves a description, first, of the way proposals for reorganization of individual school units have been formulated; and, second, of the way in which the individual changes have been coordinated in a State-wide program for the improvement of local school unit organization. There are two difficulties in reporting such outcomes. In the first place, the procedures for recommending changes in individual school units and for formulating a State-wide program are so interrelated that it is difficult to discuss them separately; and in the second place, the procedures used in studying a given school unit for the purpose of recommending changes in its organization is highly individualized. It is possible, however, to point out, on a State-wide basis, certain relationships between the size and organization of units and their efficiency as instruments for providing educational services. These same relationships, found in studying an individual school unit, must be considered in formulating proposals for improving its organization.



MAP XIII.—States participating in local school units project.

In summarizing data to illustrate relationships between organization of school units and their operating efficiency, emphasis has been placed upon such quantitative measures as area, enrollment, number of teachers, and assessed wealth, rather than upon measures of the educational services which school units offer to pupils. This was done not because size necessarily guarantees a high quality of instruction, but because the study has revealed that it is impossible to offer a desirable minimum educational

program unless the school unit has sufficient enrollment, teaching personnel, and financial ability to make the program feasible. Data revealing the relationship between the size of school units and the educational services provided indicate that many schools and administrative units in each of the project States are too small to provide economically an adequate educational program.

RELATION BETWEEN THE STRUCTURE OF LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS AND THEIR EFFECTIVENESS

The relation between size of schools and quality of teaching personnel.—One of the most important factors in the educational efficiency of a school is the quality of its teaching personnel. In an attempt to evaluate the instructional staffs of schools, the training, experience, and tenure of teachers were studied. In general it was found that teachers in large schools are better trained, have more years of teaching experience, and have remained longer in their present positions. Some findings upon which this statement is based follow:

Training.—In Arkansas the percentages of teachers having less than 1 year of college training range from 47 in 1-teacher schools and 35 in 2-teacher schools to 1.9 in schools with 10 or more teachers. On the other hand, 37 percent of the teachers in the large schools are college graduates, as compared with 4 percent in the small schools. In Oklahoma 54 percent of the teachers in schools with 10 or more teachers are college graduates, while only 8.3 percent of the teachers in 1-teacher schools are college graduates. There seems to be, therefore, a fairly direct relationship between the size of a school as measured by the number of teachers employed and the number of years of training beyond high school the teachers have had.

Teaching experience.—Not only do teachers in small schools have less training than those in large schools, but, generally, they have had fewer years of teaching experience. In Tennessee, for example, only 22 percent of the teachers in schools with 10 or more teachers have had less than 6 years' experience, as compared with 55 percent of those in 1-teacher schools and from 40 to 50 percent of those in schools with 2 to 5 teachers. In Oklahoma the number of teachers having less than 6 years' experience is approximately twice as large in 1-teacher schools as in schools with 10 or more teachers.

Tenure.—Larger schools not only have better trained and more experienced teachers than do small schools, but they retain their teachers longer. In Oklahoma only 4.8 percent of the teachers in 1-teacher schools have had 6 or more years' tenure, as compared with 47 percent of those in schools with 10 or more teachers. In Arkansas the proportion of teachers in 1-teacher schools who are occupying their present positions the first year is more than twice as large as the proportion in schools with 10 or more teachers.

The other project States found conditions to be similar to those reviewed.

The foregoing facts confirm the common observation that generally the instructional staffs of small schools are not as well prepared to render effective educational service as the staffs of large schools. Other facts reveal that, in the main, teachers in large schools are paid higher salaries than those in small schools. In Tennessee 65 percent of the teachers in 1-teacher schools, as compared with only 9 percent in schools with 10 or more teachers, receive salaries of \$60 or less per month. In Oklahoma 4.4 percent of the teachers in small schools, as compared with 49 percent in large schools, receive salaries of \$100 or more per month.

Arizona has shown that small schools can be staffed with well-trained teachers if sufficiently high salaries are paid. In that State the average annual salary in 1- and 2-teacher schools was \$1,053. This is considerably higher than the average paid teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools in most other States. As a result, 50 percent of the teachers in 1- and 2-teacher schools in Arizona are college graduates.

The relation between size of school and educational offerings.—The significance of the limited training and experience of teachers in the small schools is particularly apparent, because in the States studied small schools predominate. (See chapter XIV.) In an attempt to secure some indication of the effect of the size of schools and such concomitant factors as poorly trained and inexperienced teachers upon the educational program provided, a number of studies were made of curricular offerings. The results of these studies indicate: first, that small schools are not offering educational services equal in many respects to those offered by large schools; and, second, that if a State has a great many small schools, the total educational effort of the State is likely to be greatly hampered by the ineffectiveness of its local agencies for the provision of educational services. For illustrative purposes, the summary findings of comparative studies in three States are presented:

Arkansas.—A comparative study in Arkansas of a 2-teacher, 4-year high school, and a 9-teacher, 6-year high school revealed that the pupils of the latter have 20 subjects to choose from, while those of the former have only 5 subjects. In addition, four times as much time was given to the upper 4 grades of the 6-year high school as to the same grades in the 4-year high school.

Oklahoma.—In comparing 67 1-teacher and 59 8-teacher elementary schools, Oklahoma found that, regardless of size, all schools offered the same subjects, but that in the 1- and 2-teacher schools the time element demanded that subjects be taught under conditions making for inefficiency. The most common device for including subjects in the program of the small schools was to combine 2 or 3 grades in one subject. For example, a fifth-grade pupil might be taking a sixth- or seventh-grade subject without the proper preliminary training. Almost every pupil in the upper 4 grades of 1- and 2-teacher elementary schools was taking subjects too advanced or not advanced enough.

The amount of time spent on any one subject in an 8-teacher school was 3 to 11 times as much as in a 1-teacher school. For example, the time devoted to reading in the first 4 grades of the larger schools was 6 times as great as that devoted to the same subject in the first 4 grades of the smaller schools. The study revealed that three-fourths of the school time of each child in the 1-teacher schools was spent unassisted and unsupervised.

A comparison by Oklahoma between a typical 2-teacher, 4-year high school and the upper four grades of a typical 8-teacher, 6-year high school revealed that in the former only 5 subjects, all required, were offered, but that in the latter, in addition to the same 5 subjects, a number of elective subjects was offered and a program of extracurricular activities maintained, and that in the larger school more time was devoted to the 5 basic subjects.

Ohio.—In comparing the daily program typical of 1-teacher schools in a county with the daily program typical of the majority of consolidated schools in the State, Ohio found that the latter schools offered wider and more varied selections of studies and devoted from 30 to 40 minutes to each class with study carried on under direct teacher-supervision. In contrast, the 1-teacher school devoted an average of only 11 minutes per class, including time spent in changing classes and in making lesson and study assignments.

Similar studies made by other project States, as well as studies carried on by other agencies, indicate that the findings in Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Ohio are typical. Since small elementary and small high schools find it difficult and often practically impossible to offer a restricted program efficiently, they can hardly be expected to provide an enriched program. It is recognized, of course, that the number of subjects offered and the number of minutes devoted to each subject are not infallible criteria of the effectiveness of schools. Although it is entirely possible that unusually capable teachers in 1-teacher schools can secure as rapid pupil-progress as less capable teachers in large schools, such situations are exceptions to the rule. Effective teaching in small schools requires the best-trained and most efficient teachers. It has already been shown, however, that the greater proportion of poorly trained and inexperienced teachers are found in these small schools.

The relation between size of schools and effectiveness of educational effort.—The preceding discussion has pointed out the relationship between the size of a school and the quality of its instructional personnel and the breadth and variety of its educational services. A reasonable assumption is that the total educational situation in large schools will have a better effect upon the pupils attending than may be expected from the total educational situation in small schools. Generally, pupils in large schools make greater and more rapid progress than pupils in small schools and are more likely to stay in school longer.

Tests of pupil achievement have generally shown that pupils in 1- and 2-teacher schools rank appreciably lower on objective tests than pupils of larger schools. For example, in a study in 56 Ohio counties of achievement in eighth-grade grammar, the scores of pupils from larger schools in 41 counties exceeded, in amounts up to 35 percent, the scores of pupils from the 1-teacher schools. The Ohio State Department of Education annually conducts a State scholarship contest in which tests are given to pupils in all types of schools. For the 4 years from 1930 to 1933, the composite scores show a direct correlation between pupil achievement and size of schools. For example, in 1930 the composite score of pupils in small rural high schools was 136; in the somewhat larger village high schools, 149; and in the still larger city high schools, 162. In 1933 the scores were, respectively, 186, 201, and 210.

The effect of a large number of small schools upon the total educational progress of a State may be illustrated by Tennessee. In that State, 44 percent of all schools have only 1 teacher, 27 percent, 2 teachers, and 17 percent from 3 to 5 teachers—a total of 88 percent with 5 or fewer teachers. Standardized achievement tests were given to pupils in grades 4 through 8 in 12 counties and in 12 cities of the State. It was found that only grade 4 had a median score equal to or above the established grade norm for the entire country, and that grades 5 through 8 ranked from 2 to 6 months below normal. It is probable that the low achievement of the upper elementary grades is due in part at least to the large proportion of small schools in the State.

Other indications of the effect of the education situation in small schools are: (1) A smaller proportion of the pupils enrolled in small schools actually attend school than in the larger schools; (2) more pupils are retarded in small schools than in large schools; and (3) pupils in small schools tend to drop out of school earlier than do pupils in large schools.

Percent of pupils enrolled in average daily attendance.—In Oklahoma about 64 percent of the pupils enrolled in 2-teacher schools are in attendance, as compared with 77 percent in schools with 10 or more teachers. In Tennessee 69 percent of the pupils enrolled in 1-teacher schools are in attendance, as compared with 83 percent in schools with 10 or more teachers.

Retardation of pupils.—In Tennessee 48 percent of the pupils in 1-teacher schools are of normal age for their grade, as compared with 60 percent in larger schools. In Oklahoma the percentage of pupils in the normal grade ranges from 27 in 2-teacher schools to 41 in schools with 10 or more teachers.

Retention of pupils.—Only 29 percent of the pupils who enter the first grade in the 1-teacher schools of Arkansas reach the eighth grade, as compared with 49 percent in larger schools. Studies of grade distribution of pupils reveal similar situations. In Tennessee 28 percent of the enrollment in 1-teacher schools and 27 percent of the enrollment in

2-teacher schools are in the first grade, as compared with only 18 percent of the enrollment in schools with 6 or more teachers. In Oklahoma high schools only 10 percent of the enrollment in 1-teacher schools and 15 percent in 2-teacher schools are in the twelfth grade, as compared with 21 percent in schools with 10-or more teachers.

The data which have been presented to show the effect of educational services upon pupils in small schools as compared with the effect on pupils in large schools are in agreement with the findings of previous studies. For example, the 4-year study of pupil progress in Texas by Ayer¹ reveals findings agreeing with those presented here.

The effectiveness of local school administrative units.—The effectiveness of local units of school administration depends primarily upon the financial ability of the territory which they comprise; that is, upon the ability of that territory to raise by taxation funds which, together with funds from State or other sources, are sufficient to maintain an adequate educational program, including administrative, supervisory, instructional, and supplementary services. Although the area in which local taxes for this purpose are levied is a fiscal unit, it is usually the function of the board of education of the administrative unit to expend and manage these funds. Although some of these services may be and are provided by the State and some by fiscal units, the agency to which the responsibility for the provision of these services is usually delegated is the local school administrative unit. Therefore, the effectiveness of this administrative unit has a direct bearing on the effectiveness of the schools within its boundaries.

The relation between the size of a school and its cost is important. Small schools are generally not only inefficient but are also relatively expensive. For example, the average instructional cost per pupil in 1-teacher schools in Tennessee was nearly \$25, while in the larger schools it ranked from approximately \$20 to slightly more than \$22. Arizona reported that all of its schools with an annual cost per pupil in excess of \$100 were 1- and 2-teacher schools. Oklahoma's study revealed that the cost per pupil per day in 1-teacher schools was 30 cents, as compared with a cost of less than 20 cents in schools having 6 teachers or more.

The significance of the relatively greater costs in small schools is apparent when considered in connection with the size of administrative units. The situations found may be presented in summary form as follows:

- (1) Small schools may be expected to offer, at best, only a meager educational program.
- (2) They are in need of adequate instructional, supervisory, and supplementary services.
- (3) They are frequently located in administrative units financially unable to provide necessary services.

¹Ayer, Fred C. *The progress of pupils in the State of Texas.* Austin, Tex. State teachers association, 1932, 1933, 1934, 1935. About 35 p. each. (Separate bulletins of the Section on superintendence of the association.)

- (4) They represent a relatively greater burden than large schools upon the financial resources of the administrative unit.

They frequently cannot be enlarged because the administrative unit does not have enough pupils within its boundaries to permit increases in enrollment.

Each State participating in this study recognized that any program designed to relieve such situations with the hope of improving educational services must include not only financial aid by the State but a plan to improve the organization of local school units so that an adequate program may be offered at a reasonable cost.

DETERMINATION OF DESIRABLE MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR LOCAL SCHOOL UNITS

In formulating specific proposals for the organization of more satisfactory school units, a preliminary step is the determination of desirable minimum standards for each type of unit. These standards should be so framed that school units meeting or exceeding them will be able to provide the educational program adopted as desirable for the State. It must be recognized that, because of local conditions, it may not be possible to organize some school units to meet the standards adopted.

Each of the State project staffs proposed minimum standards for school units which, although partly based upon the findings of research studies conducted in other States, were adapted to prevailing conditions within the particular State so as to make this attainment possible in that State. Since these standards are detailed and peculiar to individual States (and are given in the individual State-printed reports), they are not summarized here.

The fundamental principle underlying standards for school units is well stated below:

The reorganization of school attendance areas, administrative units, and financial units must be effected in terms of the adopted and planned functions of the public-school system. The basic criterion to be observed is an adequate educational program; hence, the organization of sound attendance areas and administrative units must make for the continuous development of the child from the day he enters until the day he leaves the public school.²

Although the standards proposed and adopted and the proposals recommended by the project States for improving the organization of their local school units vary from State to State, the principle as stated was adhered to.

Principles underlying minimum standards and the factors to be considered in determining minimum standards are presented in chapter II. Usually the State project staff determined standards for the services to be rendered by attendance areas and administrative units in terms of the size of school

² National Education Association, Department of Superintendence. The improvement of education. In fifteenth Yearbook. Washington, the Association, 1937, p. 135.

units as measured by the number of teachers and number of pupils. In order to illustrate State standards and to show some of the factors considered in adjusting standards to State conditions, those in Kentucky and California are summarized:

Kentucky.—The Kentucky project staff proposed that no elementary school-teacher be required to teach more than 1 grade, whether the school is organized on a 6-grade or 8-grade basis. An 8-teacher, 8-grade elementary school would have a maximum enrollment of 360 pupils, an average membership of approximately 320, and an average daily attendance of approximately 300. The desirable minimum high school would have 6 teachers and 175 to 200 pupils. In a few districts, because of local conditions, a 3-teacher high school with an enrollment of 75 pupils was recommended. In some districts an 8-4 organization was recommended, while in others a 6-6 or 6-3-3. Concerning these standards the Kentucky State report carries the following statement:³

Attention is called at this point to the fact that the minimum standards used in this study may appear rather low, but when one considers the general topography and the sparsity of population in many of the school districts in the State, this may be readily understood. In many instances the standards were not strictly adhered to, but in such cases attendance areas or administrative units not meeting these standards, but recognized in the report due to adverse conditions, were termed emergency units, with the understanding that such units would be abandoned and would be merged with other units as soon as conditions permitted. It is further understood that not a great many school districts of the State can put the entire program into effect immediately, due to lack of adequate finances and suitable roads for transportation, but in each instance certain changes were recommended which could be made effective under present conditions.

California.—In California a rather general adoption of the 6-3-3 organization with an additional 2 years of junior-college work was recommended, although, in some instances, the 6-4-4 organization was considered more desirable. A minimum of 1,500 pupils and of 45 teaching units was proposed for an administrative unit; yet it was recognized that many administrative units would necessarily fall below this standard.

In discussing standards the following statements appear in the California report:⁴

The great majority of administrative units in California, however, must be set up and maintained below this standard. This is because of the great size of the State and the sparsity of its population in many wide areas. It is absolutely necessary in some parts of the State to propose administrative units that will not have a desirable

³ Kentucky. State department of education. Study of local school units in Kentucky. Frankfort, The department, 1937, pp. 41-42.

⁴ California. State department of education. Study of local school units in California. Sacramento, The department, 1937, pp. 57 and 60.

minimum of 1,750 or even 1,500 students enrolled. Some entire counties have less than 1,500 students within their borders. . . . Because of distances between homes in some sections, it is impossible to gather more than a few hundred pupils together in a single administrative unit of reasonable size. In such case, the minimum standards in terms of administrative and supervisory services for a single administrative unit must be listed somewhat as follows: One board of education, one superintendent of schools, one clerk or bookkeeper for the superintendent, one nurse-attendance officer, one librarian-clerk. This is considered to be the "absolute minimum" for any administrative unit in the State.

Allowing 35 pupils to each elementary teacher, the minimum size for an elementary six-grade school is 210 pupils. For an eight-grade school, of course, the minimum would be 280. For a six-year high school there would be an absolute minimum of 216 pupils and a desirable minimum of 324 pupils. For a junior high school there would be a desirable minimum of 360 pupils and an absolute minimum of 240 pupils. For a senior high school there would be a desirable minimum of 300 pupils and an absolute minimum of 200 pupils

PROPOSED PROGRAMS

The proposals formulated by the several State project staffs have been based upon the collection and evaluation of data concerning the administrative structure and operation of school units throughout each State. The sum total of the specific changes recommended in attendance areas and administrative units, including recommendations for State legislative action, constitute proposed State-wide programs. The proposals drawn up by each State project staff in cooperation with its respective State department of education, as well as the findings of the study on which they are based, are presented in the State project reports which may be obtained from the respective State departments of education. To illustrate the procedures followed, the factors considered, and the outcomes expected, the program proposed in Oklahoma is summarized and compared with status as of 1934-35. Significant recommendations in the proposed programs of the other project States are summarized in the section immediately following the section on Oklahoma.

IN OKLAHOMA

In Oklahoma the study revealed that a large number of attendance areas and administrative units are too small to perform adequately their proper functions, and that the present financial program of the State does not sufficiently encourage either a maximum local financial effort or the organization of more satisfactory school units. Furthermore, existing laws governing changes in boundaries and in consolidation of administrative units tend to impede in many ways the improvement of the organization of school units. The tentative program proposed, in the judgment of those making the proposals, would help to remedy these defects.

Proposed minimum standards.—The minimum standards for school units proposed cover every phase of the activity of attendance areas and administrative units. The size standards proposed for schools and administrative units are presented in tables 94 and 95. It was thought that schools and administrative units meeting these size standards would be able to meet most of the other proposed standards in respect to curricular offering, quality of instructional personnel, adequacy of school buildings, etc. If adequate administrative and supervisory services are to be provided at a cost which bears a reasonable ratio to the cost of other services, the administrative unit should include not fewer than 45 teaching units and 1,200 children. The Oklahoma State project staff suggests that in districts meeting the size standards shown in table 93 but falling below an enrollment of 1,200, supervisory and some administrative services be provided for the districts by the county intermediate unit.

Proposals affecting individual school units.—The proposals for the modification of existing school units are tentative but specific. Each unit in the State has been carefully considered and needed changes proposed. Map IX and table 96 illustrate the way in which satisfactory attendance areas and administrative units have been suggested for Jackson County. The map shows the present and proposed schools and administrative units and the table compares and summarizes the present and proposed plans of school-unit organization. Similar plans have been drawn up for each of the other counties in the State.

TABLE 94.—*Proposed minimum number of pupils and teachers in elementary and secondary schools in Oklahoma*

Level of school work	Grades offered	Minimum		Desirable minimum	
		Number of teachers	Number of pupils in A. D. A.	Number of teachers	Number of pupils in A. D. A.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Elementary.....	1-6	6	165	7	200
Elementary.....	1-8	8	235	9	265
Junior high school.....	7-9	7	185	10	275
High school.....	7-12	7	170	10	255
High school.....	9-12	7	155	10	235
Senior high school.....	10-12	7	155	10	235

TABLE 95.—Proposed minimum number of pupils and teachers in administrative units in Oklahoma¹

[NOTE.—The table should be read as follows: If, in an administrative unit having a 6-6 organization, the number of high-school teachers is 7, the total number of teachers in the unit should be 16 and the total enrollment 425. The other items should be read in a similar manner.]

Type of organization	Minimum			Desirable minimum		
	Number of teachers in high school	Total number of teachers	Number of pupils	Number of teachers in high school	Total number of teachers	Number of pupils
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6-6.....	7	16	425	10	23	635
8-4.....	7	24	675	10	36	1,020
6-1-3.....	17	34	965	10	52	1,465

¹ Number of teachers in senior high schools.

TABLE 96.—Comparison of the present plan of school organization in Jackson County, Okla. with the proposed plan

Item	Present (1934-35)	Proposed
School districts or administrative units.....	23	8
Elementary attendance areas.....	23	8
High-school attendance areas.....	18	8
1- and 2-teacher schools.....	5	2
3- to 5-teacher schools.....	1	2
6- to 9-teacher schools.....	9	8
10-or-more-teacher schools.....	8	8
Administrative units with an area of 100 square miles or less.....	23	2
Pupils transported.....	3,218	3,740
Teachers employed.....	240	232
Elementary schools that meet proposed minimum-size standards.....	7	8
High schools that meet proposed minimum-size standards.....	1	8
Administrative units with a school population of fewer than 600.....	20	8
Current costs based on 1935-36 costs and services.....	\$355,409	\$326,262
Current costs based on present minimum program.....	\$321,158	\$300,274
Current costs based on proposed minimum program (9 months, higher salaries, and better services).....	\$368,062	\$341,171

¹ 228 in Jackson County and 12 in schools from Greer County.

Although the proposed changes for each administrative unit are based on careful consideration of local factors and are entirely individual, it is possible to summarize proposals for the State as a whole and to indicate some of the effects of the recommended changes:

Enlargement of schools.—The changes proposed in the organization of attendance areas would, if carried out, have the effect of eliminating small inefficient schools and of greatly increasing the number able to provide desirable educational services. In 1934-35 there were in Oklahoma 2,828 1-teacher schools and 1,385 2-teacher schools, constituting, respectively, 46.7 percent and 22.9 percent of the total number in the State. When all proposed changes are made, the number of 1-teacher schools will be reduced to 5 and the number of 2-teacher schools to 2. The 7 1- and 2-teacher schools not eliminated would be retained because local topographical conditions make their existence necessary, although

it was recognized that greatly increased financial assistance would have to be extended by the State to enable them to provide educational services comparable to those provided by larger schools. Accompanying the decrease in the number of small and inefficient schools would be an increase in the number of large and more effective schools. The number of schools with 10 or more teachers now constitute 3.8 percent of the total in the State; under the proposed program they would constitute 57 percent.

The proportion of schools with an enrollment of 30 or fewer pupils each would be reduced from 31 to 1.6 percent, and the proportion with an enrollment of 31 to 100 pupils each from 47 to 11 percent. The percentage of schools with an enrollment of more than 100 would be increased from 23 to 88, and the percentage of those with an enrollment of more than 500 each from 2.6 to 34.

Enlargement of administrative units.—In Oklahoma a very large proportion of existing administrative units are coterminous with attendance areas. For example, 51 percent of all districts have only 1 teacher and an additional 31 percent from 2 to 5 teachers. This means that in 4,084 of the 4,951 school districts it is practically impossible to organize even one school sufficiently large to provide adequate educational services. If schools and the attendance areas which they serve are to be enlarged as proposed, it will be necessary to increase the area of many administrative units. Fifty-four percent of the administrative units have areas of less than 10 square miles. Under the proposed program no administrative unit would have an area of less than 11 square miles, and 55 percent areas of from 100 to 250 square miles.

Increasing the area of districts will correspondingly increase the number of pupils within each district, thus permitting the establishment of schools with larger enrollments. At the present time, 35 percent of all school districts have enrollments of 30 or fewer pupils, and an additional 43 percent have enrollments of from 30 to 100 pupils. Under the proposed program, less than 3 percent of the units will have enrollments of fewer than 100. At present, only 6 percent of all districts have enrollments of more than 400 pupils, while under the proposed program 84 percent will have enrollments of more than 400 pupils.

The number of teachers per district will be increased. The proportion of districts with only 1 or 2 teachers would be reduced from nearly 83 to less than 4 percent, and the proportion with from 11 to 30 teachers would be increased from 5.2 to 48 percent. Approximately 27 percent of the proposed districts would have from 30 to 50 teachers.



FIGURE 7.—Unsatisfactory bus transportation equipment.

The use of busses in this condition unnecessarily endangers life and property. Through special allocation of secondary aid in 1935-'36 Oklahoma replaced these busses with modern equipment.

TABLE 97.—State and local funds necessary to provide the minimum program and enrichment in present and proposed units in Oklahoma on basis of present and proposed financial plans

Possible organizations	Amount necessary for minimum program	Local contribution to minimum program (10-mill basis)	Primary aid	Equalization (secondary) aid needed	Amount for local enrichment beyond minimum program	Total amount available
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Present financial program on basis of present district organization.....	\$22,334,165	\$11,912,203	\$5,423,697	\$4,998,265	\$10,337,044	\$32,671,204
2. Present financial program on basis of proposed district organization.....	21,414,938	12,305,026	5,423,697	3,686,215	9,944,221	31,359,157
3. Proposed financial program on basis of present district organization.....	27,331,633	13,367,177	8,504,210	5,460,246	8,882,070	36,213,703
4. Proposed financial program on basis of proposed district organization.....	25,883,231	13,574,803	7,380,220	4,928,208	8,674,444	34,557,675

One of the most important effects of the enlargement of local school administrative units will be the equalizing of their ability to finance schools within their boundaries. At present, the number of districts with less than \$500 assessed wealth per child of school age is approximately the same as the number with more than \$5,000 of such wealth; each group includes about 10 percent of the total. The poorer districts can raise by taxation only \$1.50 per pupil per year, while the wealthier districts can raise \$7.50 per pupil per year. The result is that while poorer districts cannot finance even a meager educational program, the wealthy districts need draw upon only a small portion of their available wealth to finance an educational program far exceeding the maximum possible in the poorer districts. Although, under the proposed program, there would still be a wide variation between the financial ability of districts, the range from \$7.50 to \$150 per pupil per year would not be so great. This means that the ability of poor districts to finance their schools would be increased five times, while the available wealth in the wealthier districts would not be reduced below the amount which is at present levied upon for school purposes.

The proposed State financial program.—Even though all the previously described changes are effected and all school administrative units are so organized that each may make the greatest possible contribution to the support of schools, many units will still be unable to finance adequately desirable and needed educational opportunities.

The principle guiding the Oklahoma State project staff in proposing a State financial program has been that social needs for education rather than economic ability should determine the educational offering. It becomes necessary, therefore, for the State to supplement district funds, in some cases extensively in order that a desirable minimum education can be made available to every boy and girl in the State. The present

method of apportioning State funds to local districts in Oklahoma in some respects fails to create a situation conducive to achieving this goal.

The State grants so-called "primary aid", consisting of payments for teachers' salaries, to every district which has a certain minimum average daily attendance, and "secondary aid" to districts meeting certain other educational requirements. The minimum attendance is 18 elementary pupils for "primary aid" and 40 high-school pupils for "secondary aid." Although some very small schools have combined in order to meet the minimum requirements, the resulting schools are still small and little real improvement in educational services has resulted. Many districts pay teachers less than the amount received from the State for teachers' salaries and, by combining the difference with funds from local taxes, are able to operate schools without meeting the additional educational requirements for receiving "secondary aid." About 1,500 school districts are levying no local taxes and are operating their schools entirely on State funds. The general effect has been to perpetuate unsatisfactory schools and school unit organization and to remove incentives for local improvement of schools.

In proposing a State financial program, the State project staff was guided by certain principles, some of which are: The desirable financial program should equalize local tax burdens for school purposes, yet it should require a reasonable effort on the part of each local district and should encourage the exercise of local initiative to enrich as much as possible the educational program. The State should require local districts to meet desirable minimum educational standards but should not actually operate any district. The State program should, as a matter of policy, encourage the establishment of administrative units and attendance areas large enough to permit economical administration and to provide a broad program of educational opportunities.

There are two important provisions in the proposed State-aid program for Oklahoma: (1) The State would pay teachers' salaries, according to a minimum schedule set by the State, to each district making a 5-mill levy on the lawfully assessed valuation of the district. The minimum schedule set by the State would, in most cases, exceed the present salaries and, since districts would be required to pay teachers the amount received from the State for salaries, would result in the employment of better-trained instructional personnel. Each district could, of course, exceed the State minimum salary schedule. (2) The State would pay to each district making a 10-mill levy the difference between the amount raised by this levy plus the amount received from the State for teachers' salaries and the amount necessary to maintain schools for a 9-month term. This would make possible in every district a 9-month term and a higher standard of educational services than are currently maintained. Districts that merge to form a more satisfactory school administrative unit would be provided with sufficient funds to permit a better instruc-



FIGURE 8.—Satisfactory bus transportation equipment.

Up-to-date bus equipment should obviate unnecessary risk to life and property. The busses shown were purchased and placed in service in Oklahoma in 1937-38.

tional program and would receive financial assistance for the construction of needed buildings.

Under this program there would be a uniform minimum rate of local taxation, whether districts remain as they are or whether they consolidate with other districts. There would be an incentive for the State to encourage the consolidation of districts in order to reduce cost, since the greater the proportion of school costs which may be borne by the locality, the smaller the proportion of State funds needed. The local districts would have an incentive to consolidate because the smaller the proportion of local funds which must be devoted to the minimum program, the greater the proportion which may be used for enriching the program and for providing supplementary educational services.

Effect of the proposed program on total school costs.—The State project staff attempted to work out comparisons to show what effect the proposals made would have on the cost of education in the State. During the school year 1935-36, the current cost of education was \$28,098,318. If, during that year, the proposed organization of attendance areas and administrative units had been in effect, the educational opportunities offered could have been provided for \$26,681,216. In other words, by improving the organization of local school units, it would have been possible to save \$1,417,102. It is quite probable that because of the more efficient teaching possible in larger schools, the educational services provided would have been more effective. Furthermore, without increasing the amount of money expended for education in Oklahoma during that year, additional services could have been provided with \$1,417,102.

The preceding comparison was based on actual and proposed expenditures for a particular year. The financial effect of the proposals may be further illustrated by comparisons of the cost of the present and proposed programs on the basis of the present and proposed district organizations. In making these calculations, it has been assumed that all local districts would make a uniform tax levy of at least 10 mills for the minimum program and an additional levy, up to 5 mills, for enrichment of the minimum program, the total levy not to exceed the constitutional limit of 15 mills. The assumption of a uniform levy for all districts is necessary in order to secure comparable figures. As shown in table 97, the total amount raised by local districts (column 3 plus column 6) remains the same in the four possibilities shown, and varies only in respect to the proportions of the total local funds which are used for the minimum program and for the enrichment program.

If the present financial procedures were used, the present minimum program could be secured in the *proposed* district organization for \$919,227 less than in the *present* district organization. The present

enriched program could be secured in the *proposed* district organization for \$1,312,050 less than in the *present* district organization.

If the proposed financial procedures were used, the supplementary services recommended by the State project staff could be provided in the *proposed* districts at a saving of \$1,448,402 for the proposed minimum program, and at a saving of \$1,656,028 for the proposed enriched program.

Proposed legislative program.—In addition to the legislation affecting the method of distributing State school funds, certain other changes in the school code were deemed necessary. The most important changes proposed are those affecting the procedures for changing school district boundaries and those affecting school unit organization. In chapter XI it was pointed out (1) that existing procedures for modifying the organization of school administrative units in Oklahoma are difficult to carry through, (2) that several types of school administrative units in the State are unsatisfactory educational organizations, and (3) that when districts have once been enlarged, it is practically impossible to make further desirable enlargements.

Legislation recommended by the State project staff would make more nearly uniform the procedures for changing the boundaries of school districts, and would make it easier to secure definite action on proposals to modify school unit organization. At present, there is a different method of making boundary changes for each type of district in Oklahoma. The proposed laws would require the county superintendent, upon petition signed by one-third of the qualified electors of the district or districts involved, to call an election to decide whether boundary changes of any type should be made. The changes would be decided by a vote of 50 percent of the qualified electors voting at the election. This procedure, although placing more reliance upon the local initiation of improvement than some of the project States deem advisable, would represent a marked improvement over existing procedures.

Another change proposed would eliminate the existing complex classification of school districts and would make all districts with a pupil population of 1,200 or less, dependent districts, and all districts with a pupil population of more than 1,200, independent districts. The distinction between dependent and independent districts now depends upon the existence within the district of an incorporated town with a fully accredited 4-year high school, or of a city of the first class. Since towns with a total population of not less than 100 can be incorporated, many independent districts, although too small to provide their own educational supervision, are exempt from the supervision of the county superintendent. Proposed legislation would eliminate this situation by exempting from county supervision only those districts

large enough to provide themselves with adequate instructional supervision.

Uniformity is proposed on such items as the number of members, manner of election, term of office, qualifications, and powers of boards of education in all districts. The purpose of this proposal is to eliminate possible objections from school board members to the development of larger school units and to provide boards of education that will be as free as possible from political domination.

Although few changes are proposed in the jurisdiction of the county superintendent, his responsibilities in respect to the supervision of instruction and to the provision of supplementary health and library services would be extended, especially if independent districts are required to have a school population of more than 1,200.

IN OTHER PROJECT STATES

In general, the procedures followed by all project States in formulating proposed programs are similar to those described for Oklahoma. Although, as a result of local differences among States, there are differences in the forms proposals have taken and in points of major emphasis, the purpose has been the same. In practically every State, the proposals, if effected, would improve the organization of public education in the State as a basic step toward securing greater effectiveness from the total educational effort of the State. Illustrations follow:

Enlargement of schools.—In practically every State the proposals call for a reduction of the total number of schools in the State by eliminating the inefficient schools—usually the very small schools. Accompanying the reduction in the number of very small schools would be an increase in the number of larger schools. In Arkansas the percentage of 1-teacher white schools would be reduced from 55 to 26; the percentage having 3 or more teachers, increased from 24 to 55; and the percentage having more than 200 pupils, increased from 12 to 34. Although in 1 year (1936) the number of 1-teacher schools in Ohio was reduced from 2,387 to 1,889, the proposals recommend a further reduction to 7. The average enrollment in elementary schools would be increased from 122 to 245. In Kentucky the number of 1-teacher elementary schools would be reduced from 5,732 to 1,659 and the number of 2-teacher elementary schools from 1,087 to 397, while the number of elementary schools having 5 or more teachers would be increased from 478 to 759. All of the 54 existing 1-teacher high schools would be eliminated; the number of 2-teacher high schools would be reduced from 195 to 16, and the number of 3-teacher high schools, from 150 to 6.

Enlargement of administrative units.—The proposals by the State project staffs call for a reduction in the number, with a consequent increase in the size, of administrative units. The principal objectives to be obtained through this increase are, *first*, the organization of administrative units sufficiently large to provide, economically, adequate educational services, and, *second*,

to equalize more nearly the ability of these units to contribute to the support of the educational program. Here, as in the enlargement of schools, the enlargement of local school administrative units is not an end in itself but a means of obtaining the greatest possible operating efficiency of public education.

The reduction in the number of administrative units depends to a great extent on conditions within a State. Recommendations made by State project staffs are based on careful study of each administrative unit. Map III (Ventura County, Calif.) and Map VII (Ashland County, Ohio) illustrate the present and proposed organizations in two very different situations.

The proposals call for a reduction in the number of administrative units in Arizona from 434 to 29; in Arkansas, from 3,134 to 75; in California, from 3,062 to 296 or to 88, depending upon which alternative plan is adopted; in Ohio, from 1,593 to 734; and in Tennessee, from 174 to 95. These reductions in number involve increases in area, in enrollment, and in number of teachers. For example, in Arkansas 52 percent of all districts employ only 1 teacher and 99.7 percent, 60 or fewer teachers. Under the proposed plan, none of the districts will have fewer than 60 teachers, and 52 percent will have between 100 and 200 teachers. Of the 79 districts to be eliminated in Tennessee, 68 percent have areas of less than 5 square miles and 29 percent, areas of less than 1 square mile. None of the proposed districts would have an area of less than 100 square miles; 48 percent, areas from 250 to 500 square miles; and 39 percent, from 500 to 750 square miles. Forty percent of the districts to be eliminated have fewer than 500 pupils enrolled, while none of the proposed districts would have enrollments of fewer than 500 pupils, and 42 percent would have from 2,000 to 5,000 pupils. Whereas, 61 percent of the districts to be eliminated have from 2 to 20 teachers each, 65 percent of the proposed districts would have from 100 to 250 teachers each.

Variations in range of assessed wealth of administrative units would be markedly reduced by the proposed programs. For example, in Arizona the range in assessed wealth per pupil is from \$42 to \$187,859, while under the proposed program, it would be from \$1,000 to \$27,000; and in Arkansas, the range is from \$21, to \$6,000, while under the proposed program, it would be from \$271 to \$1,337.

The effect of the proposed programs on total school costs.—Another important effect of the enlargement of schools and school units would be a marked reduction in the cost of providing the same educational services. In Arizona some districts now are levying as high as \$2.74 on each \$100 of assessed wealth; under the proposed program, no district would have to levy a tax of more than \$1.02. The percentage of districts levying taxes exceeding \$1 would be reduced from 11 to 3, while the percentage of districts with local levies of from 1 to 40 cents would be increased from 22 to 56. In California it is estimated that the cost per pupil in the 15 counties studied intensively would be reduced 7.4 percent and that the total savings in these counties would accordingly be nearly 5 million dollars.

It should be noted particularly that these savings are calculated on the basis of maintaining but not increasing the existing educational program. There have been instances in the past where proposed changes in school unit organization have not received local support because of the belief that the proposed organization would involve increased expenditures. In practically all cases where the reorganization of school units is accompanied or followed by increased expenditures, such increased expenditures are chargeable to additional services which the new organization is called upon to provide rather than to the cost of operating the new organization. An example is found in Tennessee where the total expenditures in 1935-36 were \$18,338,969. The proposed organization would require an expenditure per year of \$20,322,500. This increase is not due to the proposed organization—it would provide present services more economically than the existing organization—but to the greatly increased services which would be provided. It should be noted further that, although the total expenditures under the proposed plan would be \$1,983,531 more than the expenditures in 1935-36, they would still be \$91,493.70 less than the expenditures in 1930-31.

In Arkansas the proposed organization would require expenditures of \$12,018,689 as compared with \$8,356,712 for the school year ending 1935. The increase is due to proposed salary increases for better trained personnel and to the provision for additional services. The \$3,661,977 increase is less than one-half of the amount by which State and local school expenditures for schools in Arkansas were increased from 1920 to 1930.

PROPOSED LEGISLATIVE PROGRAMS

Factors affecting the legislative program.—In recommending legislation to effect State-wide changes in accordance with proposed programs, State project staffs recognized that the ultimate purpose must be improvement of educational services. To accomplish this purpose it was deemed advisable (1) that insofar as possible legislation, especially that relating to the system of financial support, should be designed to encourage rather than discourage the organization of larger and more effective schools and local units of school administration; (2) that laws setting forth procedures for modifying the organization of local school units should be simplified to facilitate desirable changes, especially in boundary lines, and that such changes should be made only after careful study of the area or areas involved; and (3) that provision should be made for some means of coordinating boundary changes throughout the State.

The system of financial aid to local districts.—In general, the project States have recognized the principle that the financial program should be designed not only to assist the less wealthy school districts in maintaining an adequate educational program but to encourage the enlargement of administrative units. The proposed financial program in Oklahoma, already described, presents one of the more specific recommendations. The Arkansas State report recommends that enlargement of school districts be encouraged by

granting special State aid to enable districts to meet such immediate financial obligations resulting from consolidation, as the purchase of buses and new transportation equipment and the erection of buildings.

In Pennsylvania, as pointed out in chapter XII, school districts are penalized for consolidating. It has been recommended in that State that the laws be so revised that financial penalties will no longer be a concomitant to the enlarging of districts. It has been further recommended that the differences in wealth of districts be adjusted by using the county instead of the district for assessing and collecting taxes. One act already passed in Pennsylvania which, it is expected, will materially improve the quality of instructional personnel, provides for special State subsidies to enable fourth-class districts (under 5,000 population) to pay minimum salaries equivalent to those now required by State law in third-class districts (5,000 to 30,000 population).

In Ohio the School Foundation Program, described in chapter X, has already had marked effect in that educational services have been improved throughout the State. Changes proposed in this program are intended to eliminate the situation in which districts educating tuition pupils receive a larger amount (as tuition) of State funds than the resident districts would receive to educate them.

Simplifying procedures for changing boundaries.—Proposals in most of the project States would eliminate such obstacles to changing district boundaries as the requirement of an unduly large proportion of voters' signatures on a petition for boundary changes; the requirement of unduly large majorities in elections held to decide the question; and the requirement of majority votes in each district affected. Arkansas proposes that the question of forming an administrative unit should be decided by a single majority vote in the entire area. As pointed out in chapter V, the Arkansas school law making necessary a majority vote in each district affected had a decidedly retarding effect upon the rate at which consolidations were made.

In general, the proposals would make it more difficult for minority vested interests in a small area to block desirable changes which would benefit a much larger area. Usually the question involved in these proposals is the manner in which proposed changes may be initiated. As has been pointed out, Oklahoma considers it advisable to rely upon locally initiated petition to secure boundary changes. An opposite view is expressed in the California State report:⁶

Some members of the staff of the Federal Study of Local School Units are inclined to believe that the success of a movement for reorganization in the interests of larger units of local school administration which depends upon the initiative, sponsorship, and endorsement of local communities, large numbers of which have vested interest in maintaining the status quo in small district organization, is extremely doubtful. This staff believes that the basic problem of school district organization for the State of California is a problem which should be settled by the people

⁶ *Op. cit.*, p. 120.

of the whole State, especially since the people of the whole State are paying, through their State government, the lion's share of total State school costs (61.9 percent for the school year 1934-35). As pointed out elsewhere in this report, it was during this same year that the State paid 100 percent of the educational costs in almost 60 percent of all elementary districts in the State. These wholly State-supported districts are the very ones which are most likely to oppose the movement for larger school administrative units.

The California State project staff believes that the situation can be remedied by a law which would abolish the present system of separate elementary school and high-school districts and which would constitute the boundaries of existing high-school districts as the boundaries of unified districts having control of education from the first grade through the twelfth or fourteenth grade. Provision would also be made for allowing these districts to be further enlarged or otherwise modified by local action when additional changes are necessary.

Coordination of boundary changes.—Some of the State project staffs contend that one of the best methods of securing improvement in local administrative organization is to charge an agent or agency with the responsibility for suggesting and coordinating changes in school unit boundaries. An outstanding example of the rapid rate at which changes can be secured by such an agency, even though the agency itself had no mandatory power for effecting changes, is found in Arkansas, where during the 13 years when county boards of education and county superintendents were in existence, a great many very small and ineffective school districts were eliminated. From 1920 to 1930, the total number of districts in Arkansas decreased from 5,112 to 3,703, a decrease of 27.5 percent. From 1930 to 1935, a further decrease of 15 percent reduced the total to 3,134 districts, with most of this decrease prior to 1933. Since the abolition of the county boards of education and county superintendencies in 1933, this program of reorganization has made relatively little progress. The Arkansas State project staff has recommended that the county examiners be specifically charged with the responsibility of exercising educational leadership in studying and recommending changes in existing school district organization. One step in this direction was taken when the office of county examiner was made a full-time position.

In Ohio, where the School Foundation Program law requires county boards of education to study school units and to make recommendations for changes in their boundaries, rapid progress has been made in enlarging schools and school districts. In Pennsylvania a step was taken in the direction of coordinating and effecting boundary changes by a recent law creating county boards of education and giving to these boards the responsibility of requiring an election in certain districts upon the question of consolidation with adjacent districts. The districts affected by such an election are not coterminous with a political unit and employ not more than 10 teachers. The election must be held not later than 1939. Each

county board of education is also charged with the responsibility of suggesting changes in the organization of other school districts under its jurisdiction.

In connection with the establishment of local agencies for securing enlargement of school districts, it has been recommended that State departments of education be given the authority to work with such local agencies in securing the desired changes. In Arkansas it is proposed that there be created in the State department of education a special division charged with the responsibility of encouraging and directing the reorganization of school units. In Pennsylvania, under the terms of the act creating county boards of education, the securing of such changes is made a definite function of the State department of public instruction.

Other recent legislative acts.—In Pennsylvania the minimum school term has been set at 180 days for all districts, regardless of population or wealth. Transportation must be furnished for pupils living more than 2 miles from school in all districts coterminous with townships. The compulsory attendance age has been raised from 16 to 18. By thus increasing the total school enrollment, especially in the upper grades, the necessity for enlarging school districts will, in some instances, become more urgent. Because increased enrollments in high schools will, in some cases at least, create burdens which local districts, as now organized, will be unable to meet, it is likely that some districts will consolidate in order to provide adequate high-school facilities. In Tennessee it has been recommended that all special or private legislation, which in the past has created so many complexities of school district organization, be nullified and prohibited. In Ohio proposals have been made which will prevent districts from becoming exempt from the supervision of the county superintendent until they are of adequate size to provide satisfactorily necessary educational supervision.

EVALUATION OF PROPOSED PROGRAMS

Although tentative, the proposals made by the State project staffs are specific and present practical plans for securing the most satisfactory school units deemed possible under the conditions existing in localities and in States. They have been formulated, after intensive study, by people familiar with conditions in the State, working in cooperation with legally authorized State and local officials.

Although it is too soon to estimate the practical effect of all project proposals, some definite results have already appeared. In Pennsylvania, for example, the law establishing county boards of education and giving to the county boards certain responsibilities in respect to the organization of more satisfactory school units, is a direct outgrowth of the study. In one county in Kentucky, the proposals worked out by the project staff in cooperation with county school officials were adopted by the county school officials, and the buildings necessary to put the proposals into effect are under construction. In Ohio, Oklahoma, and some other States, specific bills to be

introduced at the next session of the Legislature have been prepared. In Ohio the findings of the study have assisted county boards of education to work out valid and more coordinated plans for changes in boundaries of school districts than would otherwise have resulted in many counties. In each State the study has definitely revealed the need for and the importance of improving the organization of local school units.

That interest in the organization of satisfactory school units will not be confined to the 10 project States is already evidenced by the fact that other States are interested in the work of the study. Requests for information are being received from State and local school officials, from colleges and universities, and from educational and lay organizations. The Local School Units Project may be regarded as a contribution, calling attention to the necessity for careful public consideration of one of the most important problems of public education. It is hoped that the experiences in this project will be of value in guiding other States in making similar studies.

SOME FACTORS AND CONDITIONS TO BE RECOGNIZED IN A PROGRAM FOR IMPROVING THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

Experience in studying local school unit organization has indicated that there are certain principles of primary concern in any program for improvement. Some of the more important are:

- (1) Recognition of the individuality of each State.
- (2) Recognition of the necessity for providing a balanced educational program.
- (3) Recognition of the adopted educational program in the organization of local school units.
- (4) Recognition of the individuality of areas within a State in the organization of local school units.
- (5) Allocation of responsibilities and jurisdictions with a minimum probability of administrative conflict.
- (6) Establishment of sound criteria for the distribution of State school funds.
- (7) Consideration of the types of legislation which should be passed.

Recognition of the individuality of each State.—It must be recognized that within each State there are certain peculiar conditions which will affect the procedures followed in prosecuting a study of local school units, and which will be of particular importance in formulating recommendations based upon the study. It is necessary also to recognize that any improvements which may be made must be along the lines of what is feasible rather than solely on the basis of what is theoretically desirable. This is particularly important in determining minimum standards for schools and school units. Standards must necessarily be adapted to each State in terms of the adopted educational program and of peculiar

conditions within the State; otherwise, the attempt to improve the organization of local school units may create such strong opposition that the achievement of any reorganization will be far removed.

Recognition of the necessity for providing a balanced educational program.—The analysis of the status of local school units in each of the 10 project States shows that there is room for improvement in the organization and promotion of an integrated educational program. On any one school level, for example, elementary, the disparity between the restricted offerings of some schools and the greatly enhanced offerings of others reveals a lack of balance in the State educational program on that level. A similar lack of balance exists not only on the secondary level but between elementary and secondary levels. The difficulty of coordinating effectively the work of these two levels in States which have separately organized elementary school and high-school districts is quite obvious, but the lack of coordination in States where they are not separately organized is most noticeable. In many States there are large areas within which high-school opportunity is not readily available, if available at all, for pupils living in the areas. At the same time, in some areas where high schools are maintained, their organization and educational offerings are far superior to those of the elementary schools in the same areas. It is apparent that there is real need for more concerted effort to establish a necessary total educational program, rather than to place varying degrees of emphasis on the several divisions, such as elementary school, high school, and junior college.

Recognition of adopted educational program in the organization of local school units.—Since local school units must be regarded as units of government for providing desirable educational services, their nature will depend upon the services it is their purpose to provide; in other words, upon the educational program adopted in a State. Consequently, local school units should be established, modified, or perpetuated only when and where their existence and operation will contribute to a more complete realization of the adopted educational program.

Recognition of the individualities of areas within a State in the organization of local school units.—Local school units are not only governmental units for the provision of specified service, but they are governmental units for the provision of the specified services in given localities. Their nature will, therefore, be affected by the local conditions under which they must operate. Although the services to be rendered are the same, the structural organization of a unit in a populous, wealthy community, of necessity, will be quite different from the organization of a unit in sparsely populated, barren territory.

Allocation of responsibilities and jurisdictions with a minimum probability of administrative conflict.—Since local school units are governmental agencies for the provision of specified services in given localities, and since they therefore must function as component elements of the State ad-

ministrative structure of public education, care must be exercised in determining and in distinguishing the administratively desirable responsibilities and corresponding jurisdictions of each type of local school unit established. Overlapping, conflicting jurisdiction and ambiguous delegation of administrative responsibility should be avoided; otherwise the probability of efficient administrative operation of the State school system will be greatly decreased.

Establishment of sound criteria for the distribution of State school funds.—A primary purpose for distributing State funds to local units is to enable financially handicapped units to provide the educational program desired throughout the State. Operating efficiency and economy require that State school funds be distributed so that: (a) Small and ineffective units, whose establishment was not necessitated by topographical conditions or low density of population, will not be subsidized and perpetuated; and (b) the establishment of larger and more efficient units will be encouraged.

Consideration of types of legislation which should be passed.—In formulating the essential legislative program for effecting the improvement of the organization of local school units, it should be recognized that both mandatory and permissive legislation will probably be needed in most States. It seems probable that, insofar as conditions within a State permit, legislation concerning the observance of necessary standards for the offering of a minimum educational program should be mandatory. Permissive legislation should make it possible for local units to exceed the minimum educational program and to experiment for the purpose of testing new methods and procedures for providing the adopted educational program.

Legislation essential for the improvement of the organization of local school units should be framed in terms of basic underlying principles rather than in terms of operating detail. State boards and departments of education should be required to observe the basic principles established by law, but should be given regulatory power to make desirable adjustments without the enactment of new legislation each time adjustments are necessary.

It should be recognized that the ultimate control of public education must rest in the hands of the citizenry. The State board of education, boards of intermediate units, and local boards of education, although having direct legal control of public schools, should be responsive to the desires and wishes of the public. Contrary to practice in certain quarters, the members of boards of education should be representative of the constituency as a whole, and not of factions. Boards of education should serve as representative bodies of the people in the formulation of operating policies of the public-school program.

School board members, above all other laymen, need to recognize the essential nature of public schools in a soundly balanced society.

Only so far as boards of education are aware of both their opportunity and responsibility to their communities and to their schools, can continuous progress be made toward the development of equitable educational opportunities for all. As the citizens of the local areas of a State become more sensitively aware of the importance of the functions of the public school in contemporary life, the control of public schools will become more sympathetic and intelligent. As progress is made in this direction, it becomes increasingly necessary to preserve a nice balance between the extent of mandatory regulation imposed by the people as a whole upon dissenting minorities controlling individual school units, and the opportunities to be extended to such local groups for deviation from the norm endorsed by the State as a whole.

Selected Bibliography

Many of the documents issued by public education authorities are free. Many of the materials can be borrowed from the libraries of State universities, State historical societies, the Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior, or the Library of Congress. Probably no one library has all the items referred to in the bibliography.

An asterisk () preceding an item indicates that an interlibrary loan can be made from the library of the Office of Education where a copy is on deposit.*

Availability of data.—A surprising volume of data has been assembled on the present status of school districts in individual districts, States, and regions during the past few years. The beginning studies in State school administration show various points of emphasis and attack in studying school administration. As pointed out in the October 1934 issue of the *Review of Educational Research* a broadening of the scope of the bibliography therein to include items related to the problem of school organization was necessary to a complete consideration of the problem.

A stumbling block in the way of investigators was until recently the general unavailability of data that are comparable in content and delimitation. Terminology was loose, different items were reported, and the purposes of the studies were various.

During the past few years the availability of comparable data increased as the references listed below show.

Arkansas, Arizona, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee made and reported studies under the direction of the Office of Education; Colorado, Idaho, Texas, Utah, Washington, individually studied their present educational conditions, aided by Federal funds; Minnesota also studied 14 counties with Federal funds; and New York has recently reported the findings and recommendations of its Regent's Inquiry into the character and cost of public education in the State of New York.

The participation of the State departments of education in the program of uniform records and reports conducted by the Office of Education at the request of the Council of Chief State School Officials reflects desirable outcomes of such cooperation in the data available today.

Out of the many studies in school administration those selected for this list show the diversity of techniques used; the scope of the data collected and presented, and the projection of plans of improvement, costs, etc.

It has been our hope to include the recent major contributions to the literature in the field of State school administration relating to the organization of satisfactory units of administration and finance.

References covering certain phases of the problem have not been included but the following paragraphs should explain these omissions and point to sources of data.

Articles.—Many articles of merit appearing in the official organs of taxpayers' and education associations have not been included in the bibliography, yet it is highly desirable to call attention to this type of material; especially has that issued by the California Taxpayers' Association and the Illinois Education Association been particularly instrumental in arousing interest in the problems of school administration in the lay and school groups in those States.

Atlases.—The preparation of maps showing various items for districts, a necessary procedure in the prosecution of studies of local school units, has resulted in the accumulation of visual documents for State and county offices and, in some instances, for interested individuals.

The 10 States participating in the Local School Units Project have prepared maps for some or all of their units which are available for study in the State and county offices; some of these States have issued books of maps for the local superintendents and others interested in them. Many States have taken this preliminary step in an effort to "see" existing situations and study them more closely. For instance, New York has recently issued an atlas which includes all school districts in New York for 1937. The leading libraries in New York State have a copy of the atlas, each county clerk has on file the sheets for his county, and each school district superintendent has a copy of the map of his district.

The shape and size of school districts has long been the subject of study and comment. Minnesota issued recently (1935) a mimeographed sheet entitled "A sampling of Minnesota school districts relating to shape"; the individual State project reports (in the Study of Local School Units) commented on the size and shape factors in relation to existing units; and New York's atlas definitely calls attention to these factors.

Masters' theses.—There are on file in many of the libraries of the universities and colleges theses in the field of State school administration. The number is too large to include all the references. The few representative ones are included below.

Sociological and economic background data.—In any comprehensive study of the local school unit geography factors, of which population is one, are indispensable.

Indexes of socio-economic status may be designed to include many or a few factors, and these selections may cover the subject and each selection be considered representative by its author. There is little agreement, however, as to the truth and totality of the picture presented by the selected items. A glance at table 78 A, B, and C, reveals some of the items that may be considered pertinent in studying socioeconomic status.

References on the various studies of ability and effort of school units to provide a total or minimum educational program have not been included in the bibliography.

Department of Commerce.—Other data necessary as background factors in studies of local school units showing population trends, composition, and distribution; national wealth and income; illiteracy; etc., are in publications of the Bureau of the Census and the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce known as *Fifteenth Census of the United States, 1930* (issued decennially) and the *Statistical Abstract of the United States* (issued annually) and obtainable by purchase from the United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., and available for reference in most large libraries.

Department of the Interior, Office of Education.—Many publications of the Office of Education on various problems in local and State school administration related to the planning of effective school units are available by purchase from the Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., and by interlibrary loan from the library of the Office of Education. Among these are the Biennial Survey of Education (for State and city school statistics); bibliography of research studies in education (annual compilation of research studies in education undertaken by universities and colleges, State and city school systems, and organizations known to be engaged in the study of special phases of education); National, State, and city surveys (the surveys made by the office and bibliographies of such studies); list of publications of the office.

National Resources Committee.—Most of the State and regional planning publications and reports on this committee's list of publications are available for reference in the library of the committee in Washington, D. C. Reports listed as "Typed ms." are not available for distribution but are on file for reference also in that library and at the headquarters of the respective State planning boards where inquiries concerning these and other reports should be addressed.

Other planning board publications which will be helpful in the study of local school units as background or supplementary data are land-use, economic and population surveys; planning primers; etc.

Handbooks of procedures for planning the reorganization of local school units: See Alves (Office of Education circular no. 156), and reports of Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.

A second publication of the Office of Education resulting from the Local School Units Project is entitled, "Principles and Procedures in the Organization of Satisfactory Local School Units." This publication is an elaboration of the handbook used by the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education in the prosecution of the Local School Units Project and should be helpful to State and local school administrators in studying present status and projecting programs.

ABEL, J. F. Study of 260 school consolidations. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1924. 39 p. (Office of education, Bulletin, 1924, no. 32.)

Describes the historical development of consolidation, and transportation by States. Contains valuable information.

ALEXANDER, CARTER, and COVERT, TIMON. Bibliography on educational finance, 1923-31. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1932. 343 p. (Office of education, Bulletin, 1932, no. 15.) (Vol. I. National survey of school finance.)

This bibliography, one of the publications of the National Survey of School Finance (conducted by the Office of Education), does for the materials published from 1923 to 1931 what the Educational Finance Inquiry's bibliography did for the earlier years.

Lists more than 5,000 studies of school finance which appeared from 1923 through (September) 1931.

ALLEN, HOLLIS PARTRIDGE. A study of the control of education through freeholders charters of California cities and counties. Doctor's thesis, 1933. Stanford University, Stanford University, California. (Abstract in: Stanford university. Abstracts of dissertations for the degrees of doctor of philosophy and doctor of education, 1932-33. Fifth series, no. 158, p. 165-71.)

Data indicate that the large amount of educational control appearing in charters leads one to doubt the existence of a unified State school system; that the control of education through charter is less sound and more inappropriate than control by the general law of the State; and that all charter provisions in regard to education could be eliminated without serious loss.

ALVES, H. F., *et al.* Handbook of procedures for planning the reorganization of local school units. Washington, Office of education, January 1936. 54 p. mimeog. (Circular no. 156.)

Presents statistical forms, illustrative standards, and procedures for planning the organization of more satisfactory schools, attendance areas, and local school units of administration and finance.

Shows the data needed to study present educational provisions, how to organize and analyze these data, and how consequently, in terms of generally recognized principles, to lay the plans for the reorganization of schools and school districts to result in a more adequate educational program administered on a more equitable basis.

and MORPHET, EDGAR L. Principles and procedures in the organization of satisfactory local school units. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1938. 164 p. (Office of education, Bulletin, 1938, no. 11.) Bibliography, forms, maps, charts.

This bulletin, one of the two Office of Education publications resulting from the local school units project, is intended to supply to State and local school officials and others interested in educational organization and administration the long felt need for a guide to the study of local school units which would be rather extensive in its suggested principles, procedures, and sources, and which would contribute to the uniformity of the treatment and elements within the resulting reports.

Its content concerns: Problems in present organization, the recognition of need for study, and a plan for organizing the work and the staff to carry out this plan; the need for defining, stating, and adopting standards and objectives; collecting and organizing data to show present status upon which to evaluate the present situation and project proposals for improvement; the legislative program; and the financial program.

This publication is a revision and elaboration of the handbook issued in 1936 by the Office of Education and used in the study of local school units conducted cooperatively by the Office of Education and Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee. It includes a series of 41 forms for collecting and tabulating data, illustrations of various types of maps and charts, and a selected annotated bibliography.

AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION. School organization. Review of educational research. (N. E. A.), 4: 357-68; 404-17; 417-25; 431-33; and 440-44, October 1934.

This number of the *Review of Educational Research* is a handy compendium of the chief facts on school administration and organization and is a guide to source of more detailed data. School administration in this issue deals with the structure of the school system and its modifications in response both to social and administrative needs, treated genetically, and the literature is reviewed to July 1, 1934.

Ch. I: Units of school organization. William C. Reavis. Pp. 357-68. Discusses the various types of administrative units showing origin, present status, advantages and disadvantages.

Ch. IV: Organization of administration.

A. City school administration. Nelson B. Henry and Edward C. Bolmier. pp. 404-17. The authors point to the relative recency of research studies in the field of school administration. This section concerns boards of education, administrative officers, and types of administrative organization.

B. State school administration. Warren W. Cox. pp. 410-17. Points out that most of the studies of the organization of State departments of education have dealt with the organization as set up in constitutions and laws and that few attempts have been made to go beyond the legal provisions to evaluate the way in which organization has functioned. This section concerns the State boards of education, the chief State school officials, and staffs of education departments.

C. County school administration. Warren W. Cox. pp. 417-25. Calls attention to the variations in the definitions used to distinguish classes of administrative units within a State, that all counties in a State are not of the same kind of administrative units, and that studies by different authors do not agree in their classifications for entire States. This section concerns county boards of education, county superintendents, and staffs.

Review of educational research. (N. E. A.), 7: 361-65; 394-411, 422, 437-42, October 1937.

The broad scope of this review is consistent with the desirable connotation of "administration." The consideration of many factors is necessary to a true understanding of the present status of school systems and the projection of plans for their improvement.

Chapters I and V and the bibliography are particularly significant to a study of local school units.

Chapter I. Territorial units. pp 361-65. Nickolaus L. Engelhardt and Harold W. McCormick. Discusses number of districts in United States and types of local school units.

Chapter V. Organization of administration in territorial units. pp. 394-411. A. Cities. pp. 394-99. Jesse B. Sears. B. Counties. pp. 400-03. William C. Reavis and J. D. Logsdon. C. States. pp. 404-11. Nickolaus L. Engelhardt.

The topical treatment for the research in these three phases of administration is similar to that in the review for October 1934.

The items in the bibliographies of this and the October 1934 issue of the Review (on topics related to A, B, and C, above) make a rather complete list of studies in State school administration.

*ARIZONA. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. A study of local school attendance areas and administrative units in Arizona. Phoenix, The department, 1936. 185 p. (mimeog.) maps, tables.

This is one of the State reports issued by 1 of the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education in its Local School Units Project. (See also: Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.)

Gives 14 county plans of reorganization.

This study was made to determine the truth concerning educational conditions in each county and school district in Arizona to serve as a guide in recommending an educational program, which, when completed, should overcome many of the defects and inequalities of the present system, with little if any increase in annual expenditure, and tend to equalize and increase the educational opportunities of all of the children in the State. The information contained in the study should serve as a valuable aid and guide to future decisions on school organization.

*ARKANSAS. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. A study of local school units in Arkansas. Little Rock, The department, 1938. 214 p. maps, charts, tables.

This is one of the State reports issued by 1 of the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education in its Local School Units Project. (See also: Arizona, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.)

The general purposes of the Arkansas Local School Units Study were (1) to collect, organize, and analyze data concerning present schools and school administrative units; (2) to formulate standards and plans for the reorganization of existing administrative units into more effective school units; and (3) to ascertain and plan for the needs of the future school program of Arkansas.

The study embraced the 75 counties of the State. As an outgrowth of the study made in each county, proposed programs of reorganization were developed. Nearly all of the county programs have been completed. Some are available in typed form; others in mimeographed form. Complete data, including the proposed reorganization, for all counties are on file in the State department of education.

The report listed here gives data for the existing 3,134 administrative units and gives in summary form the present and proposed programs for three typical counties selected to show different situations and conditions and are indicative of the 79 reports on file in the State department.

*AXTELL, PAUL H. Judicial determinations affecting the power to create and alter school districts in the United States. Doctor's thesis, 1933. New York university, New York, N. Y. 244 p. ms.

Outlines limitations in connection with Federal constitution and State constitutions.

Uses material, taken from primary sources, based on the decisions of judges in cases which have come before courts affecting the power to create and alter school districts.

BRISCOE, ALONZO OTIS. The size of the local unit for administration and supervision of public schools. (Doctor's thesis, 1934.) New York, Bureau of publications, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1935. 110 p. (Contributions to education, no. 649.)

An analysis of the relation between the size of the local unit for public-school administration and supervision and the economical administration and supervision of the schools.

Data were secured from reports of investigations of public-school systems in 13 different States, from reports of the State department of education in 10 different States. Data indicate that units employing 200 teachers or more provide control most economically, but that units employing 70-80 teachers may provide adequate control by using relatively low percentage of current expense for the purpose. The proportionate cost of adequate control is comparatively high in units employing 40-60 teachers, and becomes prohibitive in the typical unit employing fewer than 30.

BUTTERWORTH, JULIAN E. Defining the local rural school unit in terms of its objectives. *Educational administration and supervision*, 11: 145-56, March 1925.

Stresses the importance of determining the size of a school unit in the light of its adequacy to support schools without making it too large to enlist the cooperation and interest of the community.

— Should the county be the local unit of school administration? *In* University of Pennsylvania. Tenth annual schoolmen's week proceedings. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania press, 1923, pp. 132-39. (University of Pennsylvania bulletin, vol. xxiii, no. 38.)

Contends that size of administrative unit should be determined by its objectives and depends both on ability to provide physical resources for effective schools and on the feasibility of integrating the interests of all groups in the territory. Favors community rather than county districts.

— Types of local school units. *In* National society for the study of education, Thirtieth yearbook, pt. I. The status of rural education. Bloomington, Public school publishing co., 1931. pp. 202-06.

Emphasizes need to determine type of administrative unit in light of the situation to be faced.

*CALIFORNIA. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. Study of local school units in California. Sacramento, The department, 1937. 137 p., maps, charts, tables.

This is one of the State reports issued by 1 of the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education in its Local School Units Project. (See also: Arizona, Arkansas, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.)

The report sets forth pertinent information on present status of school district organization in California. In order to develop adequate comparisons between the large and the small units in respect both to administrative units and attendance areas, illustrative proposals for such units in 15 representative counties in California are set up.

Complete reorganization proposals formulated by the California staff of this study have been presented in separately prepared county reports, which are on file in the State department.

CALLAHAN, JOHN. The financial situation in Wisconsin high-school districts. Madison, Wisconsin department of public instruction, 1926, 87 p.

State-wide study of high-school opportunities, their costs, and their sources of funds. Wisconsin high schools are in a critical condition financially, due to increased enrollments, doubling of building costs, increased instructional costs, decreased State aid, disparity between tuition revenues and costs of instruction, and small taxing unit for high-school support. It was found that the burdens are particularly heavy on the small high schools because of their small enrollments, their inadequate property valuations back of each pupil, and because of the fact that these small schools draw a large percentage of the tuition pupils. It was found that small high schools are most expensive and most poorly supported. The study recommends larger taxing units, more equal distribution of high-school opportunities, more equal high-school opportunities, and new tax sources. It was found that 19.62 percent of the total area of the State now supports all of Wisconsin's high schools.

CARR, WM. G. Efficient unit of administration. Educational research bulletin (N. E. A.), 9: 238-44, September 1931.

Cites typical recommendations from State school surveys emphasizing the need for thinking of education in terms larger than the small rural district, lists the principal larger units in use or proposed at present; and presents characteristics of a good unit for rural school administration; but points to the necessity for research as to the effectiveness of various types of local school units.

CHAMBERLAIN, LEO M., and MEECE, LEONARD M. The local unit for school administration in the United States. Lexington, College of education, University of Kentucky, 1936. 44 plus 56 p. (In two parts.) (Bulletins of Bureau of school service, vol. viii, nos. 3 and 4, March and June 1936.)

Part I. Describes the scope and character of the investigation and includes a survey of the basic and intermediate units for school control in use in the 48 States; an analysis of these units in terms of area, school population, teaching staff, and other related factors; and an interpretation of existing conditions on the basis of an 8-division classification of the local organization for school management.

Part II. Includes maps of typical systems and diagrams showing the organization for school control in these systems. In addition it shows the relationships existing between the local organization for school control and certain measures of school efficiency. Finally, it furnishes an analysis of the trends in reorganization of the local unit for school administration.

CLARK, HAROLD F. The effect of population upon ability to support education. Journal of educational research, 14: 336-39, December 1926.

A study to determine a means of measuring effect of population on ability to support education. Communities with few adults in comparison to children are less able than communities with large number of adults to support education. Author works out formulae for measuring how change from standard ratio of adults to children affects ability to support schools. Formula is $\frac{X^2}{4}$ when X equals the ratio of adults to children in community.

- *CONRAD, CHARLES WILLIAM. Shall we unify the "dual school system" in Illinois? Master's thesis, 1935. Northwestern university, Evanston, Ill. 179 p. ms.

Discusses the "dual school system" maintained in 500 communities in Illinois, and the unit system used in other communities of the State. Finds that dual systems result in inefficiency because pride of office and jealousy of prerogatives tend to keep schools from cooperating for the common interests of their students; that they throw relatively too heavy a tax burden on the rural territory; and that they prevent proper articulation between the elementary and secondary divisions of the school system. Suggests that the school district system be reorganized so that the schools from the nursery school to the college level should be considered as one administrative unit.

- COVERT, TIMON. An annotated bibliography of studies pertaining to the county unit of school administration. Washington, Office of education, 1930. 16 p. ms. (Circular no. 12.)

This bibliography lists more than 100 published studies pertaining to the county unit of school administration.

- Educational achievement of one-teacher and of larger rural schools. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1928. (Office of education, Bulletin, 1928, no. 15.) 23 p.

A survey of studies on this problem; reveals that larger rural schools are consistently better in educational achievements than small schools.

- Good references on consolidation of schools and school districts. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1934. 10 p. (Office of education, Bibliography no. 27.)

Contains a list of 60 relevant items.

- Larger units for educational administration a potential economy. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1933. 43 p. (Office of education, Pamphlet no. 45.)

Compiles excerpts from official survey reports on economies resulting from reorganization and on possible savings from the establishment of other reorganizations.

- State aid for school consolidation and pupil transportation. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1931. 9 p. (Office of education, Leaflet no. 3.)

This study presents information concerning State school funds provided specifically for consolidated schools and pupil transportation in the United States and the conditions under which they are granted.

- State provisions for equalizing the cost of public education. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1936. (Office of education, Bulletin, 1936, no. 4.) 49 p.

The support of public education is virtually accepted, in principle, at least, as a State obligation throughout the country. In practice, however, there is wide variation in the degree of the responsibility assumed by the several States for the financial support of their public schools. While no State evades the entire burden,

the major part of the load is shifted in most instances to local units and consequently to local taxpayers.

This bulletin reports a number of plans developed by the various States for financing the public schools.

- ***CRESSMAN, GEORGE RIGHTER.** Local units for educational administration. Doctor's thesis, 1931. University of Pennsylvania. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, 1932. 266 p.

Compares school systems of Pennsylvania and Maryland by pairing selected counties, 7 in each State, one State having the township and the other the county units for administration. Results seem to favor county unit State.

- CÜBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P.** State school administration: A textbook of principles. Boston, Houghton Mifflin co., 1927. 773 p., illus. charts, etc.

(Riverside textbooks in education.)

Selected references at close of each chapter.

See particularly chs. vi through ix for organization and development of units and forms of control.

- CYR, FRANK W.** Needed research on the reorganization of school districts in rural areas. New York, Bureau of publications, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1937. 23 p.

Reprinted from *Teachers College Record*, 38: 293-315, January 1937.

This pamphlet should provoke serious thinking on the problems of State school administration. The author calls attention to the factors to be considered in the reorganization of attendance areas and administrative units; what research has been done; and that further research is needed into educational aims and philosophy as they affect reorganization of administrative structure.

- Responsibility for rural school administration; allocation of responsibilities in the administration of schools in rural areas, with special reference to the county. Doctor's thesis, 1933. Teachers college, Columbia university, New York. Teachers college, Columbia university, 1933. 159 p. (Contributions to education, no. 579.)

Analyzes the allocation of responsibilities to the local district, county, and State, and gives a basis for the reorganization of the administrative set-up for schools in the rural areas.

- DAWSON, HOWARD A.** Satisfactory local school units—Functions and principles of formation, organization, and administration. Nashville, Division of surveys and field studies, George Peabody college for teachers, 1934. 180 p. (Field study no. 7.)

Discusses the place and function of the local school unit in public-school administration, the characteristics of a satisfactory school, satisfactory administrative and supervisory organizations, size of a satisfactory local unit of school administration, status of local school attendance and administrative units, the reorganization of local school units, the local school unit and school finance, and the results of the reorganization of local school units.

DAWSON, HOWARD A., and LITTLE, HARRY A. Financial and administrative needs of the public schools of Arkansas, vol. i. Little Rock, State department of public instruction, 1930. 100 p.

Presents detailed plan of school organization and administration, including costs and sources of necessary additional revenue which will make educational facilities available to all children in Arkansas.

Recommends redistricting entire State so that districts "conform to natural economic and community lines."

DEFFENBAUGH, W. S., and COVERT, TIMON. School administrative units with special reference to the county unit. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1933. 25 p. (Office of education, Pamphlet no. 34.)

Outlines principal legal provisions relating to school administration in States having some or all counties organized on county unit or semicounty unit plan; presents principal statutory provisions for county school taxes; gives general description of "district" and town or township administrative units; and gives data on total number and size of school units and number of school-board members in each State.

*DUDLEY, LOFTON LELAND. The school and the community; a study of local control in the public schools of Massachusetts. (Doctor's thesis, 1932. Harvard university, Cambridge, Mass.) Cambridge, Harvard university press, 1933. 176 p. (Harvard studies in education, vol. 22.)

Discusses local unit for school administration; local organization and administration; school committee; legal basis and personnel, organization and methods; superintendent of schools; other relationships to local government; and the basis for public interest and support.

EDWARDS, NEWTON. The courts and the public schools. Chicago, University of Chicago press, 1933. 591 p. (Social science studies, no. 28.)

Chapter II is a comprehensive treatment of district organization and control with particular attention to the legal principles governing the creation of school districts, the alteration of their boundaries, and the effect of such changes on pre-existing assets and liabilities. Other chapters deal with the legal status and authority of school and district officers.

ENGELHARDT, FRED. Public school organization and administration. (Designed to be an introductory textbook.) New York, Ginn and co., 1931. 595 p.

Chapter on school district organization gives good background discussion of the relation of school districts to the organization of civil government, of type arrangements of school districts, of the county and township as school districts, of corporate and noncorporate districts, and of procedures for changing boundaries. Other pertinent chapters are those dealing with the legal status of boards of education and superintendents.

— The future school district. American school board journal, 81: 51-52, July 1930.

Draws analogy between business and school organization. Argues that small unit is inefficient and predicts future enlargement of districts. Emphasizes the need for careful planning and coordination.

ENGELHARDT, FRED. The need for larger school district unit. In Four Minnesota schools (Bulletin of Minnesota education association, no. 5) pp. 6-8, May 1934.

In citing the need for a larger local unit for the support and administration of public schools in Minnesota, advantages from the county, as an example of a larger local unit, are definitely set forth; states that major changes in methods of distributing State funds to schools should demand reorganization of school districts and that planning of a newer type of school district organization should consider certain principles, which are listed.

— and others. District organization and secondary education. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1933. 208 p. (Office of education, Bulletin, 1932, no. 17; National survey of secondary education, Monograph no. 8.)

Explains in considerable detail the development of present school district organizations—in part I for the United States; in part II for California; in part III for Illinois—with emphasis on the secondary. Includes legal provisions, costs, and plans that have been made for reorganization of secondary school districts.

The authors hold: "The organization of school districts can not remain static if it is to provide satisfactorily a service that is modified as the social and economic status of the people changes. One of the greatest barriers to educational progress is the idea, so strongly entrenched in many States, that the school district organization as established is not to be modified. . . . If all States could begin with the principle that no incorporated school district could be created unless a minimum and complete elementary and secondary school program can be offered economically within its boundaries, a big step in the solution of the most difficult school problem would have been taken."

Part I is a comprehensive and general survey of district organization in the United States in relation to providing secondary education. A chapter on provision for secondary education by the district either within the district, by transportation of pupils and payment of tuition to another district, or by combining with other districts to maintain a high school. A chapter on practices of providing high schools supported by the county, State, or independent high-school district. Part II and Part III make more intensive studies of the situation in California and Illinois, both of which have a dual system of elementary and high school districts.

*GAUMNITZ, WALTER H. Economies through the elimination of very small schools. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1934. 54 p. (Office of education, Bulletin, 1934, no. 3.)

Presents data which will help us to realize more fully how prevalent and how widespread the small-school problem really is; to examine concrete evidence of the cost of extremely small schools, and to cite ways and means employed both in this country and abroad in seeking a solution to the problem.

High per capita costs obtain in schools with very small enrollments.

— The smallness of America's rural high schools. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1930. 78 p. (Office of education, Bulletin, 1930, no. 13.)

This study was limited for the most part to the schools which were located in the open country or in villages and towns of fewer than 2,500 population.

- *GAUMNITZ, WALTER H. The central rural school district of New York: A satisfactory unit of school administration. Doctor's thesis, 1935. George Washington university, Washington, D. C. 270 p. ms.

Examines critically the laws and principles of school administration under which the central rural school districts of New York were inaugurated, and evaluates the results of this form of school organization, and attempts to determine to what extent this form of school administration could be successfully employed elsewhere. Finds that this system has brought to the rural communities a graded program of elementary education, a complete 4-year program of secondary education, special efforts to care for the needs of the junior high school grades, various auxiliary school services, a modern school plant and equipment, an improved corps of teachers, greater and more regular attendance, transportation of pupils wherever necessary, better school supervision, and many other educational improvements.

- GREYER, JOHN EDWARD. Inequalities of educational opportunity in the Illinois public school system. Master's thesis, 1936. University of Colorado, Boulder. (Abstract in: University of Colorado studies. Abstracts of theses for higher degrees, 1936:33.)

Finds that 2,656 districts enroll fewer than 10 pupils each, and 6,211 enroll fewer than 15 pupils in 1-teacher schools, that of 998 high schools, 546 have an average daily enrollment of fewer than 100. Recommends a complete revision of school laws leading to a better State educational organization, followed by the reorganization of taxing and education units to equalize school responsibility, school support, and school efficiency.

- GRIMM, L. R. The larger school district unit; Some problems and issues in Illinois. Springfield, Department of research and statistics, Illinois State teachers association, December-January, 1934-35, 3 vols. 100 p. (mimeog.)

A well-conceived and executed study of the district organization, problems, and costs in Illinois.

- HAY, HOMER W. Litigation caused by the creation, alteration, and dissolution of school districts. Doctor's thesis, 1934. University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa. (Abstract in: University of Pittsburgh. Abstracts of theses, researches in progress, and bibliography of publications, 10: 162-69.)

Analyzes 1,700 court cases dealing with the creation, alteration, and dissolution of school districts in the United States. Cases before the courts indicate an evolution of statutory processes; 88 percent of the cases dealing with the consolidation of districts have come before the courts since 1914; statutes permitting annexation in rural districts are not as lenient as those providing for municipal annexation.

- *HOLMSTEDT, RALEIGH WARREN. Factors affecting the organization of school attendance units. Bloomington, Indiana university, 1934. 32 p. (Bulletin of the school of education, vol. x, no. 3, June 1934.)

Presents data concerned with factors affecting the organization of school attendance units with special reference to Indiana; draws conclusions as to standards for the size of school, distance of transportation, and the size of the attendance areas; considers the functions of administration, supervision, and school support as they

affect the size of the school unit; and points out the relationship between the school and other social services in the community as an important aspect of satisfactory school units.

Houle, C. O. A set of criteria for the county unit system. *American school board journal*, 9:31, March 1935.

This article brings out the fact that the county unit is not the same in any two States. It sets up criteria under these headings: General phases, the school board, and the superintendent. County should be unit of taxation and administration. It enumerates qualifications for membership on board and for the superintendent and functions of each.

***ILLINOIS. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.** Study of local school units in Illinois. Springfield, The department, 1937. 158 p. tables.

This is one of the State reports issued by one of the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education in its Local School Units Project. (See also: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.)

It is indicated in the preface to this report that although county reports in rough finished form covering the present status have been prepared and written for 55 of the 96 counties studied, 90 counties will be completed at the close of the project. (Six counties in Illinois were not included in this study.)

The purposes of this study are: (1) To discover and present important facts concerning the schools, pupils, teachers, and costs in the school system of Illinois; and (2) to work out and recommend a program of organization and finance, on the basis of present costs, which will afford improved school advantages to the largest number of children.

It is indicated also in the preface that this report is essentially preliminary and that the study of local school units will be continued by the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction following the close of the project, and that reports will be printed and issued by the State office of public instruction as the work is completed.

Representative county reports included are for Adams, Douglas, Hardin, and Winnebago.

KEESECKER, W. W., and SEWELL, FRANKLIN C. Legal and regulatory provisions affecting secondary education. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1933. 114 p. 10 cents. (Office of education, Bulletin, 1932, no. 17: National survey of secondary education, monograph no. 9.)

As title indicates, this monograph primarily concerns secondary school administrative units. The laws affecting secondary education, however, embody those laws enacted for elementary education.

The second chapter is devoted to a brief analysis of the principal types of local school districts provided for by law and a general review of the various functions which such districts are authorized to perform.

Also gives summary of legal provisions relating to pupil tuition and transportation.

***KENTUCKY. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.** Study of local school units in Kentucky. Frankfort, The department, 1937. 126 p. maps, charts, tables.

This is one of the State reports issued by 1 of the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education in its Local School Units Project. (See also: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.)

The purpose of this report is to trace briefly the development of public education in Kentucky up to the present time, to set up desirable minimum standards for the State's educational program, to evaluate the present program in terms of these standards, to propose a more desirable educational program for the State in the future, and to suggest means of financing such a program.

Maps of 6 counties shown in report; final maps of all (120) counties and complete status data as of 1934-35 for Kentucky's 300 school districts are on file in the State department at Frankfort. Reports on present status and proposals for more than 60 counties were completed by May 1936.

- *KIMBALL, ELWELL F. Evaluation of the town in Connecticut as a school unit. Doctor's thesis, 1934. New York university, New York. 323 p. ms.

Analyzes present school districts, State control in Connecticut, present status and trends of education in the State, and suggests certain outstanding community districts for school administration.

- *LITTLE, HARRY A. Potential economies in the reorganization of local school attendance units. Doctor's thesis, 1934. Teachers college, Columbia university, New York, N. Y. Teachers college, Columbia university, 1934. 78 p. (Contributions to education, no. 628.)

Analyzes data secured from county reorganization surveys of 223 counties in 15 States, concerning types of proposed consolidations of schools and the changes which those consolidations would make in the cost of schools. Gives formulas for estimating the proportional cost of consolidated schools; the percentage of the original cost of the schools which can be saved through consolidation; the percentage of children requiring transportation; and the cost of transportation.

- MISSOURI STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS. An administrative survey of each of 107 county school systems in Missouri. *In* Supplement to eighty-third report, 1932. Jefferson City, State superintendent of schools. 1056 p. maps, tables.

Presents certain facts regarding schools of each county with recommendations for reorganization.

- MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. A technique for determining natural communities. *In* National council on schoolhouse construction. Proceedings of Thirteenth annual meeting, 1935. Nashville, Tenn., The Council, 1935. pp. 63-66.

Discusses briefly the 1935 survey of certain areas in Michigan (particularly the technique used in Washtenaw County) to determine possible variations in type of school organization essential to a general reorganization plan. Gives the outline of the complete survey of which sections three and nine describe the natural community.

"The result [of the county study] was the division of the county (20 townships; 153 school districts; 70,000 people) into seven natural communities and one special social area created by a consolidated school district. In all except the two largest centers, the division between urban, farm, and non-farm population, is fairly good so that in terms of political possibilities the farmer would not be submerged. . . .

"The results of this experimental study will be used as a basis for more extensive survey of the entire State. It indicates definitely that the county does NOT make the best form of school district in thickly settled areas. It indicates definitely the need for a variety of flexible districts such as community, county, and region."

MOELHMAN, ARTHUR B. Editorial: The community school district. 'School of education' bulletin, 7: 49-51, January 1936.

Author holds that problem of school organization cannot be approached from the standpoint of saving money or of a worship of mere size; suggests that the natural community is the logical unit of organization.

NEW YORK. Regents' inquiry into the character and cost of public education in the State of New York. A home rule method of improving school district organization in New York State. New York, The inquiry, February 1938. 18 p. (mimeog.) maps.

This preliminary report and announcement of findings is a résumé of the study begun in 1935 by the Regents. It gives a picture of present and proposed district organization as a basis for discussion of the problems involved in the program and points to the hope that this discussion may be initiated before the final reports come from the press.

The pamphlet should accomplish this objective for New York and should instill in other States an interest in techniques of approach to studies of this character and in the desirability of periodic "stock taking" and adjustment to present-day conditions.

————— New York school district atlas. Albany, The regents. 1937.

450 p.

Shows boundaries of school districts, locations of schools, highways, railroads, rivers, mountains, and county lines.

*NORTH CAROLINA. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. Study of local school units in North Carolina. Raleigh, The department, 1937. 191 p. Illus., maps, charts, tables.

This is one of the State reports issued by 1 of the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education in its Local School Units Project. (See also: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.)

The purpose of the study in North Carolina was: (1) To trace the historical growth and development of public education in the State from the local standpoint; (2) to determine the status of present educational opportunities; and (3) to offer suggestions and recommendations for the reorganization and improvement of existing facilities.

There are presented brief statements and statistical tables concerning the public schools of the State as a whole, and recommendations for their improvement. As representative of the present local status of schools, maps and descriptive exhibitions are given for several counties. It is indicated in the preface to this study that material of this kind will be made available to local school authorities for the other counties covered by this survey.

OBRIEN, F. P. Economies possible in larger school units. Lawrence, Bureau of school service and research, University of Kansas, 1934. 29 p., maps. (Kansas studies in education, vol. 2, no. 3, June 1934.)

This study concerns Kansas.

The author states: "Without considering what economies, due to better organization, might be made in cities of the first and second class, it appears that a saving of \$1,210,000 may be possible in smaller graded schools and as much as \$4,250,000 more may be saved by displacing 1-teacher units by larger school centers. These two items make a total possible saving per year in the elementary schools of Kansas of \$5,460,000." [Author shows no supporting data.]

- *OHIO. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. Study of local school units in Ohio. Columbus, The department, 1937. 271 p., charts, maps, tables.

This is one of the State reports issued by 1 of the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education in its Local School Units Project. (See also: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.)

Three of the eleven purposes listed for this study are: Develop a program of school organization in each county, making specific recommendations on both school districts and schools, in order to assist the county boards of education in carrying out the provision of the School Foundation Program Act (1935); set up reorganization standards and apply them in the development of the individual county reports; and show clearly both the educational and economical advantages of the recommended program of reorganization.

Part I of this report consists largely of materials showing the development of elementary schools, high schools, and school districts in Ohio since its admission to the Union in 1803. This information is centered in chapters showing significant trends, minimum standards, and an evaluation of the present status of schools and school districts, and significant trends in the financing of public education in Ohio. Ch. VII summarizes certain recommendations made in each county report.

Part II, beginning with page 149, is a study of the public schools of Ashland County with recommendations for their future organization. This county report was selected by Ohio as representative of the 88 county reports on file in the State department of education. Many of the county reports were made available for distribution.

- *OKLAHOMA. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. Study of local school units in Oklahoma. Oklahoma City, The department, 1938. 392 p., maps, charts, tables.

This is one of the State reports issued by 1 of the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education in its Local School Units Project. (See also: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.)

Chs. I-IV concern present status of attendance areas and administrative units, trends, and an evaluation of present status. Chs. V-VII concern minimum standards, proposed programs for five typical counties and proposed State organization; the proposed financial program and estimated costs; and the proposed legislative program.

Oklahoma has on file in the State department data of the same type for each of its school districts.

- *PENNSYLVANIA. STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION. Study of local school units in Pennsylvania. Harrisburg, The department, 1938. 150 p., maps, charts, tables.

This is one of the State reports issued by 1 of the 10 States cooperating with the Office of Education in its Local School Units Project. (See also: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Tennessee.)

The material in this report is a summarization of data concerning the present status of schools in Pennsylvania. Section V presents the proposals for reorganizing one county. Section VI concerns the proposed financial program. Section VII summarizes recent and proposed legislation affecting the merging of districts and the consolidation of schools.

Data are on file in the State department of public instruction for each county in Pennsylvania.

STRAYER, GEORGE DRAYTON, jr. Centralizing tendencies in the administration of public education: A study of legislation for the schools in North Carolina, Maryland, and New York since 1900. (Doctor's thesis, 1934. Teachers college, Columbia university, New York.) New York, Teachers college, Columbia university, 1934. 123 p. m. (Contributions to education, no. 618.)

Presents for these three States a detailed analysis of the changes in the relationship of the State to the local administrative area which have been determined by legislation since 1900.

TENNESSEE. STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION. A graphic analysis of Tennessee's public elementary and high schools. An analysis of significant phases of public elementary and high schools graphically presented including a ranking of county educational systems. Nashville, The department, 1937. 73 p., charts, tables.

This is a second volume resulting from the Tennessee study of local school units, sponsored by the Office of Education.

The county rankings beginning on page 57 are shown in tabular form as well as graphically. The study purports to rank the county educational system of each county, exclusive of city and independent district school systems, in the State on the basis of five major factors which are measured by 10 specific criteria. The five major factors, the 10 specific criteria, and the relationship of the major factors to the specific criteria are given.

— **STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION.** A study of local school units in Tennessee. Nashville, The department, 1937. 206 p., maps, charts, tables.

This is one of the State reports issued by 1 of the 10 States cooperating with the office of Education in its Local School Units Project. (See also: Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania.)

The fourfold purpose of the Tennessee study is: (1) To trace educational trends in the State relative to local school attendance areas and to local school administrative units; (2) to formulate desirable minimum standards for guidance in the organization or reorganization of local school units; (3) to evaluate the present status of attendance areas and local school administrative units; and (4) to project a proposed educational program on the basis of desirable minimum standards.

Gives data showing present status and proposed organization for Tennessee's 95 counties. More detailed proposed program and maps shown for Cheatham County.

The State department has on file completed studies of many of the counties and several of these were made available for distribution.

TEXAS. STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION. Texas State-wide school adequacy survey. Austin, the board, c1938. 1803 p., maps, tables.

This is the State report of the State WPA project in Texas. It is a State-wide survey of the schools throughout all counties (254) of the State, and, no doubt, the data constitute the greatest source of statistical information that has ever been gathered upon the subject of education in the history of Texas. The supporting data for the survey are on file for the ready reference of various public officials and interested citizens of the State.

The report includes findings from studies relating to public-school expenditures, to the status of the teaching personnel, to the availability of secondary school oppor-

tunities to boys and girls of Texas, and to the possibility of the organization of more satisfactory local school units.

The trend is definitely toward larger administrative units—county or district. Detailed studies made during the past 3 years of 30 counties indicate that the total number of administrative units in the State might possibly be reduced to some three or four hundred.

The report states that "in order to plan school programs for any county it is necessary to weigh carefully and analyze closely the existing conditions," and "basic factual data revealing existing situations must be considered from the point of view of the State as a whole if the findings are to be of real assistance to Texas in establishing and maintaining a satisfactory system of public education."

UNITED STATES. DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR. OFFICE OF EDUCATION. Reorganization of school units: A report of the proceedings of a conference called by the Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C., June 17-19, 1935. Cook, Katherine M., ed. Washington, U. S. Government printing office, 1936. 91 p. (Office of education, Bulletin, 1935, no. 15.)

Includes short bibliography.

The conference offered an opportunity to a group of school officials who have been or are now confronted with questions concerned with administrative reorganization to discuss their practical aspects and formulate accepted principles and guides to successful practices.

Four major topics with added consideration of allied questions formed the basis of the program: (1) Satisfactory local school units—principles involved and procedures desirable in securing such units; (2) the relationship between satisfactory local administrative units and school financing; (3) procedures and techniques involved in reorganization studies; and (4) legislation designed to achieve best results in reorganization of school administrative units.

UTAH. Report of the subcommittee on education to the Governor and State legislature: School finance study and a study of consolidation of Utah school districts. Salt Lake City, Investigating committee of Utah governmental units, 1936. 179 p. maps, tables, charts.

This report was prepared with the aid of Works Progress Administration Projects Nos. 272, and 275.

Sec. I. School finance study. J. R. Mahoney, pp. 11-118.

This study may seem almost wholly concerned with financial conditions of the school districts of Utah with reference to consolidation, yet it was intended at the same time to reveal the significant features of school finance for each district.

The study gives the advantages and disadvantages of consolidation in terms of finance, emphasizing that the significant features of the problem are evident only as conditions in each proposed consolidation are examined.

The author holds that in "considering a problem of this kind with enough seriousness to make it likely that something will be done about it, makes it highly important that we give consideration not only to our present situation but to conditions that may arise in the future" and adopt "a plan with flexible features such as will make it easy to adjust to changing circumstances."

Although some supporting data were omitted because of lack of funds for printing them, they are on file and may be made available in some form at a later date. The data omitted consisted of tables containing significant financial and other measurable features for each of the districts that would comprise new consolidated units.

It is proposed that the 40 districts be reduced to 11.

Sec. II. Consolidation of Utah school districts. Philo T. Farnsworth. pp. 119-179. Presents comparative data on school consolidation in United States and Utah compared with 11 western States; a history of consolidation in Utah to present time; a detailed analysis of present conditions in the 40 school districts; and various plans and comparisons resulting from the findings.