AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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Title "A PROPOSED COMMUNITY-SCHOOL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM APPLICABLE TO CERTAIN RURAL AREAS IN WESTERN OREGON"

Abstract Approved

The main emphasis of this thesis is on the problem of bringing about a closer relationship between the public schools and the areas they serve. The local community-schools, affected as they are by the forces active in the larger society, should be schools in which both adults and children learn through study and action.

The most important and fundamental problems of any school are the organization, administration and institution of adequate educational programs that will meet the needs of our continually changing society, therefore, the main purposes of the study are to; review briefly the history of the community and its people as a basis for determining an educational philosophy; (2) point out the influences necessitating educational changes; (3) determine and set forth the local problems inherent in the community which have a bearing on the educational program; and (4) propose the possible solution to the problems and formulate an educational program that will be applicable to the rural community.

Within the past decade, a new phase of the problem of local school organization has appeared which we recognize as the rural school problem. As a result of the social and industrial revolution that has swept our country, our rural communities have experienced great changes.

Some of the major problems characteristic of the small school systems are; (1) the problem of satisfactory local school units to accommodate the increased attendance and enriched program; (2) the development of adequate administrative units and establishment of the proper supervision for the schools of the rural areas in terms of modern needs; (3) the enrichment of the traditional curriculum at both the elementary and secondary levels; (4) the problem of attracting and retaining capable teachers; (5) the problem of setting up and administering effective guidance programs; (6) the provision for adequate school plants and equipment and (7) the establishment of a satisfactory financial system that will guarantee a minimum educational program for all youth with an equalized tax system in all districts.

In attempting to solve these problems, it is proposed that the area attempt the following program: (1) consolidate the seven elementary districts now in the Dayton union high school territory and the Lafayette school district into one unified community-school system. This plan would establish a six-year high school at Dayton and three-six-year elementary schools, one at Dayton, one at Lafayette, and one at Unionvale. This
reorganized unit would require a (1) superintendent, eleven high school teachers including a principal, and fifteen elementary teachers including the elementary principals; (2) establish an enriched program of studies for the elementary schools and the high school; (3) set up an effective guidance program for the unified system; (4) plan a community-school recreational program to meet the needs of all children and adults alike; (5) build a community-school plant equipped to meet the needs of modern education and; (6) establish an effective public relations program so that cooperative effort on the part of all leaders will recognize the educational needs and provide for them.
A PROPOSED COMMUNITY-SCHOOL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM APPLICABLE TO CERTAIN RURAL AREAS IN WESTERN OREGON

by

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B. D. C.
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Chapter I

Introduction

Statement of the Problem. In these times, the matter of relationships between school and community is in the minds of an increasing number of American educators. They are coming to believe that the public schools can and should take an active part in the process of social reconstruction which certainly will be needed in the next few years. The thing which appears to be most needed is the development of creative leadership; a leadership which not only deals with philosophy but proposes practical measures, procedures and programs.

The main emphasis of this thesis is on the problem of bringing about a closer relationship between the public schools and the areas they serve. As a necessary part of their regular educational programs, public educational institutions should explore and make use of all the resources of the areas in which they are located. Local agencies should also make greater use of all educational facilities in the process of carrying on community affairs.

It is believed that child education is inextricably bound up with adult education. The local community, affected as it is by forces active in the larger society, should be thought of as a school in which both adults and children learn through study and action.
It is the hope of the writer that this study may be of value to the Dayton Community and to other like communities in their efforts to improve the schools and to better fulfill their obligations to society.

In the past, one of the greatest limitations of efforts to improve public education has been the alarming divorce of theory from practice. Educational theorists have been telling people in the field how to organize their schools and carry on the educational process, but the teachers and administrators, struggling as they must with practical problems, have found it very difficult to apply many of the theories and are confronted with unique types of practical problems.

The small school has many problems, and it is time that leadership make a greater effort to help solve the problems found. Education, in the past, has emphasized the importance of the larger schools and worked with their problems, but has done comparatively little with the small school which has always served, and still serves the largest number of our youth.

The most important and fundamental problems of any school are the organization, administration and institution of adequate educational programs that will meet the needs of our continually changing society.

This thesis is therefore written on "A Proposed Community-School Educational Program Applicable to Certain Rural Areas in Western Oregon."

**Purposes of the Study.** The purposes of the study are to deal with the elements of need and to formulate a desirable school-community program that will be applicable and meet the needs of youthful citizens in the community.
This study has the following fundamental purposes:

1. To review briefly the history of the community, its people and institutions, as a basis for determining an educational philosophy.

2. To point out the influences necessitating educational changes.

3. To determine and set forth the local problems inherent in the community which have a bearing on an educational program.

4. To propose the best possible solution to the problems and to formulate an educational program that will be applicable to the local community.

By so doing, the writer will attempt to show how the school system (the most important social institution in the community) may serve youth and contribute to the enrichment of community life. The functions of the small rural school system are shown and emphases are placed upon the ways in which the school may effectively perform its functions through the reorganization of the school and school district, the administrative organization, the guidance program, the program of studies, the recreational program, the teaching staff, the building program and the essential equipment which will make possible the development of a functional, school-community, educational program.

**Methods of Procedure.** This study has been limited to the following fundamental methods of procedure:

1. A review of current literature of rural school systems.

2. A study and analysis of the problems of the local community.
3. The collection and interpretation of financial and educational data from the records, in terms of the local school system.

4. The presentation of a possible solution to the problems and the proposal of an educational program which the writer believes would be desirable for the community.

Sources of Data. The writer, having served as principal for two years in the local Union High School, has had first hand opportunity to work with the students, teachers and members of the community. Throughout these contacts he has been able to discover the needs, analyze the resources and note the barriers that hinder the development of a modern, servicable community educational program.

An analysis was made of the rural elementary, village elementary and high school, and facts and principles were established. Factual data were obtained from the schools in the area and the Yamhill county school superintendent's Office.
CHAPTER II

RURAL COMMUNITY PROBLEMS

The Changing Community. Within the past three decades a new phase of the problem of local school organization has come to the front, which we of today recognize as the rural school problem. As a result of the social and industrial revolution that has swept our country with such rapidity, our institutions of rural society and rural communities have experienced great changes. So rapid and extensive have been these changes that our rural institutions have been unable to keep pace with the changes which have come upon them. Rural home life and rural society have been profoundly modified. The progress of invention has greatly decreased the need of farm labor. The rural population has, in many section, actually decreased, while in others it has made no material headway.

The rural church, grange and stores have ceased to be centers of community life and are struggling for existence. Last, but not least, the conditions surrounding the rural school have changed so that it is no longer the same institution. The whole situation calls for reorganization and reconstruction adapted to meet twentieth century social, economic and educational needs. Altogether, we might call those collections of problems--the rural-life problem.

The rural-school problem is only part of the whole rural life
problem, but if a satisfactory educational program is to be worked out some understanding of the whole rural life problem which surrounds it must be made.

The changes in the nature of rural life that have taken place since the days when the district system flourished as an agency for improving rural society have been so profound and far-reaching that they have shaken the old rural social institutions to their very foundations. The old homogeneous nature of the rural neighborhood has been lost. The farmer, too, has greatly changed, as have his needs and the needs of his children. Science has opened up a new world to him and new and larger interests now occupy his mind. Farm specialization, scientific management, improved machinery and modern conveniences make possible more leisure time to read, think and travel. The rural free delivery with newspapers, magazines and radio have brought the world's affairs to his door. The modern means of transportation and communication have ended his isolation and enabled him to "listen in" on what is taking place throughout the nation and to take an active part in many activities outside his own local area.

With the development of new and larger interests in things beyond his rural community, the farmer has become a resident of the world rather than the school district; the affairs of the outside world have interested him more and more, and petty quarrels of the school district have held his interest less and less. Questions and elections which once seemed to him so important now often seem of small significance and he is unwilling to take the time to go to the polls to vote. The effects of these changes in the rural outlook is seen in the declining
in importance and attendance of the school district meetings, the increasing difficulty in securing good men to serve as district school officials, and the small percentage of voters who take the trouble to vote at the local school elections, unless there is some distinctly local fight in progress which awakens antagonism.

The result on the school of the many changes in rural affairs brought about by the changing social and economic conditions of our national life, is that the rural schools have lost their importance and find themselves in a sorry plight. It has largely ceased to minister to community needs; its teachers no longer play the prominent part in neighborhood affairs; its attendance has shrunk; its financial condition is serious; and it has been left far behind educationally by the progress of the city and larger village schools.

**Rural Population Trends.** The term "rural," as usually employed, includes the population living in centers of less than 2,500 and in the open country. The United States Census divides this population into the rural-farm and rural-nonfarm. The largest single group in the latter category is made up of those who live in "Agricultural" villages. Monroe says, "... In 1930 the rural population exceeded 55,000,000 persons and comprised 43.4 per cent of the total population of the United States."¹

Rural America has half the children of the nation because in normal times about one-half of these migrate to the cities, which are no longer producing enough children to sustain their population at the

present levels. The rural school will have a major influence on the quality of future urban population. For some time the larger proportion of the rural-urban migration has come from those areas which have the poorest schools and are most lacking in other social utilities. Migration from such areas is bound to affect the level of urban living. This fact gives cogency to the arguments for state and federal aid to rural education.

This ceaseless movement of population across the face of the continent, which shows itself in such major trends as rural to city, south to north, drought areas to the Pacific Coast, and the like, raises the question of the quality of the people who thus change their habitat. There is a current assumption that the "best" leave the country for the city and that only those of poorer caliber remain. This is unquestionably true in certain specific areas but is by no means universally applicable. This problem has been studied in a number of states and localities, and a summary of these investigations indicates, especially in regard to young people, that a disproportionate share of the best and poorest of farm youth apparently go to the city. Similarly, a summary of the existing studies seems to show that, with the exception of specific situations, the intelligence of rural children and presumably adults is little, if any, different from that of those in cities.

The relatively weak rural school thus faces the problem of preparing its students for life on the farm, in the village, in the city, and for college entrance.

Educational Opportunities. Some of the handicaps of rural America, and especially of its youth are effects of the uneven quality
and availability of education in rural areas. Generalizing on a national basis is impossible since conditions vary. In general it may be said that variations in the availability of education are largely caused by the operation of sociological and economic factors.

One of the early papers on a state's responsibility for equalizing educational opportunity was written in 1905 by Cubberley. He showed that wealth per child is greatest where total wealth is greatest. For that reason local taxation as the sole basis of school support creates insurmountable difficulties to educational progress. His analysis of the problem led him to advocate that excessive local burdens for education are borne largely for the common good and ought in equity to be relieved by state action. The real cost of education, he believed, is determined by the teachers employed, and he advocated a combination of the number of teachers actually employed and the number of pupils in aggregate attendance should be used as the basis for calculating the apportionment of state aid to schools.

The great educational disadvantages suffered by children in certain sections of every state and in certain sections of the United States as a whole were brought to the public attention by such studies as; the work of the Educational Finance Inquiry Commission; studies by Reeves in Illinois, Strayer and Haig in New York State and Sears and Cubberley on the cost of education in California.

Reeve's study of Illinois school districts showed gross ineq-


ities in valuation, fiscal ability and effort to support the educational program. Strayer and Haig\(^1\) pointed out that in New York State approximately half of the state aid was entirely unaffected by the richness of the local resources and that the portion which was so affected was allocated in such a manner as to favor very rich and very poor localities at the expense of those moderately well off.

Further studies have been made by Mort.\(^2\) The basic proposition is that state aid for education should be used for equalizing educational opportunity throughout the state and for assisting in the adaptation of educational programs to new needs. This thesis proposes that the state determine the minimum educational program below which no community in the state would be allowed to fall. The proved minimum program expressed in money terms is the cost of education in average communities, i.e., in communities that are neither especially favored by wealth nor unusually handicapped by poverty.

The tendency is clearly toward a much wider use of the state as a unit for the support of education, and toward improved methods of distributing state funds to local communities in terms of their educational services.

The Federal Government has only a negligible share in the financial support of education in the United States. The desirability of

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federal support has been more and more vigorously urged because the reasons given for dependence on the state as a unit for school support apply equally well to the dependence on the Federal Government for school support. It has been pointed out that some states, even on a state-wide basis, are unable to support from their own resources the minimum educational program that is desirable for the country as a whole.

Another reason for urging larger dependence on the Federal Government for support of education is the fact that wealth and income tend to accumulate in centers other than those in which they are produced. Therefore, the regions that produce the wealth and income may find themselves without the power to tax the economic resources they produce because those resources are transferred elsewhere, chiefly to larger cities and sometimes to distant states.

Only federal action can provide equalization funds for inter-state application. The necessities of the people require the federal government to assume increasing responsibilities for the education and welfare of children and adults.

No sound plan of local or state taxation can be devised and instituted that will support in every local community a school system which meets minimum acceptable standards.

School-Community Relationships. There has been a new type of rural community in the United States. Rural life centered, during the pre-automobile decade, in the hamlet. Today the average agricultural community is village or town centered. Seventy-five per cent of the farmer's business is done in his home town of from 500 population up to several thousand. One-third of the membership of the social organiza-
tions and nearly two-fifths of the membership of the churches in these centers came from the farm population.

Similarly nearly one-third of the elementary-school and one-half or more of the high-school enrollment live on farms. The last ratios vary only a little in nonconsolidated schools as compared with those that are consolidated. What is in effect consolidations by social processes has outrun consolidation by legal enactment.

Schools are part of a changing culture, and social change does not occur on a broad, even front. It pushes ahead here and lags behind there, creating areas of tension in which liberal influences are at work, but reactionary forces are still strong and the uninformed public is at a loss as to a course of action. Interest groups arise to defend old loyalties or make known new points of view, and with opposition such groups tend to become power units, pressing for the adoption of particular beliefs and programs.

Newell1 found in an investigation covering the past thirty-five years that: (a) change had occurred from general surveys to those dealing with specific problems and (b) until lately little use had been made of findings in shaping school programs.

With the trend now toward more organic school and community relations, one may expect a greater utilization of community data in enriching the curriculum, developing guidance programs, improving the schools public relations, and planning for child and adult living.

The Local Community. The area which the writer is using as an example for the proposed community-school program is located in the southeast part of Yamhill county and embraces approximately fifty square miles along the western banks of the Willamette River. The area is a typical section of the Willamette Valley. The Valley floor, for the most part, is an almost level plain, rising in places gently into rolling hills in the north and southwest sections.

The population centers in and around the proposed community center are: Dayton, a village of 625 (1945 census) located in the north central part; Lafayette, a smaller village of approximately two or three hundred inhabitants, in the northern section; McMinnville, the county seat, six miles to the east of Dayton; Newberg, eight miles northeast of Dayton and; Unionvale, eight miles south of Dayton, a very small community center in the southern part of the proposed area.

There are two paved highways across the area, one east and west through the north section and one north and south through the central part of the area. Many good gravel roads are found throughout the whole area making it relatively easy to provide transportation to the proposed community centered schools.

There are only two streams of any size in the area; the Willamette River running north, forming the eastern boundary and the Yamhill River extending through the north section of the area.

The area which is made up of bottom land and rolling hills, was in earlier years a mass of Douglas and Lowland fir growing thick and tall in the rich soil with many shrubs and fern as undergrowth. It is evident that most of the land in this locality is easy to cultivate as
much of the timber and shrubs have been removed and most of the area is now under cultivation. Most of the farms are comparatively small producing a variety of crops and products. Such seed crops as wheat, oats, hairy vetch, barley, winter rape, rye grass, chewing fescue, meadow grass and clover are raised throughout the area. Among the important vegetable crops raised are sweet corn, peas, tomatoes and string beans which are sent to local canneries or placed on markets in the State. Flax is also raised locally and marketed at the Dayton flax plant located a short distance south of Dayton.

In addition to the high production of vegetable crops, this area produces extensively, various types of fruits. Tree crops such as peaches, apples, prunes, pears and cherries are shipped to all parts of the country. Many acres of various varieties of berries are raised. The growth of these crops can be accounted for by the great amount of both ditch and sprinkler irrigation together with a favorable soil.

Nut production is becoming very profitable. Walnuts and filberts are among the main nut crops.

Another important agricultural pursuit in the area lies in dairying. The mild Willamette Valley climate permits almost year around pasturing.

Poultry raising is an important industry. Turkeys and chickens are produced in large quantities.

Most of the farms in this area are owned by their tenants and do not provide many employment opportunities except during the seasonal crop harvest. The harvest season of course necessitates the hiring of many extra laborers.
One exception to the general, intensive type of farming is found in the Alderman farm organization with headquarters six miles south of Dayton. This organization operates on a very large scale. Several thousand acres are farmed and over 100 men are steadily employed. Several hundred extra laborers are employed during the seasonal crop harvest.

Besides farming and the regular accompanying operations, the Dayton area is supported by a box factory and a flax plant. They both operate on the year around basis providing considerable employment and a market for local resources.

The people of this community are typically rural in character. They possess a somewhat common laissez-faire philosophy of living. They are conservative and slow to accept the new. They are, however, friendly, sincere and hard-working people. Many of the people own their own farms and have lived in the community many years. Many were born and raised on their own farms.

There is no foreign element in the community, although many of the families are of foreign descent. There are a few families of German and Scandinavian extraction. English is the only common language spoken in the community. The few families that have moved into the community in recent years have come chiefly from the middle west.

These rural people take pride in their own small communities of which there are several. Many of them wish to retain their small one-room schools as centers for their social meetings. They are somewhat slow to accept a larger community center with the many advantages it has for them and their children.
This independent, conservative character of these people is handed down from generation to generation and the nature of their living and thinking causes them to be less conscious and have less concern for society outside their own small communities.

There are two major population centers in the proposed community area, namely Dayton, with a present population of 625 and Lafayette with three hundred inhabitants. The population of Dayton has increased from 506 in 1940 to 625 in 1945, a 25.4 per cent increase in five years. The area in general has had a slow but steady increase over the last ten years.

Employment opportunities have been relatively few due to the fact that the area is predominately agricultural and there are but a small number of business enterprises in the community. This situation does not offer many varied occupations for youth to prepare for, therefore, it is the responsibility of the small communities to establish themselves in a somewhat larger community, centralize their activities, and build a community-school program which will best meet their social and educational needs.
CHAPTER III

PROBLEMS CHARACTERISTIC OF THE SMALL SCHOOLS

Any fundamental attack upon the problems of providing an adequate educational program in the small school must be based on a clear understanding of the basic problems characteristic of the small schools.

The small school system is assumed here to be a school organization which is in a community of not more than 2,500 in population and is devoted to the education of the children in the community from the kindergarten through high school. Although some of the problems encountered in such school systems are similar to those in larger systems, there are a number which tend to be unique in certain respects.

Limitations and Problems. Many weaknesses and limitations of the small school have been listed in educational literature. These statements deal with problems of financing, providing an effective teaching staff, building an adequate curriculum, securing proper administration and supervision, developing a satisfactory physical plant, and carrying on a desirable extra-curricular program.

One of the best summaries of these limitations, has been made by Rufi in his "Study of Certain Small High Schools." Parts of his

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summarizes are quoted:

With reference to teachers, . . . that in practically every important qualification they are far below the standards reached by the staffs of the larger urban school. . . .

In connection with administration and supervision. . . . are of such character as to contribute very little to the ease and efficiency of instruction in them.

With reference to finance. . . . that, in a great number of cases, really adequate financial support of these schools is impossible under our present form of organization.

It is charged that the physical plants, in the majority of cases. . . . most of them are mere educational make-shifts.

That the curricula of these schools are extremely limited . . . and have almost utterly failed to meet the needs of their own communities.

It is generally assumed that the instruction is inferior in quality. . . . and that these deficiencies, taken together, lower the quality of the work to such an extent as to make poor teaching almost inevitable.

As a direct corollary, it is contended that the results of instruction are considerably below those attained in the larger urban schools, that the amount of retardation is greater, the mortality noticeably higher, the standards for passing much lower; that because of poor teaching, with its resultant lack of interest on the part of pupils, the holding power is low; and finally, that even those graduates who continue their education in higher institutions experience serious difficulty in carrying advanced work because the preliminary work has been poorly done.

With reference to extra-curricular activities it is claimed that. . . . on the whole, students activities contribute very little to the larger aims of education.

We cannot say that the limitations listed above are characteristic of all small high schools. Many small high schools have shown that despite their size, or because of it, they can provide an effective
educational program in terms of the needs of the adolescent youth they serve. However, it is commonly recognized that many or all of the limitations do apply to thousands of small school systems in all parts of the United States.

An analysis of the limitations of the small schools, in terms of the present situation, reveals some of the basic conditions or problems which have created them. Some of the problems are the result of the size of the school unit, the number of the pupils it enrolls, the philosophy of education which has been accepted, the way in which education has developed in that section of the country and from many other causes.

The problems of the small school system must be understood before they can be effectively removed; therefore, an attempt will be made to summarize briefly a few of the basic problems which seem to be most fundamental to the small rural school systems.

Problem of Administrative Units. During recent years many communities have found themselves faced with troublesome facts and conditions relating to the organization of local school units. To the extent that schools, attendance areas, and local administrative units are too small or are inadequate in other respects, all phases of a school program of a state are likely to be handicapped, and a well-rounded educational program will be practically impossible of attainment either in localities or in the State as a whole.

Under existing organizations of local units many improvements in the instructional programs can be effected only with maximum effort and at excessive costs. Educators and laymen are increasingly insisting
that money devoted to school purposes be expended efficiently, that is, a maximum of educational returns be attained for the amounts expended.

States are finding it increasingly necessary to state educational objectives in terms of a complete program of education, including the organization of adequate local school units. This realization calls for definite plans for continuing effective studies of the problems involved in the administration of the educational program.

Today, with the newer conceptions of the educational program, the demand for better instruction for rural children and the new social, industrial and educational problems facing the rural schools, the need for intelligent leadership and direction is far beyond what the most intelligent communities can supply. Inexpert local authority does not have the educational insight or the grasp of the newer educational problems necessary to contribute much toward their solution, and a larger unity of organization than the district is necessary today for successfully working out the problem.

As a school organization, the small district system has accomplished its purpose and should now be superseded by a system organized to serve better the needs of the rural communities. As a system of school organization and administration, it is short sighted and unprogressive. Cooperation with other districts in the advancement of the common welfare is too difficult to secure; it leads to decided and unnecessary inequalities in educational opportunity and to an unwise duplication of educational effort; it is unnecessarily
costly for the service it renders; and it fails entirely to supply special educational advantages and secondary school facilities. The district unit is too small and unequal in resources for taxing purposes for supervision, and the substitution of a larger unit for rural-school administration and support is necessary, if any substantial progress in rural education is to be made.

The real fundamental need today, with the coming of good roads and better means of transportation and larger business organizations, is a workable scheme for the rapid consolidation of districts to form a series of unified community school systems of the best possible type that will function and meet the needs of the community. It is necessary to define the place of a larger local administrative unit in the total administrative structure of the state and then decide on a unit which is efficient for the development of a sound administrative unit.

Problems Originating from Present Organization. Consolidations are necessary because of the increasing demands upon the schools to offer a much broader curriculum and more efficient instruction. For example, studies of time allotments in elementary schools required for the most effective teaching show that in a one-teacher, six-grade school there should be about 4,500 minutes per week for instruction; in a two-teacher school about 5,200 minutes; and in a three-teacher school about 6,000 minutes. The maximum time that can be available with the best possible combination of subjects in a one-teacher school is 1,800 minutes per week, and in a two-teacher school 3,000 minutes
per week, and in a three-teacher school 4,800 minutes per week.¹

The necessary time allotment, if combinations of grades and subjects are to be avoided, cannot be obtained in a school of less than one teacher per grade. It has been shown that in the small high school it is difficult to secure teachers qualified to offer instruction in a sufficient number of fields so that a varied program of studies can be offered. If a broad program of studies is offered, the cost per pupil becomes prohibitive.

The differences in the ability of local districts to support schools have also made consolidations necessary in order to equalize local tax burdens. For example, in 1928 in Arkansas, a state with many local school districts, 1,207 small districts had an average assessed valuation of taxable property per pupil of $356, while seven larger districts having almost the same number of pupils as all the small districts had $3,086 per pupil.²

The comparatively high cost per pupil of small schools often makes consolidation desirable. It has been reported that for the nation as a whole the excess cost of small elementary schools over the


cost of accommodating the pupils in larger schools of the consolidated type is from $50,000,000 to $60,000,000 annually. Typical of the relationship between size of school and per pupil costs are data reported for California which show that the cost per pupil in average daily attendance in elementary schools having ten pupils or fewer was $205; in schools having eleven to twenty pupils, $74. Similar relationships between cost and size are reported from high schools. In general, the cost per pupil increases sharply as school enrollment falls under 200.\(^1\)

The Problem of Population. The one fundamental factor which has brought about small schools and the social situation in which they operate is the low density of population in rural areas. The low density of population is responsible for the difference between country and city. It means living in smaller groups, having fewer and different types of human contacts, fewer organizations of all kinds—business, political and social.

If the small school is to perform its functions in training adolescent youth, it must fit those who expect to live in rural areas for the kind of a society in which they will find themselves.

In general, over the last forty years previous to the World War I, the public high schools increased their enrollments more than

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thirty-fold. In the 25,000 public high schools of the nation nearly 7,000,000 pupils were enrolled.¹

Comparisons for earlier years indicate that in 1890, the number of secondary schools, public and private, was 7 per cent of the census count of persons between the ages of 14 and 17 in the United States. In 1900, the per cent had risen to 11; in 1910 it was 17; in 1920 it was 38; in 1930 it was 51 and in 1934 it was 67 per cent.²

There has been a decrease in the total enrollment observed since 1934. The percentage of decrease from 1934 to 1942 ranges from 0.1 in Florida to 8 in Wisconsin, a median of 3. Only three states, Nevada, Oregon and Washington of the thirty-five states reporting, show increases during this period; three-tenths per cent in Oregon to 16 per cent in Nevada.³

The elementary enrollment has been falling steadily since 1930, but shows for the first time, a decrease in the high school pupils. This probably is due to (1) the birthrate, which began to decline in 1925 which is now affecting the high school enrollment; (2) high school pupils leaving for the war and war jobs. The high school enrollment decreased in 25 of the 35 states reporting and in the


²Ibid., p. 6.

³Ibid., pp. 6-9.
District of Columbia from 0.5 per cent in South Carolina to 9 per cent in Utah. A median of 4 per cent.¹

Warren S. Thompson and P. K. Welpton of the Scripps Foundation for Research in Population Problems made three sets of population estimates covering the period 1930 to 1980. They are based on the assumption of medium fertility, medium mortality and on immigration. It is noted that the age group of 5 to 19, which includes most of the school population below the college level, is expected to decline from 28.4 per cent of the total in 1935 to 19.6 per cent in 1980. In actual numbers this estimated decline is from 36,370,000 in 1935 to 30,046,000 in 1980 or more than six and one-quarter millions.²

There are many educational implications resulting from the population changes. Educational planning for the future should take into consideration the population trends.

Decreasing numbers of children to be educated should be used as an opportunity to improve the educational program; the location and design of new buildings planned after more careful studies; more guidance services used to adjust educational programs; rural education must offer opportunities suitable both for youth who will stay on the farm and for those who will migrate to the cities; the education of teachers and the administration of teacher personnel should be planned


in the light of current trends; the increasing proportion of adults in the total population combines with other important social changes to suggest the advisability of increased provision for adult education. Since many adult citizens are childless, the interpretation of the schools to the public should be emphasized.

Problems of Administration and Supervision. Developing an adequate administrative unit and establishing the proper supervision for the public schools of rural areas in terms of modern needs is one of the chief problems of the small school. Many of the other limitations attributed to the small school may be traced directly to this problem. It is evident that many of the weaknesses of the educational program could be overcome without additional resources if adequate administration and supervision were available. This problem is not directly related to the size of the school. It cannot be solved through the enlargement of the attendance unit areas alone. It must be provided for rural areas by some larger administrative unit which includes a group of schools or attendance units.

Many of the weaknesses attributable to inadequate administration and supervision are due to an attempt to place a complete group of administrative and supervisory officers in each school. Effective administration and supervision have been provided through the co-operation of several schools working together. It is necessary to set up one staff to serve all the schools in certain matters and then provide within each school the staff necessary to do only those things which should be done within the building itself. Therefore, the problem of
finance, administration and supervision are problems larger than the attendance area and should be attacked in a different manner from those due to the size of the school itself.

The Curriculum. Curriculum development in the small school has been concerned primarily with the high school level rather than with the elementary school, because of the need for diversification which makes the problem more acute on the secondary level.

Although some important changes have been made in the curriculum offerings of small high schools during recent years, little or no progress has been made by many of them. Surveys of the program of courses and curriculums of small high schools of the United States indicate the traditional academic type of program predominating with slight modifications during late years. Few subjects that have possibilities in the direction of a closer relation to modern life and modern problems have been introduced. However, the limitations of the teaching staff, the median teaching load and facilities to work with indicate that schools with an enrollment of fewer than 150 pupils cannot extend their offerings much beyond what they are now doing so long as dependence is placed solely on regular class-room methods of instruction.

The traditional type of curriculum has existed in the small school largely because those in charge have been willing to accept it. The faculty has assumed too much of a complacent attitude and accepted the situation as it existed when its different members came into the school. Often they have been drawn from the graduates of liberal arts colleges where they have been educated and indoctrinated in the liberal
arts conception of education. They have been supported by traditionally minded and influential citizens of the community. In many schools where changes have been made the programs have been patterned too much after those of larger schools. When this has been done, there has been a tendency to take over courses, without making the necessary adaptations. These conditions have hindered the progress of the small school and prevented a sound evaluation of its curriculum in terms of the function it is to serve in the lives of the pupils and of the community.

The Staff. No other factor in the functioning of a school is as important as the teacher. The lack of suitable facilities can be offset, to a large extent, by the planning and professional skill of a good teacher. Unfortunately the small school is handicapped in attracting and retaining capable teachers.

A number of studies have revealed the following handicaps of small school systems:

1. That in smaller communities, the teachers have considerably less experience than teachers in larger schools.

2. The smaller the school, the shorter is the tenure of its teachers. There is a positive relationship between tenure and number of pupils in school.

3. Inadequacy of salaries in small communities.

4. No provision for in-service growth of teachers, which causes great teacher turnover.

5. The work load carried by the teachers makes conditions of teaching relatively unsatisfactory, not because there are
too many pupils but because the combinations of subjects which must be taught are unreasonable. This runs as high as six and one-half subject preparations per teacher per day and the load drops as the school becomes larger. It is impossible for one person to be so thoroughly trained that he is a subject-matter specialist in four or five different fields.

6. The relationship between pupil-teacher ratio and size of the school shows that the pupil-teacher ratio in small schools is much lower than in larger schools. This low pupil-teacher ratio means high per pupil costs, even when low salaries are paid, and that any attempt to enrich the curriculum by adding more teachers is impossible because of the exorbitant per pupil costs which would result.

7. Lack of care in selecting individuals who are competent and who are sympathetic with and interested in the small community.

8. Lack of training for, and understanding of the problems and situations inherent in the small schools.

Relation Between Size of School and Quality and Efficiency. In comparing large and small schools in relation to efficiency, it was discovered through a number of studies that there is much evidence that size of the student body is a determining factor in the efficiency of the school. Dawson\(^1\) recommended that elementary schools have a

minimum of 6 teachers and 240 pupils and that six-year high schools have a minimum of 7 teachers and 210 pupils.

Seyfert\(^1\) made what is perhaps the most exhaustive comparison of large and small schools. His study was confined to what he termed reorganized high schools; those which included six grades. He found certain practices, for example, ability grouping, to be directly affected by size of school and other practices such as number of different curriculums offered, to be indirectly affected by size of student body. He concluded that since the small school is restricted as to the number of things that it may satisfactorily undertake at one time, it is necessary that the administrator be skilled in discrimination.

**Instruction.** As late as the middle twenties the textbook-recitation procedure was the typical method of instruction in the small high schools. Rufi\(^2\), in his study of small high schools, concluded that 95 per cent of all material presented and studies in all courses was textbook materials. This strictly formalized, abstract methodology seems to exist in most small schools.

Indicative of the relationship of size of enrollment to progressive practice is the fact that, as the enrollment decreases, so does the amount of experimentation with new techniques of teaching and also devices, equipment and facilities to supplement teaching.

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Guidance Practices. Today a much greater task is placed upon the school. The narrow college preparatory curriculum does not suffice to meet the needs of high school youth. At the same time, the great social and economic changes in the communities where the pupils live have brought about maladjustments that are not attacked in the regular curriculum, but must be met through individual counseling. Some old occupations are dying, and new occupations are developing. The old customs and habits of conduct are breaking down, and new effective social controls have not yet been developed. All the adjustments that these imply increase the task of providing guidance.

There is too commonly the belief that since the small schools serve the rural areas, a program of vocational agriculture and home economics solves the guidance problems in these schools. Such provision makes no pretense of an approach to the guidance function as a whole. Galpin¹ pointed out that guidance programs in small schools have been largely ineffective in that they have not taken care of the seven or eight million persons who left their farm homes to live and labor in cities during 1910 to 1930.

Hays² found a definite need for guidance and training that is broad in scope. He concluded that guidance and curriculum planning for the smaller secondary schools should be directed principally toward a program that will assist pupils in meeting vital situations common


to the whole United States.

Other reports indicate that there is a definite need for a better articulated program throughout the small school systems and a need for vocational training in the small high schools, more use of the community, and a more effective general guidance program in most small school systems.

**School Plant and Equipment.** Every school plant is an expression of some philosophy of education as well as of certain ideals of structure and form. If the philosophy represented in the building becomes outmoded, the building becomes a handicap to the education of the pupils.

There are still many school houses, particularly in the rural areas, that do not provide housing adequate for comprehensive programs. Many of the plants are unsanitary, poorly ventilated, ill lighted with almost no provision for health education. Libraries and laboratories are poorly equipped.

Many of the buildings limitations are due to an imitation of the methods of large schools in the building programs of the smaller schools. Too often in the past the plans for the building have been left to the architect and school board who did not call an educational consultant and see to it that the building would properly house the particular size school and the educational program planned for the community.

Those who are given the responsibility for planning and supervising the construction of a school plant must consider both present
and future needs. They must not give permanence to their own particular ideas where they are not certain of the needs of the future; then they must strive to build a flexible structure which may be adapted to a variety of changed needs.

The scientific determination of standards has accounted for much of the progress which has been made in the modern school building. The score card technique by Strayer and Engelhardt\(^1\) makes the application of the standards practical.

In a study made by Holy and Davis\(^2\) it was found that the average age of school buildings recommended for replacement was approximately fifty years, which seems to be in accord with current practices. In considering when a school building should be replaced, two major factors are involved; (a) the physical condition of the structure and (b) the extent to which it meets the requirements of the educational program. Of the two factors the second is the more important. The building should be replaced when it fails to provide the necessary facilities for the changing program; but in too many cases the whole educational program is handicapped and hindered in serving the needs of modern society.

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Problems of Finance. Many of the weaknesses of the small schools are a result of inadequate budgets. Most rural areas are primarily dependent upon agriculture for their income. When the farm population constitutes nearly one-fourth of the total population of the United States and receives only about one-tenth of the total income, there is relatively little money available for education. This situation causes the program to be narrow, and ineffective because funds available are inadequate to pay reasonable teachers' salaries and to provide desirable buildings and equipment.

States which depend largely upon the local attendance unit for school support have tremendous inequalities between the different districts to support an educational program. These inequalities are caused by great differences in assessed evaluations and differences in the number of children in the district to support.

However, this is not necessarily a result of the size of the school. It is due to an inadequate system of school support which depends primarily on the small local district for educational funds. It must be remedied by a reorganization of the system of support which will place a greater responsibility on the state for the support of schools.

This whole problem of providing an adequate financial system for education is not alone characteristic of the small schools; it is a problem of vital concern to the whole state educational program and to the welfare of the entire state.
In 1931 the Office of Education was authorized to make a study of the sources and apportionment of school revenues and their expenditures. The National Survey of School Finance published a report in 1933, which proved to be of great significance. The principal findings as stated by Monroe were summarized as follows:

1. In most states the economic ability of the local school district determines the program of child welfare in the district, and in thousands of localities this ability is too low to provide proper care and education for children.

2. In most states, even at the peak of prosperity, there existed areas in which educational opportunities were of the most meager type.

3. Drastic social change not only has thrown greater responsibility upon public education in the rearing of healthy and law-abiding children but has seen the local community less and less able to bear the cost of this responsibility. Wealth has been concentrated in the great urban centers and in the hands of a relatively small number of persons.

4. A fundamental change required today is the transfer of the burden of support of education from local communities to the entire state.

5. The property tax is overburdened. More use must be made of other forms of taxation.

6. It is possible to have education financed by the state without removing control of teaching and curriculum from the community.

7. Increased local efficiency in education will come through the further grouping of small, inadequate school districts.

8. No state today satisfactorily equalizes the educational tax burden.

9. New York, Delaware, Maryland, North Carolina, Missouri, and California approach the ideal more closely than the other states.

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CHAPTER IV

A PROPOSED PLAN FOR THE SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEMS
AND A BETTER COMMUNITY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Basic Principles Underlying the Community-School Program

The Importance of Educational Planning. On every hand people are planning for the future. Labor, industry, business and government are all looking ahead. It is well that this is so, but our plans for the future will fail unless there are people capable of carrying them out.

The education of youth should have first consideration in the planning of and the building of a strong country. The war has reminded us of the many virtues and ideals that we had forgotten. One of them is the duty that we owe to our youth in the provision of their education; not education in the form of books and diplomas only, but education in terms of preparation for living.

The welfare of people is the supreme objective of our free way of life. If we succeed in developing our human resources, we can solve all of America's problems. There is no synthetic substitute for human resources. There is no short cut to the development of men
and women fit for the free world of tomorrow.

Our educational pattern is under sharp scrutiny today, both by educators and laymen, and it is time that all work cooperatively with educational leaders in forging an educational system that will meet the needs of all Americans.

Some feel that our schools are good enough for our children and that we are even spending too much already for public education. Others believe that we should do more and that all our schools should be as good as our best schools. The citizens who support the latter view cite obstacles and hazards on the way for better schools, such as our average teacher-salary of only $1,441.00; the pressure of political groups for school economy; the high crime and juvenile delinquency rates; and the indifference of the public toward improving education. They point out the inequalities in educational opportunities and the number of youth who leave the high school because of the school’s failure to meet the needs of the youth. They also point out that 75 per cent of our adults have never completed high school and that now 44 per cent of the youth who enter high school never complete it.

Yet, nearly all agree that education is more important for the future of our Nation now than ever before. We are called upon to help decide public policies and take a position on current social issues.
As society becomes more complicated, it becomes increasingly true that without high school education youth are likely to be deficient in any true understanding of what we call the "American Way of Life." The logical test of a people's capacity for self-government is its level of education.

Our high schools have grown so rapidly during the past twenty-five years that a careful study of their program offerings has been difficult.

We have been so busy housing people, supplying teachers and textbooks and enlarging school programs that we have neglected to give adequate attention to the purposes of education and to evaluate the outcomes of the present opportunities in education.

Education needs, therefore, to be re-examined in the light of the characteristics and estimated needs of youth and the nature of the society to be served.

Building a Philosophy of Education. The philosophy of education concerns itself with the aims and outcomes that the educative process should strive to realize. The educational philosopher evaluates existing and proposed aims by analyzing them with reference to more remote purposes and assumptions that constitute his basic philosophy. He also derives the aims that he would set up for the schools from his basic philosophy. In both of these activities his method is that of critical thinking.
The first step in the development of an educational program is the determination of the aims and objectives. In education, as in any other activity, differing goals and values are likely to come into competition. Should the schools stress culture or vocations? What types of knowledge should be given preference? Education is constantly facing problems such as these, and they cannot be solved until some principle of selection has been adopted. This principle of choice is found in our philosophy of education.

If we could imagine an individual embarked upon a journey but forgetting his destination, we could appreciate his confused state. Something quite analogous to this occurs when the ultimate purpose of an activity becomes obscured. When this happens, we say that the activity has become formalized. Formalization is one of the ever-present dangers which faces education. For example, if we assume that the end of education is a quality of life, and if at any time we permit some other aim such as high marks or subject-matter mastery, to obscure the original objective, we may find ourselves achieving the immediate aim while failing to realize the larger purpose with which the activity was initiated.

Every educative program is derived from certain goals and purposes which determine in a vital degree the character of the program. If these goals have been accepted without careful reflection, it is almost a certainty that the resulting program will fail to achieve the larger objectives. A conscious philosophy of education is therefore a most significant part of every educator's equipment and
fundamental to every school educational program.

Recognition of the Aims of Education. Every age has more or less definitely stated the purposes that it had hoped to accomplish through its school system. It can be shown that in all of these the educational aims, as stated, attempt to implement the underlying philosophy of the social order.

There have been many statements of educational aims by the leaders of American thought. Modern statements of aims, however, can be traced directly to Spencer's essay, "What Education is of the Most Worth". The Commission on Reorganization of Secondary Education extended Spencer's classification of life activities to seven, and this list is usually called the objectives of education and has become the widely known statement of educational aims. These aims, however, were difficult to apply to educational activities due to the fact that they were equally applicable to any and all forms of social organization.

The Educational Policies Commission has attempted to state the aims of education as based upon the ideals of democracy. Attention is directed to the fact that the statement of aims by the Educational Policies Commission differs entirely from any other statement. In developing these statements, the commission has attempted to describe the type of situation demanded by the social order. This technique is based upon the assumption that more progress can be made if efforts are directed toward the development of the individual rather than toward the information he should have.
Conflicts in Educational Philosophies. Unfortunately there is no one American philosophy of education; instead there are a number of different educational philosophies. No one can understand the general problems arising from these conflicting viewpoints without having a grasp of the basic assumptions and methods of approach used by the different educational theorists.

Educational philosophy has been for the past twenty-five or thirty years a somewhat neglected field due to the fact that it was regarded as unscientific, and therefore, in the opinion of many, should not be used in the solution of educational problems. One should keep in mind that while philosophy may not determine the methods by which educational problems should be solved, it will determine the type of solutions that are reached. There is no conflict between science and philosophy in the solution of educational problems but that the proper statement should be science and philosophy.

Progressives versus Essentialists. In the preceding paragraphs it was pointed out that there were a number of viewpoints of education prevalent in American schools. There is reason to believe that the most important philosophical conflict at the present time is one between the "Progressives" and the "Essentialists".

"Progressive Education" is the term applied to the views of the group which have styled themselves "Progressive Educators". In general this group has a theory and has based its educational procedure upon pragmatism as defined by Dewey. The type of education that is developed under this philosophy is aptly described by the term "The Child-
Centered School. Fundamentally the doctrines of this school call for abandonment of compulsion both with respect to behavior and material to be studied. It should be noted that any characterization of this school does an injustice to many of the group, since the so-called "Progressive Educators" differ as much among themselves as do the viewpoints of several of the philosophical schools. There is reason to believe that the doctrines of progressive educators are at present losing ground.

The essentialists are much less numerous than the progressives, but have attracted, from the time they organized their group, much attention. This group holds that the democratic type of civilization contains certain relatively constant values which should be the basis for the educational program. The reaction against progressive education, resulting in a large part from the present disrupted world situation, has brought a large following to the essentialists.

It should be noted that the differences between these two schools are basically one of values. The progressives hold that the only values that can be found are those arising from the satisfaction of individual desires. The essentialists on the other hand, hold that there are a number of beliefs and ideals that change only after a long period of time, and that values should be based upon these ideals.

Problems of Building a Philosophy. How can a school determine its goals? How can it decide what general aims or objectives it should strive toward? How can it agree upon the functions it should perform?
The first requirement is to realize that aims or objectives, no matter how excellent, will be of little value unless they actually affect the life of the school. The school must, therefore, develop a philosophy which can and will help it to provide a better educational program.

The second essential is to distinguish between the general aims of philosophy of all education and the particular aims and objectives of individual subjects or activities. The general aims and functions of the school indicate the general ends toward which the school should work when they are adopted. The next step is to formulate more definitely the specific functions of the school in realizing them.

No program of setting up educational objectives can be very effective unless it is based on the concrete needs of pupils and community. This requires (1) an objective study of each pupil, his interests, abilities, capacities, and background, and (2) a survey of the community to discover the situation in which the pupil lives, the forces and conditions which are shaping his life.

The philosophy of a school cannot be static; it must be living and dynamic. It must grow and develop in terms of the new pupils constantly entering, and in terms of the changing community. This growth and development cannot be sound and consistent unless the accepted aims are well understood and defined. At the same time the aims for each phase of the educational program must be in harmony with the general objectives adopted. The different types of aims or functions which should be set up are:
1. Aims and functions of the entire school.

2. The special functions of elementary, junior and senior high schools.

3. The aims of different subject fields, such as English, mathematics, science, social studies, agriculture, home economics, music, health education, and art.
   (a) The objectives of each individual subject offered in these fields.
   (b) The specific objectives of units of work in these subjects.

4. The objectives of extra-curriculum activities, as a group, and the objectives of each club or activity.

The Place of the School in Community Life. Attention during the past decade has been focused more and more upon the community as one of the basic units in our American life. Accompanying this emphasis, there has developed a demand by the community and school leaders alike that the school become the coordinating agency in community life. At the same time it is recognized that the needs of the community should, in a significant manner, give direction to the work of the school.

First, what do we mean by community? In his study on "The Small Town and Its School", Robbins\(^1\) pointed out the relationship of the school to the community:

Community and school are in a process of continued interaction. What the community is today has great influence in determining the school; while the school does much to make the community of the future. Both the community and the school are being influenced continually by the larger world. Here lies the importance of two facts: (1) the school is an agent of the state; and (2) the community is a part of a larger society in which travel, commerce, and various other forms of communication are continually spreading new ideas.

Second, the status of institutionalized education is determined by the status of the culture. Education should not be confused with schooling. The education of a child is an inclusive continuous process which goes on all the time anywhere and everywhere the child may be. Children learn through interaction with their environment. The environment for a particular child consists of the on-going culture of the people in whose midst he grows up. The school, as we know it, does not appear in the education of children in some present day societies and, if organized schooling does prevail, the school is only one of the sources of children's education and the very nature of the school is dependent on the status of the culture.

In simple societies the informal and incidental methods of education seem adequate. As a society becomes more complex and advanced in its culture, with its accompanying division of labor, the informal methods become inadequate. Hence the schools that have education as a specialized function become an integral and inseparable part of the culture that contains it. The school will be whatever the supporting culture conceives to be the role of institutionalized education.
Third, being only one of several channels for children's education, the school has specialized or unique functions to perform. In our own culture of today the school may be considered to have the following unique functions: (1) to assist in inducting children into successful participation in the culture; (2) to promote the development of new social patterns, new ways of behaving in new situations; (3) to develop a creative role in individuals; (4) to coordinate all of the educational agencies of the community, state, and nation; and (5) to supplement these agencies by accepting responsibility for those phases of child growth and development which are not adequately cared for by other agencies.

Fourth, since the school is created by society and since the status of the school is determined by society's concept of the functions of the school, it seems self-evident that the role of the school is continuously changing. The problem is not whether the school should change as community life changes but what are wise directions in which the school should change.

Fifth, the school must identify itself closely with the culture and problems of the community and neighborhood so that the school may be effective in assisting people toward higher levels of culture. If society is to change for the better, there must be creative minds. The school should foster the creative role of individuals. The school should be an effective participant with other educative influences and agencies in helping children to become the kinds of persons that society desires.
Since cultural survival and advancement are dependent upon the education of the immature members of the group, the school is the determiner of the culture. But society controls the school; the schools cannot rise above the conception of their function by the social group. Consequently, in order that society may permit the schools to discharge the functions which society itself has assigned to the schools, a unique type of educational leadership is required.

It is only by making itself a center for the community life that the school can hope to exert the influence which it should. The development of a new and better rural and small-town life is largely a question of education and guidance, and of the rural institutions which are capable of providing this leadership the school easily stands first, if it can but rise to meet the opportunities which now confront it.

Community-School Concept. A new stimulation of community consciousness and the creators of new community solidarity would produce considerable strength of democratic living throughout our nation. Our nation will be as strong as its communities. Our communities will be improved as their citizens better understand the principles of community living and have opportunity for study and practice in all the realms of the arts, sciences, and group activities affecting community life.

There are few communities in the United States where some integration of school and community life is not taking place, but the question is whether the school cannot function more intimately in the
economic rehabilitation and social recreation of all of its citizens and how the community program can be best developed toward this end. The community school should be so planned and have such an influence on community growth and living that it continuously plays a part in the lives of every adult as well as youth.

A Proposed Community Educational Center. Achievement of the broad purposes of community education implies a very different type of organization than is usually provided. The creation of community-life patterns which transcend the pursuit of individual and group interests demands coordinated planning and cooperative action. A survey of any community will reveal that there already exists, within the cultural pattern, agencies and interest groups that reflect genuine needs and have a valid reason for being. The problem of organization is essentially that of creating the means for long-time social planning and action in terms of purposes that will integrate and give social significance to the activities of the various interest groups. From the point of view of democratic community education responsibility for leadership cannot be assumed by any single agency. Community education implies active participation of all persons in the continuous planning, executing, and evaluating of social policies.

On the basis of the survey of the nature and needs of the Dayton community described in the preceding pages, the following plan of organization is proposed.
Outline of the Proposed Plan

Name:

The plan of community organization outlined shall be designated as the Dayton Community Educational Center.

Membership:

Broadly conceived, the community center shall include in its membership all persons living within the community. Individual and group representation shall be provided by designating specifically the following individuals and groups: The Board of Education, the City Council, Parent-Teacher Association, Chamber of Commerce, American Legion, Civic Club and representatives of labor and professional groups.

Purpose of the Plan:

The broad purposes of the Community Educational Center shall be as follows:

1. To provide an agency by means of which the needs and responsibilities of the community may be formulated in relation to the demands of a changing civilization for the continuous growth and enrichment of children and adults in the Dayton community.

2. To create means whereby continuous improvement of community life is achieved through cooperative planning and action.

3. To provide a more realistic means of education for all persons by making the problems and activities of community life the essential basis of curricular experience.
4. To facilitate the recognition of education as a dynamic social activity capable of reconstructing the social order in accordance with the demands of a technological civilization and the implications of democracy.

Method of Administration:

The Community Educational Center shall be administered by an extra-legal agency designed as the Community Planning Council. Membership in the council shall consist of representatives chosen by and from each of the following agencies: The Board of Education, the City Council, the Parent-Teacher Association, the Chamber of Commerce, the American Legion, the Civic Club and representative each from labor and professional interest groups.

The method of selection and the length of time that each representative shall serve as a member of the Community Planning Council shall be determined by each representative agency. The Council shall select its own officers and determine its own rules of procedure. In the absence of valid precedents covering the activities of such an agency the precise details of organization and administration must await the appearance of actual needs and problems.

Broadly conceived the functions of the Community Planning Council shall be as follows:

1. To serve as a representative agency whose responsibility shall be long-time planning in the interest of the continuous improvement of community life.
2. To integrate the individual and social needs of all people within the community by the formulation of broad social policies.

3. To make specific recommendations to elective boards and related social and civic agencies that will suggest the means whereby community purposes can be achieved with the greatest degree of coordination.

4. To emphasize education continuously as the dynamic social activity upon the success of which the improvement of community life will ultimately depend.

Reorganization of Local School Units

In order to establish and carry out the type of educational program discussed in the previous topic, it seems necessary to begin with setting up satisfactory local school units.

During recent years most states have found themselves faced with the troublesome facts and conditions relating to the organization of local school units. They may be summarized as follows: (1) To the extent that schools, attendance areas and local administrative units are too small or are inadequate in other respects all phases of the school program of a state are likely to be handicapped, with the result that a well-rounded educational program will be practically impossible of attainment; (2) Many improvements in the instructional program can be affected only by the maximum effort and often at excessive cost under existing organizations of local units; (3) Educators and laymen
are increasingly insisting that a maximum of educational returns be attained for the money expended; (4) States are finding it increasingly necessary to formulate educational objectives in terms of a complete program of education, including the organization of adequate local school units.

Local School Unit Studies. Although the organization of local units is much more satisfactory in some states than in others, it may be said that in no state is the present organization adequate in every respect. Findings and recommendations of many states in their surveys have directed attention to the desirability and necessity for larger units of local school administration. The fact that a desire was expressed in 1935 by officials in 32 states to participate in a study of local school unit organization to be conducted by the office of education indicated the great extent of the problem at that time. Funds granted under the provisions of the Emergency Relief Appropriations Act of 1935 made possible state-wide studies of local school units in Arizona, Arkansas, California, Illinois, Kentucky, North Carolina, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee.¹

Similar studies made possible by grants from Works Progress Administration in the respective states have been carried on in Colorado, Idaho, Texas, Utah, Wisconsin, and Washington. Several states have included a study of local school unit organizations

as an integral part of their regular state programs with the idea that more time would be available for putting into effect the findings. Alabama had completed comprehensive studies in all except a few counties. New York has made a comprehensive study as one of the major phases of the Regents' Inquiry into the Cost and Character of Education.

It is reasonably certain that in the near future states will find it necessary, in the administration of their programs of education, to consider seriously problems arising from the inadequacies of existing organizations and to undertake systematically programs of planning more satisfactory local school units.

Original School Units. An understanding of present-day school districts requires a background of the conditions which existed when the original districts in any state were formed. The original district pattern of each state was influenced by the date of settlement, antecedents of the settlers, economic enterprises of the time, geography, social life and educational ideals and needs of the period.

According to Cubberley¹, the common school had its origin in New England. There the town was the first unit for local government. As settlers moved out from the center of the town, it became necessary to open new churches in various neighborhoods. Soon these parishes became the units for administering other social services. When schools were established, it was only natural that they should fall

into the same district pattern. As settlers from New England migrated westward, they carried with them this type of district organization.

The school district arose as a distinctly local institution. The early constitutions either neglected to mention schools or merely contained permissive provisions. Therefore, people could meet and vote to form a school district anywhere of any shape and size.

Such districts involved to meet the needs of the time. They were the community district of that period in America civilization which was characterized by a self-sufficient agriculture. The home was still a self-sufficient institution. Social life was simple and the citizens were concerned with very few national, state, and international problems.

Why Inadequate Units Continue to Exist. Many schools now in existence were established before the days of good roads and other modern transportation facilities. It was customary to locate the school in the community within walking distance of most of the children. Any effort to discontinue such schools or to change the boundaries of the areas served by them has been met with opposition, mainly because of sentiment and because of the fear of losing the immediate local control over schools. Even though evidence shows the desirability for relocating schools and for changing boundaries of the respective school attendance areas, or even of the local administrative unit, general experience shows that local school officials are often inclined to oppose such changes because of the loss of certain powers and after quite limited duties exercised by
The fact that boundaries of many existing local administrative units coincide with those of political units has added to the difficulty of making changes in such boundaries. Also, in nearly every state there have been some unwise consolidations of schools, attendance areas and local administration units established because of political expediency, poorly planned transportation routes established and other changes that now tend to hinder the work of desirable reorganization.

Laws have often provided for political sub-divisions to serve as either fiscal units for schools or as school administration units or both. These conditions tend to discourage efforts to improve the organization of local school units.

Sometimes the legal requirements that bonded indebtedness of existing district be assumed by the proposed abstract is a serious handicap in a program of reorganization. Because districts with small or no bonded indebtedness are reluctant to assume such obligations of adjoining districts, desirable organizations are postponed. The probability of desirable changes is still reduced when laws permit districts to bond themselves excessively. Present debt requirements of the newly formed unit, when added to the existing debt may prove to be an excessive tax burden.

When local tax levies legally ordered to relieve distressed districts are conducted for a number of years they, in effect, tend to subsidize inefficient districts and encourage their continuance.
Systems of apportioning state funds, as provided by constitutional and legal prescriptions, tend to perpetuate inefficient local units. Often, existing laws fail to recognize peculiar conditions relating to topography, density of population, and local needs, also failure on the part of laws to provide for the organization of local units as an integral part of the total state program is a factor contributing to the continued existence of inadequate local units. Experience in many states points definitely to the need for establishing criteria by regulatory power, authorized by law, for the formation of more satisfactory schools, attendance areas, and local administrative and fiscal units.

The Consolidation Movement. More than a hundred years ago Horace Mann recognized that educational progress was impeded by the district system. He urged a more unified organization. Since that day leading educators have urged various forms of organizations.

The first law permitting of expenditure of public money for the transportation of children to school, enacted by any American state, was passed by Massachusetts, in 1869. At first the authority was used mainly for conveying pupils to the central town high school which was the original intent of the law.¹

The first consolidation for the definite purpose of securing better educational opportunities appears to have occurred in Montague, Massachusetts in 1875. The second was probably established in Concord, Massachusetts in 1879. A central building was constructed to replace several one-teacher schools. Before the consolidation was affected,

there had been twelve teachers in eleven school buildings. In the consolidation the number was reduced to two village districts and five rural districts. After 1882, the year of the final abolition of the district system in the State, the movement increased rapidly in importance and set a new precedent in school policy.¹

The first state west of the Alleghany mountains to use transportation was Ohio in 1894. While this enactment to transport students spread, the whole idea of consolidation began to take root and the number of local schools began to decrease. Between 1897 and 1905, some twenty states authorized the consolidation of schools and expenditure of school money for the transportation of pupils, while certain other states slowly began the work of consolidation. Since the permissive laws, we find many states have gained marked results in consolidation.²

The State of Oregon³ passed its first consolidation law in 1903 upon the suggestions of many county school superintendents, but consolidation progressed quite slowly in Oregon until the 1930's when more school officials were looked to consolidation to reduce the existing inequalities throughout the State. In 1939, the Fortieth Legislative Assembly passed the School District Reorganization Law which gave a

great deal of encouragement to the movement. The current teacher shortage and other factors brought about by the war have caused the suspension and consolidation of many small schools during the past five years.

Good roads, modern transportation facilities, the current teacher shortage, and an awakening to the educational needs of modern society are effecting a change. Reports show that in 1934 there were more than 17,000 consolidated schools and since that date, the number has risen considerably. The total cost of transportation has increased to over sixty million dollars annually.

The number of one-room schools in the United States have decreased over 4,500 annually during the past twenty-five years. The number of consolidations average over a thousand annually which means the abandonment of more than 5,000 one-room schools every year.

Originally the transportation movement had chiefly financial ends in view. Today the movement is educational. While it is possible actually to save money in many cases by consolidation of schools, the economy in funds is today almost wholly subordinated to providing better educational advantages for both the children and the people on the farms. From a rural-school problem, the situation has recently expanded into a rural-life problem, but of which the school still forms a central part.

The real and important underlying problem we have to face is how to maintain a satisfying American civilization in the rural areas of our nation. This is the question which lies beneath all discussion of the problem of rural-school reorganization. The typical American
farmer of the past has been essentially a man of the intelligent middle class, owning a medium-sized farm, maintaining a good standard of living, interested in the education of his children, and interested in the community in which he lived. How to preserve this standard, amid the increasing tenantry and the changing character of the farming population, and how to develop such standards among new rural people, is one of the large problems which today confront those interested in the improvement of rural life. The problem, at the bottom, is a social one as well as an educational one, though the main single defect is undoubtedly a lack of sufficient education of the right kind. Its solution calls for a comprehensive and fundamental reconstruction of the rural social institutions, chief among which is the school, to enable them to meet the changed conditions and needs of our rural life in a really effective manner.

Efficient and effective administration of local schools calls for educational and business administrative services, supervision of instruction, health services, and census and attendance supervision. These services cannot be economically provided through small school districts. Research has indicated that the minimum size of districts that can furnish these services is one having at least forty teachers and that there is a rapid increase in economy as the size increases up to between 70 and 100 teachers. Consolidations are necessary unless some other immediate governmental unit establishes the administrative service.
Basic Considerations. Usually consolidations cannot be effected overnight. There is always a large amount of conservation to overcome and often much opposition. The administrator who is to be a leader in a consolidation plan should think the plan over carefully before discussing it with anyone. He should know the legal points involved and the exact order of procedure in bringing about a consolidation. He should know the cost involved for transportation, extra teachers, buildings and equipment. This information should be tabulated so as to be presented in the most effective way at the opportune time.

The administrator's first objective should be to get his board sufficiently interested to take over the idea as their own. He will then be in a strategic position to furnish data for further consideration of the plan. He should then gradually approach the board members of the districts to be annexed. Haste might be fatal to the project. Months or even a year or so may be needed to allow the idea to become accepted by all concerned.

The matter should never be brought to a vote unless it is believed that a good majority may vote in favor of the consolidation. A bare majority always means that enough objectors are left to cause unending criticism and dissatisfaction. Two important principles should be observed by the administrator in this as in all educational movement in his community:
First, the superintendent should be a leader in visioning opportunities and needs and in awakening the board and community to their realization:

Second, he should not proceed in the actual establishment of the movement faster than he can secure the enthusiasm and actual approval of the majority of the members of the community.

**Administrative and Attendance Units.**

I. General Assumptions:¹

A. Satisfactory local administration unit need not -
   1. Imply arbitrary distinctions between urban and rural areas.
   2. Be co-terminous with or limited by other local political units.
   3. Be restricted to the attendance area for any one school.

B. A satisfactory local administrative unit should -
   1. Permit the unhindered development of a complete range of educational offerings through at least the elementary and secondary grades.
   2. Permit the development of the most economical and efficient system in terms of administration, supervision, and teaching.
   3. Be based on social, economic, and topographic conditions as well as on the number of school children.

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C. In general, units which are too small make impossible the development of schools large enough to be adequate in the light of modern needs.

D. In most parts of the country there is more likelihood of a unit that is too small than one that is too large.

E. There is probably no one type of unit which will be equally satisfactory in all parts of the country.

II. Assumptions regarding the significance of the unit:

A. The administrative unit affects, if it does not determine—
   1. The breadth or richness of the program that may be offered.
   2. The extent of the program.
   3. The economy or expensiveness of the program.
   4. The facilities that may be provided.

III. Assumptions regarding the steps involved in developing desirable administrative units or attendance areas:

A. The diversity of attitude on the part of the people toward local self-government greatly complicates the problem of determining the most satisfactory local unit.

B. Method of developing a satisfactory local unit depends largely on leadership, local, state and national, rural and urban.

C. Satisfactory units may not be obtained until the majority of the people are informed concerning the soundness of the principle of equalization of educational opportunity.
D. Constitutional and statutory provisions should be sufficiently elastic to facilitate the reorganization of local units as the need for such reorganization is shown.

E. There should be provision for export planning by authorized agencies, who, after thorough studies, should recommend desirable changes to the constituted authorities.

Types of School Organizations

Reorganization in schools is a comparatively recent development. Important modifications of the four-year high school organization was made in 1893 by the Committee of Ten and by 1910 a few reorganized schools were established. By 1930 there were 5,777 reorganized schools. Of these new types, two are most common; the 6-3-3 organization with six years of elementary school, three years of junior high school and three years of union high school; and the 6-6 type with six years elementary school and six years high school. However, any number of variety of types has been developed throughout the United States. There are one-, two-,

and three-year high schools, two-year junior high schools, four-year junior high schools, junior college and other combinations. The latest recommended type probably being the 6-1-4 plan by the Educational Policies Commission. Six-years of elementary school and eight years of high school, the last two years of high school spent in vocational or specialized work.

The conventional type of organization, the eight-year elementary and four-year high school, is still predominate.

The reorganization of secondary schools has developed rapidly in recent years. This has been largely confined to urban schools. In the smaller schools of rural areas it has been slow. This is probably due to the fact that the particular methods developed for reorganization were better adopted to situations where pupils could be brought together in large groups and to lack of attention given this problem in smaller schools.

Reorganized versus Conventional Schools. The most striking difference between the organized and conventional school is found in provisions of articulation. In the conventional school there is an abrupt break in the number of subjects included in pupils' schedules, in opportunity for promotion by subject and often in the extent of departmentalization, while in the reorganized school the transition is less abrupt. While the differences in guidance between the two types of schools make more extensive provisions for guidance from the ninth grade on.
In its program of studies the conventional school does not provide for electives in the seventh and eighth grades, and greater emphasis is placed on academic subjects, and less on a broad curriculum.

The reorganized school offers greater opportunities for extra-curricular activities. There is also an advantage in the quality of its staff. Taking the situation as a whole, the reorganization of secondary schools has definitely resulted in a more effective educational program. Probably too much stress has been placed on general reorganization of the school, and not sufficient emphasis on the results obtained. Reorganization is merely a means of providing better education, not an end in itself.

Type of Organization Most Likely to Secure the Best Results. In the smaller schools differences resulting from the type of organization are relatively unimportant. The distinctions increase as the size of the school increases. The six-year high schools and junior-senior high schools are so much more numerous than other types that their values can hardly be questioned. As for the relative value of the six-year high school compared with the 6-3-3 organization in small communities, even the six-year school will be relatively small in those communities. One co-ordinated program with simpler organizational structure will not only be more economical, but more efficient in operation. In small communities the overlapping and duplication due to the presence of two schools may be not only expensive but destructive.
Dawson\(^1\) points out that under present methods of organization, pupil-teacher ratio is low and the per pupil cost high in schools of fewer than 300 pupils. From the practical standpoint of simple, efficient, and economical organization for the provision of an educational program in terms of pupil needs, the six-year high school has important advantages. Davis\(^2\) proposes that in schools of fewer than 500, the six-year organization is most economical. Estimates indicate that from the standpoint of efficiency and economy a school must be fairly large before a separate organization is desirable.

**Advantages of the Six-Year High School.** The advantages of the six-year high school over other types increase as the school becomes smaller. Kilzer\(^3\) proposes the following advantages: (1) promotes economy in administration and housing and equipment; (2) promotes economy and efficiency in supervision; (3) better teachers are secured for grades seven and eight; (4) teachers may be assigned to fields in which they are best prepared to teach; (5) faculty spirit is better in undivided high school; (6) permits continuity in curriculum building; (7) more varied program of studies provided without


increasing cost; (8) promotes articulation and increases holding power; (9) aids extra-curriculum activities; (10) affords greater opportunity for guidance; (11) provides for better adaption to individual needs of pupils, both normal and atypical.

Most objections are based on the fact that important differences exist between the characteristics and needs of pupils in the early adolescent years of the sixth and seventh grades and pupils of the eleventh and twelfth grade periods. While the objections to the six-year high school must be recognized, they can be largely avoided through proper selection of teachers and through wise supervision.

A Proposed Local Consolidation Plan. Before a discussion of the proposed plan of reorganization is made, it will be necessary to point out the present existing organizations in the area under consideration.

It will be noted that map I, page 68, shows the location of the union high school and the seven outlying elementary districts in the union high school area. These eight-grade elementary schools are all separate units. District No. 28 comprises the village of Dayton and has an enrollment of approximately 180 pupils and six teachers, including the principal. The other outlying elementary districts have enrollments varying from approximately twenty to sixty pupils with one and two teachers in each school. The union high school has an approximate enrollment of 100 students and a faculty of eight teachers including the principal, although one member of the faculty teaches only part time, handling the music program. Seven of the eight-year
elementary schools outside Dayton, as shown on map I, page 68, are located at distances from two to ten miles from the Dayton high school. Map I, page 68, also indicates the present organizations and transportation routes. Transportation is furnished only to the high school students. It is handled with two busses. One bus traveling route 1 and 2, and one bus traveling route 3 as indicated on the map. The routes range from approximately ten to forty miles per day.

Table I, page 70, shows the present districts to be consolidated, together with their present assessed valuation, tax rate, sources of revenue and amounts from each source, taken from the annual reports of June, 1944. These incomes are totaled and used as a basis for the estimated receipts for the proposed consolidated area as shown in table II, page 71.

Table III, page 72, shows the scholastic population by stipulated intervals for each of the districts making up the proposed consolidation area. There has been a fluctuating school enrollment in the various districts over a period of 25 years due chiefly to the small amount of transit population. The small increase in a few of the districts in the area is not a significant factor and does not warrant the maintenance of the separate school districts.

Table IV, page 73, shows such educational data as school census, enrollment, average daily attendance, number of classroom teachers, pupil-teacher load, grades taught and per pupil cost in average daily attendance. It will be noted after a study of table IV, page 73, and map I, page 68, that with the exception of districts 28 and 22, the
Table I

Financial Statement for School Year 1943-44

(Taken from Annual Reports of June 1944)

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<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>303,868.00</td>
<td>.0003</td>
<td>486.66</td>
<td>145.23</td>
<td>243.70</td>
<td>55.56</td>
<td>3,151.25</td>
<td>1,971.72</td>
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<tr>
<td>94</td>
<td>240,950.60</td>
<td>.0054</td>
<td>1,067.75</td>
<td>905.50</td>
<td>487.40</td>
<td>82.28</td>
<td>3,378.06</td>
<td>3,420.01</td>
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<tr>
<td>U-4</td>
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<td>.0102</td>
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</tr>
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</table>

11,846.87  8,493.26  4,142.90  871.10
## TABLE II

Estimated Receipts and Expenses for Consolidated Area

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessed valuation $2,732,365.67</th>
<th>Estimated receipts</th>
<th>Amount</th>
<th>Estimated expenditures</th>
<th>Amount</th>
<th>Amount to be raised by local tax</th>
<th>Tax rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>County fund</td>
<td>$ 8,495.26</td>
<td>General control</td>
<td>$ 2,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary fund</td>
<td>4,142.90</td>
<td>Inst. - Superv.</td>
<td>9,500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State irred. fund</td>
<td>871.10</td>
<td>Inst. - teaching</td>
<td>5,4,800</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consolidated apportionment</td>
<td>9,434.88</td>
<td>Operation of plant</td>
<td>8,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School support fund</td>
<td>11,846.87</td>
<td>Maintenance &amp; repair</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Auxiliary agencies</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fixed charges</td>
<td>1,500</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Capital outlay</td>
<td>2,500</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total exp. applicable direct to school</td>
<td>8,300</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-bonded debt service</td>
<td>1,000</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emergency</td>
<td>3,000</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>$34,789.01</td>
<td>Total general fund</td>
<td>$88,300</td>
<td>$53,510.99</td>
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### Table III

Proposed Consolidation Area

Scholastic Population by Stipulated Intervals

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Dayton Prairie</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Unity</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Webfoot</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Dayton</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>159</td>
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<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Unionvale</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>Pleasantdale</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94</td>
<td>Grand Island</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Lafayette</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U-4 Dayton Union High</td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>103</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table IV

Educational Data by Schools within the Proposed Consolidation Area, based on School Year 1943-44.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>District Name</th>
<th>School census</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
<th>Average daily attendance</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Pupil-teacher load</th>
<th>Grades taught</th>
<th>Pupil cost in A.D.A.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Dayton Prairie</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>1-8</td>
<td>$84.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Lafayette</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>112.4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>1-8</td>
<td>90.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Unity</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>1-8</td>
<td>196.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Webfoot</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>1-8</td>
<td>135.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Dayton</td>
<td>212</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>130.8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>1-8</td>
<td>96.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Unionvale</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>1-8</td>
<td>100.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>Pleasantdale</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>1-8</td>
<td>150.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>94</td>
<td>Grand Island</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>1-8</td>
<td>76.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Lafayette High</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>9-12</td>
<td>185.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U-4</td>
<td>Dayton Union High</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>92.1</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>9-12</td>
<td>245.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
schools have only one and two teachers and comparatively small enrollments. The disadvantages to the pupils are many in these schools. To mention a few; there can be offered a limited program only; one teacher for four or eight grades does not offer sufficient time for classes; the buildings and equipment are nearly always inadequate.

The proposed plan is to consolidate the seven outlying elementary districts and in addition the Lafayette school district 22, shown on map II, page 75, into one unified administrative unit. In this proposed plan, three six-year elementary schools would be maintained, one located at Dayton near the high school with an estimated enrollment of 220 pupils and seven teachers, the second located at Lafayette in the northwest section of the area with an estimated enrollment of 100 students and four teachers and the third located at Unionvale in the south section of the area with an estimated enrollment of 80 pupils and four teachers.

This plan would establish three elementary attendance units in the area conveniently located so that transportation would not be great for the younger pupils. There would be one six-year high school maintained at the present site in Dayton. The six-year high school enrollment would be approximately 285 and the faculty necessary for a satisfactory program is estimated to be eleven teachers and a principal. A superintendent would be employed to head the administrative unit. The proposed schools for the consolidated area indicating enrollment, grades to be taught, number of teachers and the pupil-teacher load, are shown in table V, page 76.
Table V
Schools Proposed for the Consolidated Area Indicating Enrollment, Grades to be Taught, Number of Teachers and Pupil-Teacher Load

*Estimated

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
<th>Grades taught</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Pupil-teacher load</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dayton</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lafayette</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unionvale</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dayton</td>
<td>283</td>
<td>7-12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Figures based on data from 1943-1944 school reports.

A principal would be employed to administer the six-year high school. A superintendent would be employed to head the administrative unit.
The proposed area, various schools to be established, grades to be taught, teachers in each school and proposed transportation routes throughout the consolidation area are indicated with symbols on map II, page 75.

Three buses would be needed to furnish transportation to the proposed area over the four routes indicated on map II. One bus could be assigned to routes 1 and 4 (relatively short routes), one to route 2, and one to route 3.

All high school students in the area would be transported to Dayton and the elementary students to the school nearest their homes. Transportation at public expense should be provided for all pupils who live too far from the school to walk conveniently. In general, transportation should be provided for all children who live more than two miles from the school. Probable modifications of this requirement are that all elementary pupils who live more than one mile and all junior high school pupils who live more than one and a half miles from the school should be transported at public expense.

It is recommended that the community-school concept be the guiding principle in the minds of those in charge of the building program for the proposed area. A centralized system should be planned. The Dayton unit plant should be constructed to house a unified elementary, high school and adult educational program. The six-year elementary unit should be planned as an extension of the present high school building so that various facilities can be utilized by all. This plan would include a centralized heating system,
auditorium, library, and accommodations for adult organizations. The
grounds should provide an area to facilitate the school and community
recreational program as discussed in connection with that topic.

In addition to the centralized facilities, the elementary school
should be provided with an extension of such facilities as their own
library and play rooms.

Table II, page 71, shows a summary of the estimated receipts,
estimated expenditures, amount to be raised by local tax, tax rate
and assessed valuation for the proposed administrative unit. The
estimated receipts are totals taken from the financial data sheet
for the districts to be consolidated. The estimated expenditures are
amounts based on the school budgets as proposed by the elementary and
high school districts together with an estimate of the cost of a
satisfactory unified program. Using these figures, the school system
could be maintained at a tax levy of .0195 mills.

The estimated expenditures as shown in table II, page 71, does
not include financing the building program necessary for the consoli-
dated system. It is estimated that $175,000 would be necessary to
finance the new building program in the three attendance units. This
would include a new elementary plan at Dayton, addition to the present
high school at Dayton and reconstruction and additions to the Lafayette
and Unionvale plants.

There are a great many advantages of a consolidated area, a
few will be summarized here:
1. Eliminate several of the administrative units and increase the valuation of the unit; therefore, reducing the cost and help to equalize taxation.

2. Make possible larger attendance areas which would give the pupils the advantages of having more desirable social contacts, better recreational facilities and a better school atmosphere.

3. Make possible more adequate supervision and instruction because of fewer grades per teacher.


5. An enriched program of studies.

6. Attract better teachers and make possible better salaries for teachers.

7. Serve to develop better community relationships.

8. Would help to attract settlement and trade in the community.

**Organizing the Curriculum**

The legal authority for the determination and organization of the subjects to be offered in the schools is vested in the legislatures of the states. The state legislatures have enacted laws relative to the curriculum but usually this authority is delegated to the state superintendent or education department or to the local boards of education. Some state departments exercise this authority rather extensively while in others they set up only a minimum list of prescribed subjects and leave the selection and organization of the
program to the local boards of education.

The local boards function primarily as policy making and program determining bodies and delegate to their executive officer, the superintendent, the responsibility for the selection and organization of the subjects, reserving; however, the right of final approval of rejection.

Curriculum Determiners. The planning of the program of studies for a given school requires careful study of a number of factors. Some are definite and must be adhered to strictly; some must be studied in relation to the local situation and others are general and apply to all schools. These curriculum determiners might be divided into two types, the general and local. The general determiners are concerned with the following:

(1) Contributions to the objectives or purposes of education. These objectives constitute the common basis for the selection of the studies for all schools.

(2) The prescribed list of subjects which the state department sets up and requires for graduation from a standard high school. The following sixteen units are required for graduation from any standard high school in the state of Oregon:

Three units of English: English or some equivalent course should normally be included in every pupil's course each of the four years of high school.

Two units of Social Studies: These are the two units in United States History and Government and Socio-Economic Problems for the eleventh and twelfth grades as designated in the state course of study or equivalent courses.

One unit of Health and Physical Education: Health and Physical Education is required for three years except when its omission is recommended by a physician or requested in writing by parents for religious scruples.

Two units selected from the fields of science, mathematics, or foreign language, (including Latin); this may include one year of science and one year of mathematics, or two years of either, but if foreign language is elected to fulfill the requirement, there must be two units of the same language. One year of language may be counted toward graduation among the eight electives.

(3) College entrance requirements. The above mentioned state requirements for graduation also constitute the minimum college entrance requirements. Some institutions, especially outside of Oregon, will have requirements more specialized than covered in this minimum uniform agreement, hence, one aspect of the guidance work of high schools should be concerned with seeing that those students who are planning to attend higher institutions of learning meet any such special entrance requirements.
Local Determiners - the basic program of studies must be organized with sufficient flexibility to allow for its adaptation to meet the conditions in the various communities of the state. There are certain problems peculiar to small schools, others to large schools; some communities are predominately rural, others are urban; some schools must serve agricultural communities, others are located in industrial centers. The nature of the program will be affected necessarily by the size and preparation of the staff, the resources and equipment of the school, the administrative setup and other similar factors.

Expanding the Curriculum. How to increase the educational offerings of a small school with a limited faculty is an important problem which all small schools have to face.

The alternation of subjects is a common method for the expansion of curriculum offerings. By alternating courses, the program of studies may be extended from one-fifth to one-third the number of offerings that could be taught otherwise by the regular staff. As a rule, courses which are organically and vocationally alike should be alternated. This method is most commonly applied to third and fourth year courses. The major criterion is whether the earlier courses are prerequisites to later courses.

Correspondence courses are becoming an important part of the curriculum of many small schools. State departments of education generally recognize them and permit the granting of school credit for their completion. Courses in practically all fields are available
and when the school is limited to one curriculum, they offer possibilities of providing a variety of courses for pupils who need courses which cannot be offered by the regular faculty.

**Curriculum Articulation.** The articulation of the curriculum of the small school, regardless of its organization, requires an understanding of the curriculum problems of the school below and those of the school above their own. To provide for these adjustments between the schools, the courses should be selected and organized with the idea of articulation in mind. To articulate the curriculum of the high school with that of the elementary school, the following should be provided: First, the curriculum should provide for a continuance in a diminishing degree of those activities commonly pursued by all pupils and would be necessary for them regardless of the curriculum they take in high school; second, differentiation in the curriculum will provide for the different characteristics, abilities, interests, and aptitudes of the pupils. Different curricula will provide means whereby the pupils may make individual adjustments in the curriculum itself through proper guidance; third, for those who enter high school unprepared to do the work, special coaching classes in the fundamentals should be provided.

**The Ten-Teacher Six-Year High School.** The suggested program of studies for the six-year high school employing ten teachers and a superintendent with an approximate enrollment of two hundred and eighty-five students as given on pages 86, 87 and 88 shows several recommended features. The program for the seventh and eighth years
is prescribed. No electives are offered. All classes meet for periods of one hour each. Each class is organized on the supervised-study, recitation basis. Health and physical education can be alternated during the week with class room study and discussion one day and work in the gymnasium following the next day. Music and art appreciation can be alternated during the week for example, music on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday and art appreciation on Tuesday and Thursday.

Electives are planned for grades nine through twelve. The number of electives increasing in grades eleven and twelve. The beginning of the electives in the ninth grade necessitates careful planning by the student and counselor so that the student elects the proper sequence. Social science I (Occupations) should be planned to give all students the necessary review of the occupations and self-appraisal to help the student decide his future program.

Courses in English, social science, science, health and physical education are offered in sequence for the six years and are the basic required curriculum. The commercial curriculum can be started in the ninth year and continued through the twelfth year. A three-year program in agriculture and home economics is offered with the third and fourth years alternating. The mathematics and science program can be pursued throughout the six years. Two years of foreign language can be taken beginning in the eleventh year. Speech and journalism can be taken as electives in alternate years.

All classes are scheduled to meet five periods per week for sixty minutes with the exception of the laboratory courses such as
chemistry, physics, biology, agriculture and home economics which meet for seven periods per week.

Subjects beginning in the ninth year and continuing through the twelfth year are to be taken for credit based on the Carnegie unit, sixteen units required for graduation. Required subjects are:

Ninth year; English I, social science I, and health physical education.

Tenth year; English II, social science II, science III, and health and physical education.

Eleventh; English III, social science III, and health and physical education.

Twelfth year; English IV, or equivalent which would be speech or journalism, social science IV, and health and physical education.

A significant provision of the schedule for the small school attempting to correlate the work of the school with the life of the community is the reservation of certain afternoon periods of the agriculture and home economic teachers for day-unit and evening school classes.

Special periods can be arranged for assemblies, and other special activities once each week or whenever necessary, so that no period will be provided.

The activities director, mentioned in connection with the recreational program will have charge of the schedule and direction of all activities outside of the regular six-period class day, five days per week.
A Suggested Program of Studies for a Six-year High School with Ten Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seventh Year</th>
<th>Eighth Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subject</strong></td>
<td><strong>Subject</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Language arts</td>
<td>1. Language arts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Literature, grammar, reading and spelling)</td>
<td>(Literature, grammar reading and spelling)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Science</td>
<td>2. Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(General science)</td>
<td>(General science)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Social Science</td>
<td>3. Social Science</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(World geography)</td>
<td>(U. S. history and civics)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Composite math.)</td>
<td>(Composite math.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. *Health and physical education</td>
<td>5. *Health and physical education</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* Alternate days.
### Ninth Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Periods per week</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. English I</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Social science I (Community civics and occupations)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Science I (General)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <em>Health and physical education</em></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Electives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Periods per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Agriculture I</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Home economics I</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Typing I</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Mathematics I (Algebra)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Music</td>
<td>3</td>
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### Tenth Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Periods per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. English II</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Social science II (World history)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Science II (Biology)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <em>Health and physical education</em></td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Electives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Periods per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Agriculture II</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Home economics II</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Typing II</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Mathematics II (Geometry)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Music</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Alternate health class and gym.
### Eleventh Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Periods per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. English III</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Social science III (U.S. history and government)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Health and physical education</td>
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**Electives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Electives</th>
<th>Periods per week</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Science III (Physics)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Foreign language I</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Commercial III (Shorthand I) (Bookkeeping I) (Typing II)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Mathematics III (Advanced math.)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. *Agriculture III or IV</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. *Home economics III or IV</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. **Public speaking</td>
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### Twelfth Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Periods per week</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. English IV</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Social science IV (Problems of democracy)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Health and physical education</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Electives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Electives</th>
<th>Periods per week</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Science IV (Chemistry)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Foreign language II</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Commercial IV (Shorthand II) (Bookkeeping I) (Typing II) (Office procedure)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Mathematics IV (Advanced math.)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. *Agriculture III or IV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. *Home economics III or IV</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. **Journalism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* III and IV alternated by the year.

** Alternated by the year.
The School Staff

In the last analysis the determining factor in a good school program is the teacher. Teaching at its best is both an art and a science. It is the stimulation and direction of learning. The good teacher is a consulting engineer in the realm of human behavior, reflecting the spirit of accuracy usually credited to the scientist joined with the sympathetic understanding that is essential in a good parent. Teachers are professional workers and should be recognized as such.

The general characteristics or personal traits of good teachers are difficult to determine on account of a lack of agreement even among professional leaders, as to what constitutes good teaching because of the inadequacy of any instrument to measure the qualities of human personality. Practically all teachers and educational leaders would agree that the finest product of good teaching includes many highly important personality adjustments between teachers and pupils.

**Bases for Teacher Selection.** In addition to personality traits other factors should enter into the selection of teachers. The kind and amount of general education, the type and amount of professional education, the legal requirements for certification, the definite teaching position, and the demands of the community, are usually important considerations. Except for the minimum academic and professional standards required for certification, the qualifications of
teachers may be considered of different values in different school systems.

For the small high school it is important to select teachers who have the social traits necessary to lead and inspire adolescent boys and girls from rural communities and villages. The teacher who is satisfied to direct his pupils in the mastery of conventional subject matter is neglecting his greatest opportunity. Boys and girls in small high schools are in special need of the inspiration and guidance of teachers with broad culture and attractive personalities, who can lead them to live better in their daily lives and inspire them with high ideals.

College graduation leading to a bachelor's degree is now generally accepted as the minimum preparation for a high school teacher and in many states the requirements for a teacher's certificate is the equivalent of one year beyond the bachelor's degree. For principals, superintendents and supervisors, a special credential is essential. Another significant trend in the requirements in the certification and accrediting standards of state departments of education is the increasing emphasis upon a minimum amount of college preparation in the subject taught. Increased professional requirements should improve the efficiency of the small school as a social agency for the development of boys and girls and as an institution of general service to the community. It will also act as a safeguard against the employment of those teachers who are obviously unprepared for a high type of professional work. They will prevent the employment of many whose
chief qualifications consist of political influence; and they will tend
to eliminate from the profession those who are unwilling to make a
serious study of the duties and responsibilities of the high school
teacher, as well as those who intend to use it as a temporary posi-
tion, or as a stepping-stone to other types of employment.

Practically all the studies that have been made in the field of
the length of teacher tenure confirm the common observation that small
schools tend to provide teachers with their first educational experi-
ence. One result of this situation is a relatively short period of
tenure for most teachers in small high schools.

Teachers may reasonably expect to render their best professional
service when the period of tenure is sufficiently long to enable them
to become thoroughly acquainted with the requirements of the community
and aims of the school program. The principal can provide adequate
educational leadership only when his plan can be projected in terms
of a number of years. It requires time to learn the peculiar needs,
opportunities, and possibilities of an educational program for any
community.

The parents of the community may rightly expect and should be
led to demand, that the board of education adopt policies which will
guarantee a reasonable term of tenure for successful teachers and
principals. The development of favorable sentiment among the citizens
in each school district for a satisfactory period of tenure, for
employment of teachers on a basis of strict professional merit and
the dismissal of teachers only for demonstrated incompetency or
personal conduct violating the approved moral code of the community, would insure the establishment and maintenance of a sound educational program.

As is true of all good workers, good teachers deserve and must have good salaries. A community which pays low salaries may think that it is economizing, but in reality it is engaging in tragic extravagance at the price of wrongly or inadequately developed human life.

In planning the educational program, marked attention should be given to the qualifications needed by local school administrators and to the selection of such officials. To a high degree the local superintendent of schools can determine not only the basic nature of the school program, but also the cultural and social level of the community as a whole. A superintendent should be socially minded and should conceive of the school as the center of community life and service. He should have clearly defined concepts of community needs, and should be able to point the way to establishing educational experiences and services which will make the community a desirable place in which to live. The selection of a superintendent should be the concern of the teaching staff and the citizens as a whole as well as the immediate responsibility of the board of education.

Local Boards of Education. The local board of education should represent the entire community and should have a broad and far-reaching social point of view with wide cultural interests.
A local board of education should act as an advisory, not a supervisory body. It is the function of the board to get things done. The most important duty of the board is to choose a superintendent of schools. The superintendent should be recognized as the professional executive to whom the board looks for technical advice in the formulation of policies and to whom the execution of adopted policies is assigned. Individual board members and the board as a whole should never attempt to serve the schools as professional educators.

The policy of the board of education with respect to the selection of teachers is especially important. Candidates for teaching positions in a school should be interviewed not by members of the board but by the superintendent of schools. The board of education should appoint teachers upon the recommendation of the superintendent.

Guidance Practices

During a period of rapid change in which adults as well as youth find great difficulty in making satisfactory adjustments, every possible assistance must be given to youth. The greater influx of youth into the high school, the greater heterogeneity of the secondary school population, the greater emphasis on the individual pupil and his particular needs, and the resulting broadening of the curriculum have all increased the need for pupil guidance. Today a greater task is placed upon the school. Through alternation of
classes, individual instructional materials, supervised correspondence courses, use of community resources and the like, a wide variety of subject choice may be given, even in the smallest school. With this possibility of meeting pupil needs the school has an increasing responsibility for providing effective counseling.

No single plan or combination of established plans for guidance could be adopted in the public schools. There are too many varieties of needs for any degree of uniformity of organization to be practical. In any community the specific character of the counseling program must be determined by a complex pattern of factors.

The nature of the guidance program adopted will reflect the general attitude of the community, board of education, superintendent, principal, guidance staff and teachers toward the basic purposes and objectives of education, as may be termed traditional, progressive, conservative, ultra-modern, or middle of the road. They will often indicate the emphasis to be found in the guidance activities. Emphasis in the place and importance of classroom teachers in the guidance program often accompanies the modern or progressive philosophy.

The degree of attention toward the problem of vocational choice and preparation constitutes a factor in determining the character of the program. In some the focal center of all guidance is the selection of an occupational field while in others, vocational counseling is coordinated in importance with social, educational and personal phases. Others consider the function of education that of helping
students develop a broad background for understanding himself and his social environment.

In this analysis, an attempt will be made, not to form a master program for any school system, but to suggest the general administrative organization of guidance practices which seem to make up a functional guidance program adaptable to a small rural high school in western Oregon.

Serving a community of average American farmers, this school offers a curriculum stressing prevocational and agriculture and home economics courses. Grade levels included are seven to twelve inclusive. The enrollment of the school is approximately 285. Ten teachers for this number of students yield a pupil-per-teacher ratio of approximately 28.

The following table presents a brief summary of the duties and responsibilities of each guidance worker:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Periods of classroom teaching per day</th>
<th>Guidance Functions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Superintendent</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Has general charge of guidance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principal-Counselor (1)</td>
<td>One</td>
<td>Prepares guidance lessons for homeroom teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Counsels new students and problem cases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Helps make program adjustments at the beginning of each semester.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Arranges for vocational talks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Makes homeroom visits.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Helps schedule students and assists with the master program.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homeroom teachers (6)</td>
<td>Four</td>
<td>Each has responsibility for a homeroom group.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The homeroom groups meet for a period of 30 minutes twice each week. These periods are employed for administrative procedures and lessons prepared by the counselor to be used as the basis of class discussion.

A series of orientation conferences are held for seventh and eighth grade students at the beginning of the school year to assist them in adjusting to the school program. The tenth grade group attends a series of conferences in the spring semester to prepare them for the upper division school.

The social science classes discuss problems of social relationship as they pertain to the school. The tenth-grade students plan their courses for the remaining year of high school. The tenth-grade social science classes make a brief survey of educational and occupational opportunities as a foundation for vocational choice. They also hear talks by representatives of vocational centers and a number of business and professional men.

The counselor interviews and advises all new students and special cases suggested by the teachers.

The Otis Mental Ability test is administered to ninth-grade students. The Stanford Achievement test is given to the junior high level and the Sones-Harry Achievement test is given at the senior high school level. Various other subject matter tests are administered when needed. The results are used to help students to make the needed adjustments and to help teachers determine promotions.
The general group guidance outline includes the following major topics:

1. Problems of orientation for the period during which pupils adjust to the school.
2. Good study habits and scholastic progress.
3. Choice of high school subjects.
5. Importance of getting on the right track in school.
7. Review of what has gone before (tenth grade).
8. Preparing to live in a democracy.
9. Choosing life job--basic information needed.
10. Leaving for upper division high school--program and adjustments.

A Community-School Recreational Program

The objective of a community recreational program is to provide opportunities for leisure-time activities for all persons within the population. Such activities, chosen according to individual and group interests, include informal play, music, dramatics, the dance, arts and crafts, radio, reading, outdoor sports, forums and discussion groups, club meetings, community events and any number of other pursuits. Within the framework of facilities used for such activities are parks, schools, churches, community centers, museums, art centers, libraries, swimming pools, golf courses, radio stations, concert halls,
movies, theaters, and many others.

This aggregate of leisure-time interests is far too great for any single agency within a community to handle. A total community recreation program must represent the sum of the efforts of many community forces. The agencies concerned are recreational commissions or boards, city and county park commissioners, boards of education, boy scouts, girl scouts, campfire girls, YMCA, YWCA, community centers, church groups, civic organizations and others.

All these agencies have a contribution to make to an inclusive recreational program and have a part in its planning. The structure for such planning may take the form of an over-all recreation planning council or committee which is representative of all groups concerned, including public and private agencies, civic and commercial interests, as well as parents, employers, labor and youth themselves.

In such a program of community recreation the schools have an important place. Guidance in the use of leisure time has long been recognized as one of the major purposes of education. If this purpose is to be achieved, the schools must open up leisure-time activities to the pupils, help them to choose wisely, provide worth-while activities from which to choose, and participate actively in a well-planned school-community recreation program.

Recreation and Education are Interrelated. It is difficult sometimes to determine where education ends and recreation begins. Someone has said that recreation is a state of mind and can be defined only in terms of basic satisfactions. What is for one person a
leisure-time activity may be for another a part of a planned educational program. As the National Resources Planning Board pointed out in one of its reports, "Education and recreation share the same general aims, and in their more progressive forms their techniques bear a marked resemblance."¹

The field is wide open for more and greater progress—progress both in developing recreational activities within the school program and in extending the school recreational services and influences as total community needs require. Too many school administrators are still holding to a narrow view of the educational function of the school. Too many community leaders fail to recognize the possibilities of enriching the programs of their schools through guidance of leisure-time activities. Too many state and community agencies have as yet not seen the desirability of coordinating their efforts in a unified service for recreation.

As a result, one may find school houses and school playgrounds locked and unused for two-thirds of a day when they might be contributing richly to the educational-recreational life of all the people. Elsewhere one may find several agencies operating separate recreational programs—sometimes competing programs—when a unified organization, with a mutual appreciation of one another's services, would produce both more effective and more economical results. Still else-

where one may find no organized recreational program at all.

In an analysis of school-community recreation relationships, as reported by the National Recreation Association, it was pointed out that there is a marked trend toward "the growing acceptance by school authorities that they have some responsibility to the community beyond caring for the children during school hours." These findings might be used as the point of departure for a self-analysis in every community in the country, looking toward the continued development of recreation services as an important area of post-war living.

As the school identifies itself more and more with community life, it will project its activities beyond the confines of the school day and ally itself with a community program which serves young and old alike. The circumstances in which community life operates are so many and varied that no one method of organizing or administering a recreation program can possibly apply to them all. In some situations, most often in small towns and rural areas, the schools may be the only or the major public operating agency. Under these circumstances they might need to carry the chief responsibility for promoting and planning a community recreation program, and for furnishing the needed leadership for it. In localities where other agencies are already at work or are appointed to take the leadership in the recreational field, it may be the primary function of the schools to help in planning and to cooperate in carrying it on. With a coordinated

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plan of action, with adequate representation on the part of all agencies concerned, and with a sincere desire for community service, there is no need for any friction to develop.

There are almost as many different ways of organizing a school-community program as there are communities. The important thing is that school and community leaders shall see, first, the important place that recreation has in the school program; and second, the important place that the schools have in the recreation program. Having seen that, let them be sure to do something about it.

A Plan Suitable for Small Communities. As a part of the community-school educational concept mentioned in chapter IV, the recreational program could be planned under the direction of the community planning board made up of members of the various community organizations, such as the school district board, city council, churches, chamber of commerce, American legion, civic clubs and others with a committee providing the needed coordination of services to form a united cooperative educational-recreational program. The physical education director employed by the school system during the regular school term could be appointed jointly by the school district and other cooperating agencies on a year-round basis and be in immediate charge of the program.

If a new building is to be erected, it should be planned with rooms and facilities to accommodate the various community organizations. If the present plant is to be used, the facilities should be supplemented by additional equipment and make possible a well-equipped
gymnasium, swimming pool, a lighted athletic field and other essentials
needed to make possible such afternoon and evening activities as boy
scout and girl scout meetings, musical programs, lectures, rallies,
dinners, and such sports as soft ball, baseball, swimming, tennis,
badminton, archery and others. All facilities of the building
should be made available to the utmost to meet the educational and
recreational needs of all the citizens of the community. Teachers and
assistants could be employed as the need arises, some of them being
members of the regular teaching staff, and others, competent citizens
of the community, who have some special skill or knowledge to con-
tribute and an ability to work and play with children.

The program could be financed jointly by a special tax levy
by the school district and city together with donations from the
school student body, American legion, chamber of commerce, civic
clubs and others.

The Community-School Plant

Every indication points to a great volume of school plant
construction in the decade following. There are several reasons: a
considerable backlog of building because of the virtual standstill of
construction during the past few years; the enriched and extended
educational program of schools and colleges and the extended school
services of various kinds. School administrators and boards of
education are confronted, therefore, with a tremendous responsibility
for planning the new construction wisely. To avoid rapid obsolescence,
new buildings should be constructed not only with the present educational program in mind but also in terms of any future educational changes that can be anticipated.

**Changing Needs in Education.** A community that is looking forward to a school-building program should keep in mind certain factors in operation which will undoubtedly continue to influence educational programs. Among such factors are:

1. The increasing high-school enrollment due to compulsory education and child-labor legislation.

2. An increased emphasis in both the elementary and secondary schools on supplementing textbook education with various activities and enterprises, to provide more than mere academic education.

3. Greater attention to the education of the atypical child—the mentally, emotionally, and physically handicapped as well as the gifted child.

4. Increased emphasis on adult education and wider community use of school facilities.

5. More use of audio-visual aids in education.

6. Decentralization of urban population.

7. Certain changes which will result directly from the war itself, such as the emphasis of the armed services upon physical fitness; lessons learned from industry and the armed services in terms of vocational and technical training and the use of aviation.
Steps in Planning. Once a community has decided to study its school building needs, it should develop the planning step by step:

1. Choose the methods of study.
2. Survey the community needs and resources.
3. Determine the community's educational needs.
4. Develop or revise educational policies.
5. Determine the school housing needed.
6. Evaluate the existing school plant.
7. Develop a proposed school-building program.
8. Adopt the proposed plan.
9. Acquaint the community with the plan.
10. Execute the plan.
11. Appraise the results.

School Buildings Must be Flexible. Educational programs are dynamic, and pupils cannot be housed satisfactorily in static plants. Flexibility, which enables the school plant to maintain a high level of efficiency in spite of changes in educational aims and needs, is one of the most important items in the design of a school plant. It eliminates one of the chief plant problems— that of obsolescence resulting from evolution of techniques in education, and in construction, or fluctuations in enrollment due to population growth, population shifts, or other factors.

In order that the modern school plant may fulfill its functions, it must provide more land, floor space, natural and artificial light, color, acoustical treatment, built-in features, informal furniture,
instructional supplies, tools, books, pictures, films, and electrical equipment. We may also expect less architectural ornamentation, heavy masonry, fixed seating, blackboards, and waste space in basements and attics.

A functional school plant is tailored to accommodate groups of children and youth busily engaged in activities which build minds, bodies, and character. Functional needs must determine and precede the preparation of drawings. The plant, in a large measure conditions the educational program.

**Financing the School Plant.** It is evident, that matching on a set percentage basis, without regard to need or existing organization, is not satisfactory as a future method of financing building construction. We must use a combination of local effort and outside funds on some equalization basis. An equalization scheme properly conceived and administered can utilize the good features of the local taxation and matching methods and eliminate the objectionable features.

It is the current view that local communities should bear the responsibility of paying for the construction of needed school buildings according to their ability to pay. It should mean a reasonable increased tax rate for a reasonable number of years, say $5 per $1,000 for ten years, depending upon the existing tax rate and other factors. Among the factors to be considered in the measurements of the tax-paying ability of the local community might be actual property valuation per membership child, existing indebtedness, and existing tax rates on property for school and other purposes.
To the extent that local ability cannot meet the determined needs, outside aid should be available. The first source of outside aid should be the state government because education is a function of the state. Most states have shifted away from an exclusive reliance on real estate for the support of local and state governments by limiting taxes on real estate and collecting other types of taxes such as the sales tax and the income tax. Parts of the receipts of these taxes have been returned to the local school systems to assist in financing the operation of the educational function. We could very well shift part of the burden of financing new structures from local property to other more general kinds of taxation.

The ability of the various states to share in the cost of school buildings will vary widely. In some states little or no federal help will be needed. In other states the needs will be great and local and state abilities small. The federal government should supply aid only to the extent that combined local and state resources are insufficient. Possibly an equalization formula, as between states, can be included in federal legislation. Population, actual property valuations, incomes, and other factors should be used in deriving such a formula.

The acceptance by the states of the responsibility of receiving and dispensing federal aid for buildings imposes a responsibility on the states to put their educational houses in order. State departments will have to be strengthened by the inclusion of a competent, adequately staffed school plant division. State surveys will have to
be made to determine the needs, and the local and state ability to pay. State programs of educational improvement and a state plan for effective school district organization will have to be developed.

When public education, because of weak organization, cannot do a good job, then the government ought to be directed to the improvement of the educational organization. The school plant affords an excellent leverage for administrative reorganization.

**Financing the Educational Program**

The realization of plans for the improvement and expansion of an educational program depends in a large measure upon the financial ability possessed and the financial effort expended. During the year which ended June, 1940, the United States spent approximately $2,700,000,000 for public elementary, secondary, and higher education. About 87 per cent of this grand total was spent for public elementary and secondary education. To offer the educational program needed in this country would require a minimum expenditure of approximately 5 billion dollars a year for regular current expenses. An additional 5 billion dollars, at least, is needed for the repair of old, and the construction of new, school buildings.  

The relation of the cost of public education to financial ability, financial effort to support public education now exerted, and the prevailing systems of taxation, particularly in local and state governments, demand serious study and analysis.

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**Increasing Burden on Local Support.** Many new demands have been made upon education in recent years due to our change from an agricultural to an industrial economy. The complexity of our social life and social problems, the extension of the right of suffrage and the decline of certain social institutions have increased the burden upon education. Tremendous changes have been brought about in school enrollment due to the lengthening of the school term, increasing of the compulsory school age, the growth of knowledge and the enrichment of the curriculum to meet the needs of modern society.

The changes in modern educational needs, the increased school enrollment together with changes in the purchasing power of the dollar have caused great increases in the expenditures for education. The local districts and the general property tax upon which the district usually depends for support has had to meet this increased cost of education. The state support in most states has not increased sufficiently to meet the greatly increased expenditures.

This inequitable distribution in the tax burden arising from the retention of the general property tax can not be remedied by taxing local land or real property alone, because real property does not represent that proportion of the wealth of the country which it did previously and also real property does not provide a broad tax base to support the cost of education. The antiquated district organization which permits tax evasion colonies, has valuable property located in districts where there are relatively few children, and which permits other inequalities to exist is as much a handicap to local support as
the antiquated tax system.

Modern social and economic trends have warped the institutions which our forefathers set up to insure equality of educational opportunity and equality of school support. Although, the lack of interest and political attitudes of the people, constitutional restrictions, practical administrative difficulties and the lack of suitable substitutes, have prevented many tax reforms.¹

Inequalities. The inequalities of educational opportunity have been revealed in nearly all state school surveys in recent years according to Langfitt.² The New Jersey survey states that the expenditure per weighted elementary school pupil ranged from less than $50 to over $200. The Maine survey states that the expenditure per weighted elementary pupil was found to range from $27 to $90.³ A more recent school survey, the National Survey of School Finance showed that the minimum amount spent per pupil in some states was higher than the maximum amount spent in other states.⁴

Adequate Financial Support Requires State Support. Education in the United States has been well established as a function of the states,

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²Ibid., p. 528.
³Ibid., p. 528.
but the fact that the state should, therefore, provide adequate financial support to guarantee a minimum program of education for all the children has not been well established.

An adequate state school fund based on an equitable tax system must be created if the state is to guarantee a minimum program of education. The size of this fund will have to be determined by the amount required in any given year to finance a definite program, and should be a variable and not a fixed amount.

Mort's study on the measurement of educational need provided the techniques for the equalization principle and have been used by many states.

The Mort technique\(^1\) consists of the following steps: (1) a definition of the minimum foundation program to be equalized; (2) the measurement of the local district need; (3) the measurement of the district’s ability to pay for the program; (4) the determination of the local contribution to the cost of the minimum program.

Public Relations Program

The techniques used in establishing good public relations differ from those required in public information alone. Facts and figures are important in the interpretation of the function of education, but their most effective use is in the clarification of questions raised concerning what is already being done or what needs to be done. Public information provides the data, public relations interprets them. Not only must the needs of the schools be presented adequately and forcibly,

\(^1\)Mort, P. R., The Measurement of Educational Need, A Basis for Distributing State Aid, Contribution to Education, New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, No. 150, 1924, pp. 6-14.
but the requirements of the community must be defined clearly. Many times proposals are advanced which suggest that the school is something apart from the community which supports it. Provision must be made for public evaluation of the program maintained by the board of education and the school staff. The more intelligent and comprehensive this appraisal, the greater is the likelihood that the program will be effective.

**Objectives Should be Clearly Defined.** Even though no formal statement of purposes has been formulated, the procedures under which a school operates come from an educational philosophy acceptable to the board of education and the community at large. The values deemed important within the school are usually a reflection of the homes from which the children come.

If the needs and aspirations of the schools are to be put before the public, a statement of objectives are necessary. This is not a job for the schools alone. Decisions such as the range of the educational program, the amount the community can afford to pay, the individual needs of the children, adults and others are matters that require the combined efforts of the most intelligent persons in the community. It is important that through cooperative effort, on the part of all the leaders they attempt to identify the educational needs of their community and to provide for them.

**An Informed Public.** As indicated above, intelligent appraisal and support of the school program can result only if the public is correctly informed. Parents are frequently confused in their thinking
regarding the modern school because it differs so markedly from the institution in which they received their educations.

Plans to be set up for the enlightenment of communities will differ according to need. Each superintendent must determine the amount of correct knowledge possessed by the public and go on from there. He must utilize the best methods at his command which will best serve his needs. The program will vary widely depending on the size of the community and many other factors. Some plan must be devised, however, which will accomplish effectively the dissemination of information to the people.

Two types of planning are necessary: long-term, which will present the development of the school program over a number of years; short-term, which deals with the immediate and pressing needs.

**Interpretation of the Program.** Facts and figures alone will fail to accomplish the results desired. A correctly interpreted, cold and impersonal data can show how adequately the present program is meeting increased demands on the schools.

Interpreting a program of education is not to be thought of as selling it to the public. The plan of interpretation should be flexible enough to offer a variety of approaches to the problem. A knowledge of human nature is of great value to the superintendent. Some persons can be reached through their minds and others through their emotions. Cost and unit analysis will have special significance to particular persons. To others, the story should be told in terms
of activities in which their children have a part. Most parents view the schools through the eyes of their boys and girls. If they are happy, the schools are good; if unhappy, no amount of talking will convince the parents that the schools are worth what they cost.

The program should be continuous. Sporadic surges of effort at particular times of the year in order to have a budget approved, to elect a certain trustee, or to float a bond issue will fail to accomplish the end desired. An endeavor to reach all of the people should be made.

Entire Staff as Publicity Agents. Efforts to establish good public relations will not be successful if the program is set up so that a few persons are asked to do all the work. Public relations are essential human relations. Each school employee has a duty to perform. Good will toward the school is the result of many tasks well done, the result of conscious effort toward a common goal. The teacher, as she works with pupils and parents, can make many friends for the school. Custodians, clerks, secretaries—all those who have contact with the public, must understand that much depends on the courtesy, tact, and diplomacy exercised in the performance of their duties.

The Community-Centered School. Boards of education recognize their responsibilities toward young people between the ages of six and eighteen and provide certain educational opportunities for the majority of this group, but it is only now and then that the community as a whole derives even moderate returns from its investment in its
school plant.

The schools belong to the people. The board of education acts only as trustees for them. Good public relations will include ample opportunity for the use of gymnasiums, auditoriums, cafeterias, classrooms and playgrounds by community groups. In planning new buildings, care will be taken that building arrangements and special rooms meet community requirements.

The broad program of the community school goes further than just to open the buildings outside regular hours. It reflects an education and social philosophy which views education as a basic element in all community life. It performs its function in relation to the needs of children who require a nursery school, of youth who should have supervised recreation, of adults who can profit from evening study, forums, relaxation, and the pursuit of hobbies. In such a school good public relations merge with good public service.
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