

The Century Education Series

PROGRESSIVE TRENDS
IN
RURAL EDUCATION

AN INTERPRETATIVE DISCUSSION OF SOME
OF THE BEST TENDENCIES IN
RURAL EDUCATION

BY

A. D. MUELLER

PROFESSOR OF PSYCHOLOGY AND EDUCATION, MASSACHUSETTS
STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, WORCESTER, MASSACHUSETTS



D. APPLETON-CENTURY COMPANY
INCORPORATED

New York

London

PROGRESSIVE TRENDS
IN
RURAL EDUCATION

Copyright, 1926, by
THE CENTURY CO.

3105

PRINTED IN U. S. A.

To
M. H. M.

PREFACE

Some years ago when the author was a graduate student of Education at Yale University, he undertook a study of some of the best present tendencies in rural education. Stimulated by this initial research, a native interest in the field of rural education, due to years of intimate contact as pupil, teacher, and superintendent, was quickened. The result was that a more extended investigation was later undertaken and the work was expanded into this volume.

The scope and spirit of the volume can well be summarized in the words of Dr. Burnham in his presidential address to the department of Rural Education. He said, "Public inertia is the chief obstacle in rural education. Social control is slowly but surely changing this characteristic from rest or slow advance into accelerating progress. Eight million country children, from their location of national educational advantages, escaping that inertia which has caught and held back many, hail with delight a new day. In this new day more money, better organization, truer technique, a worthier personnel, and the invincible force of social control which unites all these resources for maximum service is saving for them their richest American birthright, the wealth of a free and an adequate education."

This volume aims to present some of the most out-

standing advances that have been made in rural education in recent years, together with an interpretive discussion of the facts and principles that must determine progress in this field of education. While considerable emphasis is laid upon the reorganization of the rural school system, particularly along the lines of consolidation, yet the practical rural situation as it actually exists in the majority of states today, as shown by the map in Figure 7, is constantly borne in mind. I refer to the one-room school situation. There are in the United States today, approximately, 168,000 one-room rural schools. Our ultimate aim is to reduce this number to the lowest practical minimum, but our immediate aim, until this can be done, must be to better the present situation in these schools. Improvement of these conditions has been my main purpose throughout this book. The various factors at present operating against the efficiency of the rural school are analyzed and each is given separate treatment in a chapter by itself.

In order to make the volume more valuable for those who may wish to use it as a basis for discussion at group teachers' meetings or as a textbook in teacher-training classes, a list of questions and topics for discussion, and a few topics for special investigation, are given at the close of each chapter.

Grateful acknowledgment is made to the many State Superintendents, Commissioners of Education, State Inspectors and Supervisors, Department Heads and Professors, and others for their generous response to the writer's request for material and information bearing on particular phases of the problem under in-

vestigation. Specific acknowledgment is made to individuals throughout the text, wherever it was possible to do so.

Acknowledgment for permission to use materials from their works is also made to Houghton Mifflin Company, The World Book Company, and the Journal of Rural Education.

I wish to take this opportunity to pay a debt of gratitude to Dean F. E. Spaulding of Yale for reading the manuscript and for the help and encouragement given the writer in this and other problems in the field of education.

Finally, I wish to express my deepest gratitude to my wife, Marie S. Mueller, for her encouragement and kindly criticism throughout the work, and for reading and typing the manuscript, assisting in reading the proof, etc.

A. D. MUELLER.

Worcester, Massachusetts.

INTRODUCTION

Democracy and education go hand in hand. Without education democracy cannot exist, for it is dependent upon an enlightened people for its proper functioning and continuance. Democracy implies equality—equality in matters social, political, and industrial. The phrase “equality of opportunity” describes well the ideal of democracy in relation to its people. The advantages, rewards, and honors, which it offers to one of its constituents must not be withheld from another. Failure to attain these rewards must be due, not to limitations set by democracy but rather to limitations inherent in the individual. Thus, if democracy offers a free education of a certain type to some of its members, it must do so to all, or else it ceases to be democracy. Such has very nearly been the case in regard to rural education.

The educational opportunities of rural children have been but a fraction of those enjoyed by urban children. In organization and administration of schools; in supervision of instruction; in length of school term; in the quality of teaching; in the type of school and equipment enjoyed; in matters of health and sanitation; in the type of curriculum offered; in the amount of money expended per capita; in high school opportunities offered; in fact, in every factor bearing upon the efficiency of education, the rural child has been “short changed” by democracy. By “the rural child”

is meant approximately eleven million children, or about half of the children enrolled in the public schools of the United States.

But, why is democracy to be blamed for these inequalities in educational opportunity? Has she withheld these opportunities from some of her children consciously, while freely offering them to others? That the opportunities have not been equal for rural and urban children is true beyond a doubt, but that they have been consciously withheld would not be maintained by any one. It has been rather a question of public inertia that has caused nearly half of the children of the United States to lose at least a good share of their American birthright, a good public school education. Nor is this inactivity to be laid entirely at the door of the rural citizen. Too often he has not been enlightened as to what to aim for and how to proceed to make improvements. Then again, rural sections have often been exploited by the city in that the taxable property was made to fall within the boundaries of the city, and thus contribute to its treasury at the expense of the rural treasury. Moreover, the concentration of business and wealth—which was created to a large extent by the rural sections—in the city produced financial inequality between city and country. With the foundation unequal it is inevitable that the superstructure be unequal. In education this superstructure includes all the factors enumerated above.

The so-called “rural school problem” was brought about by the industrial revolution. Before people began to congregate in cities all schools were more or

less alike. But, with the growth of cities and the decline of the rural population new factors in education made themselves manifest. The cities progressed, and in so doing demanded progress in their schools also. The country either actually declined, or remained at a standstill in all matters, including the school. In many rural sections, the away-from-the-farm movement has caused great alarm. In general this decline of the rural population, and the increase in tenantry constitutes what we call the rural problem. There are numerous factors entering into this problem and the rural school is not an insignificant one of these.

Stated in general terms, the rural school problem is one of providing as adequate instruction, in both the elementary and high school subjects, for rural children as we now provide for urban children. This, of course, implies providing just as good a school environment, just as well qualified a teacher, just as good supervision of instruction, the same medical care, and the same provision for play and physical development for the country child as we now offer to the city child. This is by no means a small problem. Various attempts, and in many instances very successful attempts, at solving certain parts of the problem have been made in different parts of the country. In others the problem as a whole has been attacked and a complete reorganization of the schools has been brought about.

Each chapter in this book may be considered as a separate aspect of the rural school problem, or at least as a factor in the ultimate solution of that problem.

CONTENTS

	PAGE
CHAPTER I THE LARGER UNIT OF ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION	3

The district system—outlived its usefulness—objections to small unit—other objections to the small unit—what can be done to remedy the situation?—the township—the county unit—the strong county unit form—the weak county unit form—feeble beginnings in county unit organization—what are the advantages of the county unit?—economics resulting from the county unit—does the county unit mean the abolition of the old district?—are these fears real?—patrons' participation in the management of larger district—the county unit in Montana (weak form)—what has the county unit accomplished in Montana?—the county unit in Maryland (strong form)—danger of over-centralization—recommendations based on state surveys—the Kentucky Survey—the Virginia Survey—New York State Survey—conclusions regarding the larger unit—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—selected references

CHAPTER II THE LARGER UNIT (CONTINUED)	30
--	----

The community unit—the community unit idea not new—what is a neighborhood or a rural primary group?—what are the factors creating a neighborhood and holding it together?—significance of these facts for rural organization—relation of primary group—lines to other lines—“sufficient volume of business”—importance of the village—what about the unorganized territory?—inter-community organization necessary—community unit and high school development—Illinois community high schools—the consolidated school district an example of the community unit—the community unit in Washington—the New York State Survey and the community unit—rec-

	PAGE
ommendations of joint committee of rural schools of New York—advantages of the community unit—community unit versus county unit—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references	
CHAPTER III CONSOLIDATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS	48
Meaning of consolidation—types of consolidation—early beginnings in consolidation—fields for consolidation—transportation of pupils—transportations must be logically planned—open country versus village consolidation—size of consolidated district—cost of the consolidated school—the consolidation program of Weld County, Colorado—buildings—transportation—teachers—enrollment and attendance—courses of study—consolidation in Randolph County, Indiana—educational conditions—buildings and grounds—community activities—high schools—transportation—advantages of consolidation—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references	
CHAPTER IV SUPERVISION OF RURAL SCHOOLS	78
What is rural school supervision?—administrative supervision—instructional supervision—qualifications of supervisors—the supervisory unit—supervisory plans—Connecticut—New Jersey—Wisconsin—qualifications of supervising teachers—work of supervising teachers—supervision in consolidated districts—Utah and Maryland—supervisory methods in Baltimore County—difficulties of supervision—what are the values of supervision?—questions and topics for discussion—special topics for investigation and report—references	
CHAPTER V THE RURAL SCHOOL TEACHER	98
Importance of education in social development—the rural teacher situation in the United States—Pennsylvania—New York—Nebraska—conditions in the South—need for supervision—what happens to the output of professional schools—normal schools criticized for neglecting rural service—what can the normal schools do	

to render more efficient rural school service?—the place of the high school training course—what qualifications and training should the rural teacher have?—rural teacher training in Michigan—the Iowa Plan of Observation and Practice Teaching—questions and topics for discussion—topics for investigation and report—references

CHAPTER VI THE RURAL SCHOOL CURRICULUM 123

Increasing complexity of the curriculum—rural schools last to make curriculum changes—relative importance of subjects now being taught in rural elementary schools—aim of the rural elementary school—the importance of the various subjects in meeting the aim of the rural school—arithmetic—reading—language and composition—geography, history, and civics—elementary science—the practical arts—the fine arts—possible reorganization of the curriculum to meet the aim of the rural elementary school—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references

CHAPTER VII TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS IN RURAL SCHOOLS 141

Present status—remedy for this situation—purpose of this chapter—mental tests, also called intelligence tests—kinds of mental tests—the group test—interpreting the results of group tests—uses and values of mental tests—standard educational tests, or achievement tests—what makes a test a standard test?—in which subjects are standardized tests available?—is a knowledge of statistical methods necessary in giving and scoring standard tests?—recording the results of tests—advantages of individual graph—the values of standard tests—using standard tests in supervision—can teachers be trusted to do their own testing?—a testing program in Wisconsin—how standard tests are used in Winchester County, New Hampshire—the situation—method of attack—the results—surveying rural schools by means of standard tests—purposes of the Black Hawk County Survey—procedure followed—material used—conclusions of this survey—conclusion—questions and topics for discussion—special topics for investigation and report—references

	PAGE
CHAPTER VIII ORGANIZATION OF THE ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL .	179
<p>A perplexing problem—methods of solution—grade grouping—alternation of grades—alternation of subjects—correlation of subject matter—putting principles into practice—a balanced schedule for the one-teacher school—individual instruction and directed study—value of group instruction—organization for directed study and individual instruction—advantages of directed study—silent reading and supervised study—conclusion—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references</p>	
CHAPTER IX THE HEALTH OF RURAL SCHOOL CHILDREN . .	195
<p>The health of rural children, present status—some causes of these defects—conditions in New York State—how can these physical conditions be improved?—what should a health program include?—applying remedial measures—the North Carolina Plan—preventive measures—an effective rural school health service—other examples of rural health service—summary of recommendations—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references</p>	
CHAPTER X MODEL RURAL SCHOOLS	217
<p>Need for modern rural school—not all one-teacher schools are bad—changing conceptions of education bring new needs—demonstration rural school, North Dakota State Normal and Industrial School—the building—basement—floor plan—cost—model school at Kirksville, Missouri—rural model schools in Connecticut—the “group center schools” of Durham County, North Carolina—demonstration teaching in Maine—a bright day ahead for the rural school—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references</p>	
CHAPTER XI STANDARDIZATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS . . .	234
<p>The problem stated—consolidation not always possible—other obstacles to consolidation—what is standardiza-</p>	

tion?—purpose of standardization—incentives for standard schools—rating rural schools—standardization in Illinois—what standardization does for the rural school—values of standardization—conclusion—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references

CHAPTER XII THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN RURAL COMMUNITIES 247

What is the junior high school?—old organization not satisfactory—junior high schools in rural communities—the question of territory—caution for rural junior high schools—what is being done—rural junior high schools in Vermont—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references

CHAPTER XIII THE TEACHER'S HOME 260

Need for the teacher's home—brief history and present status of the teacher's home—in foreign countries—advantages of having a teacher's home—objections to the teacher's home—methods of securing the teacher's home—plans, location, and equipment—conclusion—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references

CHAPTER XIV THE HOT LUNCH IN RURAL SCHOOLS 273

Under-nutrition of school children—causes of under-nutrition—results of under-nourishment—food that children must have—problems in preparing children's lunches—extent of the movement—how to introduce the hot lunch into rural schools—how to start the hot lunch—what to serve—division of work—serving the lunch—advantages of the hot lunch—how I solved the noon lunch problem in my rural school—the hot lunch in Nebraska—duties of club members—standard club requirements—second year club—hot lunch without club—conclusion—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references

	PAGE
CHAPTER XV PLAY AND PLAYGROUND EQUIPMENT	293
<p>Importance of play—old and new notion of play—early conditions did not require so much play—rural school playground facilities—playground equipment and apparatus—kinds of apparatus and equipment for rural schools—care of apparatus and equipment—what constitutes a good game—games for rural schools—thirty selected games—questions and topics for discussion—topics for special investigation and report—references</p>	
CHAPTER XVI THE RURAL COMMUNITY CENTER	313
<p>Definition, aim, and scope of the community center—community center idea essential to democracy—early self-governing communities—the meeting place—the school the community center—the one-room school as a community center—activities of the community center—organization of the community center—financial support—examples of community center work—report of community center activities at Synarep, Washington, 1920-1921—the consolidated school as a community center—community activities—conclusion—questions and topics for discussion—special topics for investigation and report—references</p>	
CHAPTER XVII BOYS' AND GIRLS' CLUBS	334
<p>Meaning and purposes of boys' and girls' clubs—early beginnings of club work—club work and the school—principles of organization—county organization—how to organize a club—advantages to be derived from club-work—noteworthy examples of boys' and girls' clubs—conclusion—questions and topics for discussion—special topics for investigation and report—references—appendices</p>	
APPENDIX	351
INDEX	359

FIGURES

FIGURE	PAGE
1 Showing the evolution of the district system in Massachusetts	4
2 School tax rates in Isabella County	6
3 Extremes of valuation per child in eight counties of Montana	7
4 Map showing the tendency to the larger unit of school administration and support	10
5 Final boundaries of primary groups in West Dane County, Wisconsin	32
6 The natural community unit	36
7 Distribution, by states, of one-room schools in the United States	53
8 The location of the consolidated schools of Colorado . .	63
9 Randolph County, Indiana, showing progress of consolidation	68
10 Individual pupil graph	155
11 Individual pupil graph, showing accomplishment of retarded pupil	157
12 Individual pupil graph, showing accomplishment of accelerated pupil	159
13 How the median in reading is being raised	164
14 Sample of individual record data the same as in Table 10 .	167
15 Graph showing scores of 62 normal seventh-grade pupils	169
16 Proportion that glass area is of floor space in one- and two-teacher schools	202
17 Window placement in one- and two-teacher schools . . .	203
18 Types of heating apparatus in one- and two-teacher schools	204
19 Percentage of one- and two-teacher schools having proper adjustment of seats, desks, and distance between seats and desks	205

FIGURE	PAGE
20 Kinds of toilets in one- and two-teacher schools	206
21 Demonstration rural school, State Normal and Industrial School, Ellendale, North Dakota	223
22 Demonstration rural school, State Normal and Industrial School, Ellendale, North Dakota	224
23 Floor plans of a model one-room rural school	227
24 Five-acre playing field as suggested by the Bureau of Edu- cation	300
Classroom Weight Record	351

TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
1 Factors creating and holding the group together	33
2 Tax levy in mills for school purposes	62
3 Rural teacher situation in New York	102
4 Professional training of teachers in small and large schools	103
5 Teacher experience and tenure in small and larger schools .	103
6 The evolution of our elementary school curriculum and of methods of teaching	123
7 Subjects of the rural elementary school curriculum	124
8 Classification of types of problems in arithmetic	130
9 Distribution of population in various occupational activities	130
10 Record of L. D.	168
11 Subjects and grades represented in each subject, state course of study for Wisconsin	180
12 Distribution of combinations in twenty-six state "model" programs	182
13 Combinations most frequently made	184
14 Proposed balanced schedule of class periods for one-teacher schools with eight grades represented	186
15 Daily program for individual instruction and directed study	189
16 Showing the percentage of defects found in the school children of seven counties of Virginia	198
17 Showing the percentage of non-city school buildings re- ceiving various ratings for different characteristics	199
18 Showing the percentage of one-room school buildings re- ceiving various ratings for different characteristics	200
19 Hot lunch situation in United States in 1921	277
20 Summary of club projects	343

SELECTED REFERENCES

Books

- Andress, J. Mace . Health Education in Rural Schools. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1919.
- Arp, J. B. . . Rural Education and the Consolidated School. New York. World Book Company. 1918.
- Averill, L. A. . Psychology for Normal Schools. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1921.
- Bancroft, Jessie . Games for the Playground, Home, School, and Gymnasium. New York. The Macmillan Company.
- Bennett, G. V. . The Junior High School. Baltimore. Warwick and York. 1919.
- Betts, G. H.
and
Hall, O. E. . . Better Rural Schools. Indianapolis. Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1914.
- Bonser, F. G. . The Elementary School Curriculum. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1920.
- Briggs, T. H. . The Junior High School. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1920.
- Brim, O. G. . . Rural Education. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1923.
- Brooks, S. S. . Improving Schools by Standardized Tests. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1922.
- Carney, Mabel . Country Life and the Country School.

- New York. Row, Peterson, and Company. 1912.
- Charters, W. W. Teaching the Common Branches. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1913.
- Collings, E. . . . An Experiment with the Project Curriculum. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1923.
- Cubberley, E. P. Public Education in the United States. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1919.
- Cubberley, E. P. Public School Administration. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1916.
- Cubberley, E. P. Rural Life and Education. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1922.
- Cubberley, E. P.
and
Elliot, E. C. . . . State and County School Administration: Source Book. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1915.
- Curtis, H. S. . . . Play and Recreation. Boston. Ginn and Company. 1914.
- Dewey, Evelyn . . . New Schools for Old. New York. E. P. Dutton and Company. 1915.
- Dewey, John and
Evelyn . . . Schools of Tomorrow. New York. E. P. Dutton and Company. 1915.
- Dickson, V. E. . . . Mental Tests and the Classroom Teacher. New York. World Book Company. 1923.
- Dresslar, F. B. . . . School Hygiene. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1913.
- Foght, H. W. . . . The American Rural School. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1910.
- Foght, H. W. . . . The Rural Teacher and His Work. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1918.

- Gillette, J. M. . Constructive Rural Sociology. New York.
The Macmillan Company. (Revised
1922.)
- Gilliland, A. R.
and
Jordan, R. H. . Educational Measurements and the Class-
room Teacher. New York. The Cen-
tury Co. 1924.
- Hall-Quest, Alfred Supervised Study in the Elementary
School. New York. The Macmillan
Company. 1924.
- Hanifan, L. J. . The Community Center. Boston. Sil-
ver, Burdett and Company. 1920.
- Hines, H. A. . A Guide to Educational Measurements.
Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company.
1923.
- Kern, O. J. . . Among Country Schools. Boston. Ginn
and Company. 1906.
- Koos, L. V. . . The Junior High School. New York.
Harcourt, Brace, and Company. 1920.
- Lee, Joseph . . Play in Education. New York. The
Macmillan Company. 1915.
- Meriam, J. L. . Child Life and the Curriculum. New
York. World Book Company. 1917.
- Monroe, W. S.,
De Voss, J. C.
and
Kelly, R. J. . . Educational Tests and Measurements.
Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company.
1924.
- Norsworthy, N.
and
Whitley, M. T. . Psychology of Childhood. New York.
The Macmillan Company. 1918.

- Pittman, M. S. . Successful Teaching in Rural Schools. New York. American Book Company. 1922.
- Pittman, M. S. . The Value of School Supervision. Baltimore. Warwick and York. 1921.
- Quick, Herbert . The Brown Mouse. Indianapolis. Bobbs-Merrill Company. 1915.
- Rapeer, L. W. . Educational Hygiene. New York. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1915.
- Rapeer, L. W.
and others . The Consolidated Rural School. New York. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1920.
- Showalter, N. D. Handbook for Rural School Officers. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1920.
- Terman, L. M. . The Hygiene of the School Child. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1914.
- Terman, L. M. . The Intelligence of School Children. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1919.
- Terman, L. M. . The Measurement of Intelligence. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1916.
- Vogt, P. L. . Introduction to Rural Sociology. New York. D. Appleton and Company. 1917.
- Wilkinson, W. A. Rural School Management. Boston. Silver, Burdett and Company. 1917.
- Wilson, G. M.
and
Hoke, K. J. . How to Measure. New York. The Macmillan Company. 1922.
- Woofter, T. J. . Teaching in Rural Schools. Boston. Houghton Mifflin Company. 1917.

Bulletins, Pamphlets, etc.

- Abel, J. F. . . . Consolidation of Schools and Transportation of Pupils. U. S. Bur. of Ed. Bull. No. 41, 1923.
- Blair, F. G. . . . Consolidated Schools of Illinois. Cir. No. 152, 1921.
- Blair, F. G. . . . Programs and Suggestions for Rural Schools and Community Meetings. Cir. No. 111, Dept. of Ed. Ill.
- Blair, F. G.,
Hoffman, U. J.
and
Booth, W. S. . . . Standard Elementary Schools of Illinois. Cir. No. 144, 1920.
- Brokaw, W. H. . . . Hot Lunch Demonstration. University of Nebraska Extension Bulletin.
- Brown, George, A. Iowa's Consolidated Schools. Dept. of Pub. Inst. Des Moines, Iowa. 1922.
- Burnham, E. . . . Rural Teacher Preparation in State Normal Schools. U. S. Bur. of Ed. Bull. No. 27, 1918.
- Butterworth, J. E. Improving the School Building Facilities of One- and Two-Teacher Districts Through Measurement. Cornell Extension Bulletin No. 52, 1922.
- Combellick, O. E.
and
Marsh, Florence. Demonstration Rural School. Bull. No. 1, Vol. 14. N. D. State Normal and Indust. School, Ellendale, N. D.
- Cook, Katherine
M. U. S. Bur. of Ed. Bull. No. 10, 1922.
Sup. of R. Schools.

- Cram, Fred D. . . Surveying Rural Schools. Bulletin of Iowa State Teachers' College. 1922.
- Ford, G. M. . . . Requirements and Regulations for Standard One-Teacher Schools. State Dept. of Ed. Bull. W. Va.
- Francis, May E. Regulations for Standardizing the Rural Schools. Dept. of Public Inst. Bull. State of Iowa.
- Hale, Florence M. The Noon Hour and the Noon Luncheon. Dept. of Ed. State of Maine. 1922.
- Hayes, A. W. . . Rural Community Organization. University of Chicago Press. 1922.
- Hillegas, Milo B. Junior High Schools in Small Communities. Teachers' College Record. Sept. 1918.
- Hines, L. N. . . The School as the Center of Community Life. Dept. of Ed. Ind.
- Hines, L. N. . . Supervised Home Project and Club Work. Ed. Bull. No. 41. State Dept. of Ed. Ind.
- Hoffman, V. J. . . Organization of a One-Teacher School in Ill. Dept. of Ed. Ill.
- Hunt, Caroline L.
and
- Langworthy, C. F. School Lunches. Farmers' Bull. No. 712. U. S. Department of Agriculture.
- Jackson, H. E. . . A Community Center. U. S. Bur. of Ed. Bull. No. 11, 1918.
- Kentucky . . . Public Education in Kentucky. New York, General Education Board. 1921.
- Kolb, J. H. . . Rural Primary Groups. Research Bull. No. 51, 1921. Agricultural Extension Station. U. of Wis.
- Lindeman, E. C. Boys' and Girls' Clubs. Bull. No. 26,

1919. Dept. of Ed. State of Mich.
Maryland . . . Maryland School Bulletin, 102. 1923.
Does the Helping Teacher Really Help
the Rural Schools?
- Maryland** . . . Baltimore County Course of Study. Bal-
timore. Warwick and York. 1919.
- Massachusetts** . . . Massachusetts Department of Education.
Junior High School Manual. Bull. No.
5, 1921.
- Minnesota** . . . University of Minnesota. Ex. Div. Bull.
Warm Lunches for Rural Schools.
- Moore, E.** . . . Rural School Health Survey. Mo. Tubercu-
losis Association. St. Louis. 1922.
- Muerman, J. C.** . . . The District Owned or Controlled Teach-
er's Home. U. S. Bur. of Ed. Bull.
No. 16, 1922.
- Nason, W. C.** . . . Plans of Rural Community Buildings.
Farmers' Bull. No. 1173. 1921.
- Nason, W. C.** . . . Rural Community Buildings in the U. S.
Farmers' Bull. No. 825. 1919. U. S.
Dept. of Agriculture.
- Newbury, Maud C.** . . . Supervision of One-Teacher Schools. U.
S. Bur. of Ed. Bull. No. 9, 1923.
- New York** . . . Rural School Survey of N. Y. State.
Joint Committee on Rural Schools. G.
A Works, Chairman. Ithaca, New
York. 1922.
- Reinoehl, C. M.** . . . Analytic Survey of State Courses of
Study for Rural El. Schools. U. S.
Bur. of Ed. Bull. No. 42, 1922.
- Sargent, C. G.** . . . Consolidated Schools of the Mountains,
Valleys, and Plains of Colorado. Bull.

No. 5, 1921. Colorado Agricultural College.

Van Denburg, J.

K. The Junior High School in Smaller Centers. Educational Review, Feb. 1924.

Vermont . . . Rural Schools of Vermont and Their Improvement. State Board of Ed. Bull. No. 2, 1922.

Virginia . . . Virginia Public Schools. Two Volumes. New York. World Book Company. 1921.

**PROGRESSIVE TRENDS IN RURAL
EDUCATION**

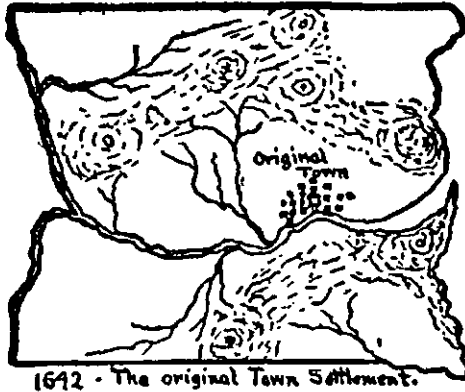
PROGRESSIVE TRENDS IN RURAL EDUCATION

CHAPTER I

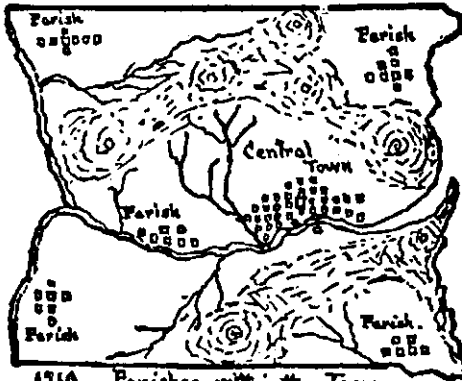
THE LARGER UNIT OF ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

The District System.—To the student of the history of education in the United States certain definite trends toward an increase in the size of the unit for maintenance and administration of schools are clearly evident. From its early beginnings in Massachusetts, where it originated as a subdivision of the town (See Figure 1), and was legally adopted in New England at about the close of the Revolutionary War, the district system spread westward and established itself in nearly all parts of the United States. The district system admirably fulfilled the purpose which called it into existence in early pioneer days. Indeed, it would be very difficult to conceive of any other system which could better have provided education for all under pioneer conditions.

Outlived Its Usefulness.—At present the district system has chiefly outlived its usefulness. More than that, it is largely responsible for much of the ineffective and inefficient schooling to be found in most of



1642 - The original Town Settlement.



1716. Parishes within the Town



1760 - Town divided into School Districts.

FIGURE 1

SHOWING THE EVOLUTION OF THE
DISTRICT SYSTEM IN MASSA-
CHUSETTS

(From Cubberley, *Public Education
in the United States*, Houghton Mifflin
Company)

the rural sections today. The democratic principle which was the mother of the system is today being outraged by its progeny. We glibly speak of "equality of educational opportunity" and in the same breath laud the district system because it is so "democratic."

Objection to Small Unit.—What democracy or equality of educational opportunity is there in a system which will make it possible for one rural school district to raise \$202.83 per pupil on a 4 mill tax levy, while another rural school district in the same county can raise only \$113.00 per pupil on a 6 mill tax levy, and a third can raise \$369.03 per pupil on a 7 mill levy, as is the case in one of the counties in Washington! ¹

Nor is this inequality of taxation limited to the newer Western states operating chiefly under the district system, for we find equally great inequalities in the State of Michigan. Consider the difference between district No. 1 fractional (Figure 2) and district No. 3 fractional in Nottawa Township; the former pays twenty-seven times the tax rate of the latter.

Curves A and B show graphically the difference in tax rate of the sixteen lowest districts and the sixteen highest districts of Isabella County, Michigan.

It is safe to say that similar variations can be shown to exist between districts in all states operating under the district system.

Great variations in inter-district per capita valuations also exist where the district system is still in vogue. What democracy or equality in education is there where we find, as we do in Montana, that the valuation behind each child in some districts is \$179.00

¹ Stone, *Journal of Rural Education*, Vol. 2.

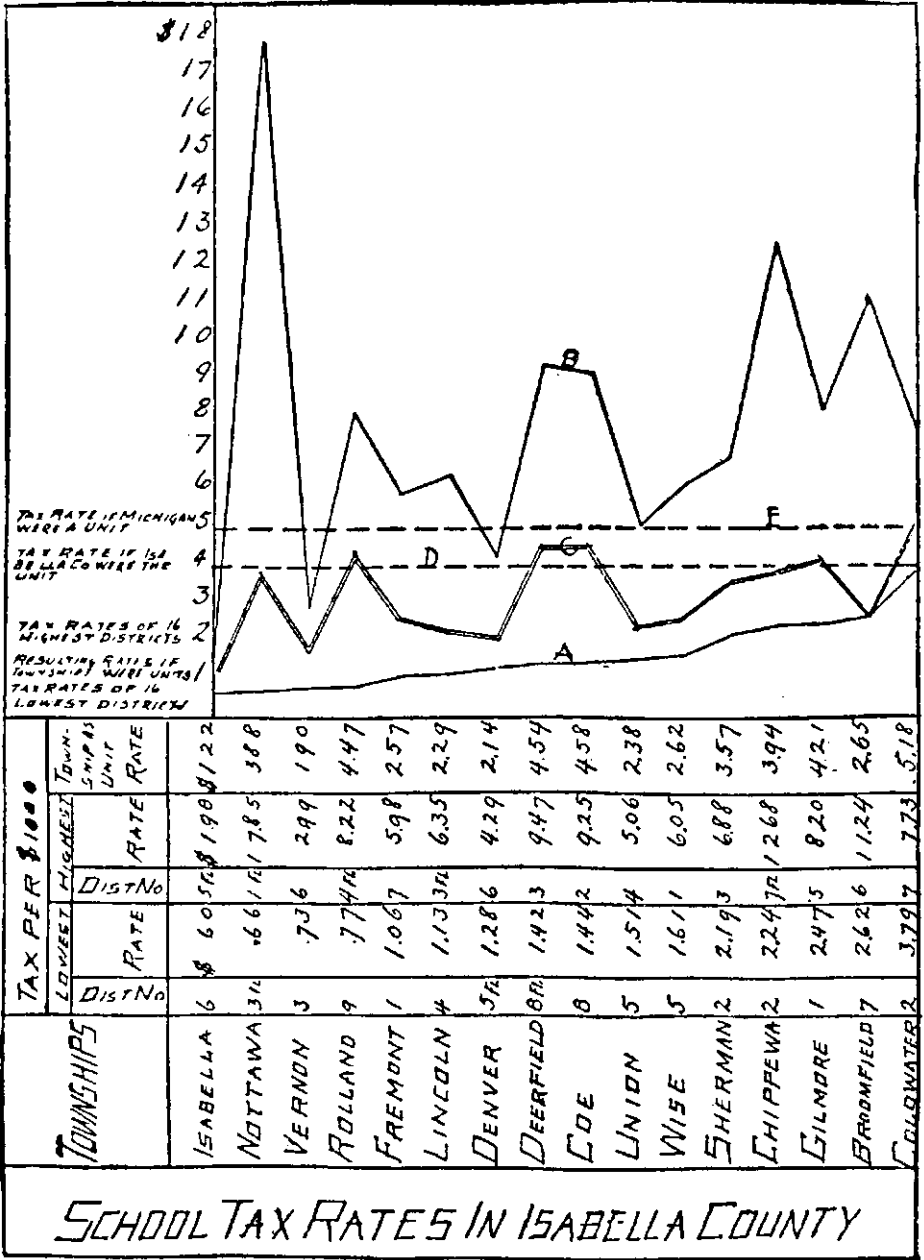


FIGURE 2

(After Coffey and Munson, *Rural Education in Michigan*)

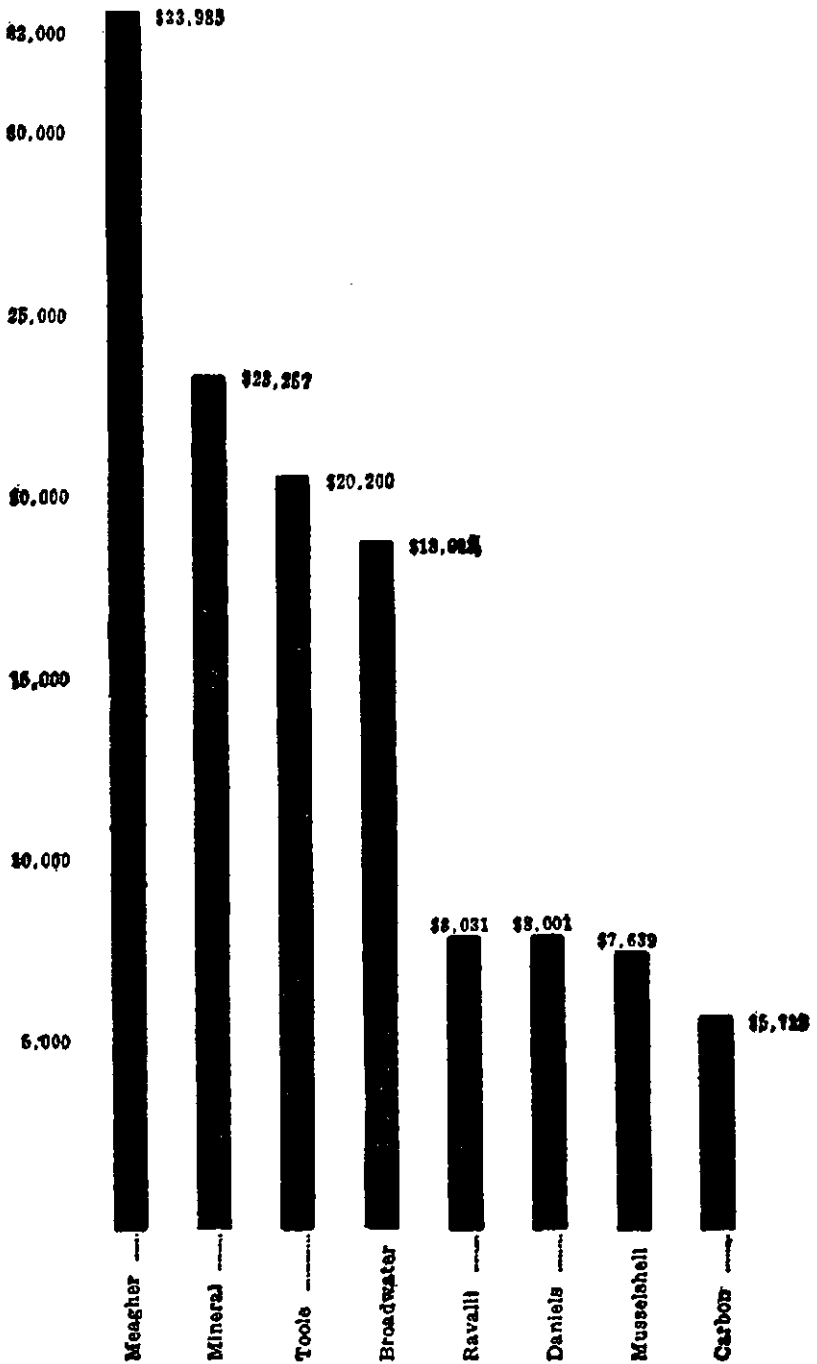


FIGURE 3

EXTREMES OF VALUATION PER CHILD IN EIGHT COUNTIES OF MONTANA

(Seventeenth biennial report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction)

and in others \$90,000.00? Or in Michigan, where the township system is partly in use, where we find township valuations varying from \$600 to \$14,000; or in Indiana, where the township system is in vogue, where the tax rate in townships of the same county varies from \$.20 to \$1.25 on \$100.00, and the taxable property behind each child varies from \$2500.00 to \$20,000.00; or in any state using a unit of taxation which is so small as to make it impossible to collect the tax where the taxable property is and to distribute it to where the children are? Some districts are fortunate to have within their boundaries, railroads, telegraph lines, oil wells, steel mills, etc., which make it possible for them to provide the best of everything educationally without much of a tax rate, if any at all, while others across the district line, perhaps, must be content with the most meager there is educationally.

Other Objections to the Small Unit.—It is obvious that with the limitations imposed by the unequal distribution of wealth, many school districts must labor under financial handicaps, and must suffer educational privations proportionately. Of these the following may be mentioned as being the most serious: short terms; poor buildings; underpaid teachers; and as a consequence most always immature, inexperienced, and poorly qualified ones; poor teaching equipment or lack of the same; small and unequipped playgrounds; no provision for teaching special subjects; etc.

Besides these objections growing more or less directly out of the lack of funds, there are many of a more human nature that might be mentioned; such as,

poor management and supervision (it is almost impossible to find school boards in the majority of districts which are at all qualified to direct education properly); poor attendance regulations; little community spirit and pride; petty jealousies; penuriousness; old traditions; etc. All these operate to keep the district school back and to retard the progress of rural education.

What Can Be Done to Remedy the Situation?—If the condition of rural education is to be raised to a plane at all comparable to that of urban education, we must follow the example of our progressive cities and adopt a larger unit for school purposes. We no longer have the district (ward) system in our cities, but we have adopted the whole city as a unit. Instead of each ward supporting its own school we now have the city supporting all schools alike, and thus the children are given an equal opportunity for education. Most cities have even abolished the ward representative on the city board of education, and are electing a small board from the city at large. This is the direction in which rural education must be headed. We must adopt a larger unit for school purposes. It is the direction in which our most progressive states are now turning. (See Figure 4.) It is to these larger units that we shall now turn our attention. They are the town (or township), the county, and the community.

The Township.—The town system was the first legal form of school organization in America. The famous Massachusetts law of 1647 stated:

1. That every town having 50 householders should at once appoint a teacher of reading and writing, and

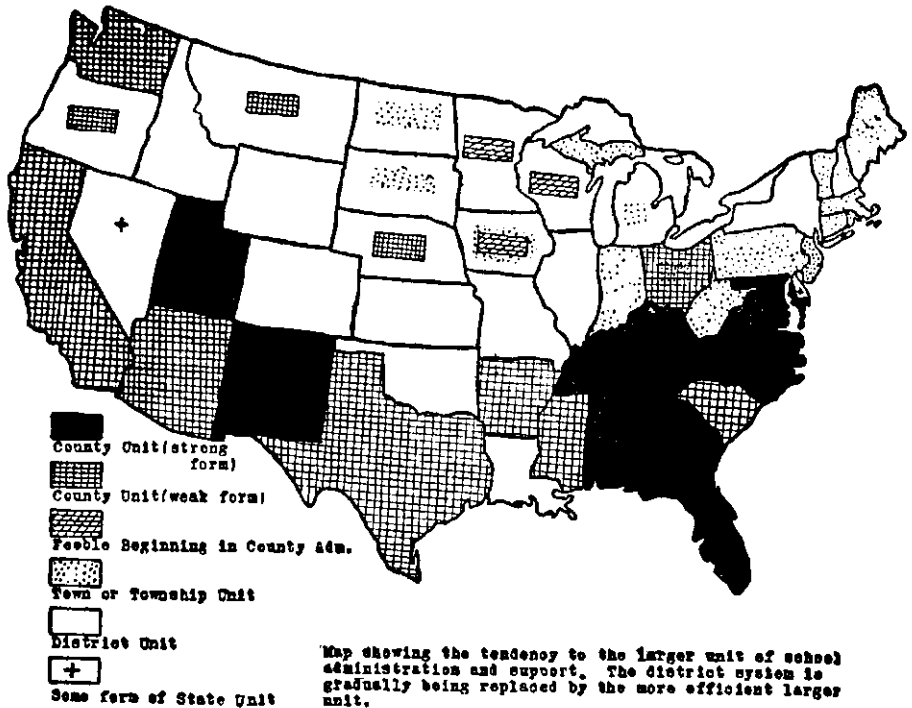


FIGURE 4

MAP SHOWING THE TENDENCY TO THE LARGER UNIT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPPORT

The district system is gradually being replaced by the more efficient larger unit.

provide for his wages in such manner as the town might determine; and

2. That every town having 100 householders must provide a (Latin) Grammar school to fit youths for the university, under a penalty of £5 for failure to do so.

With the decentralization of towns (Figure 1) in New England the district system soon superseded the town system, and it was legalized first in Massachusetts in 1789—"the most unfortunate law on the subject of common schools ever enacted in the state" according to Horace Mann, who, like James G. Carter, condemned the system vigorously, and contributed

greatly to its abandonment in 1882. The town system is admirably adapted to the thickly populated New England states, because the New England town (unlike the western township) follows irregular natural boundary lines, and thus it more or less preserves community lines. We shall have more to say of the need of preserving community boundaries under our discussion of the "community unit."

The western township is a political unit six miles square, and takes no heed of natural boundary lines. New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota, Indiana, West Virginia, and parts of Michigan have adopted this unit.

The township system can best be criticized by saying that it is too large for some purposes and too small for others. Graph C, Figure 2, shows that it is too small a taxing unit. It is frequently too small for the unit of supervision as is shown in New England where two or more small towns combine and form a union supervisory district. It is too large to preserve community lines.

The County Unit.—Throughout the South and West the county is the most important civil unit, and because of this standing it has been gaining gradual headway as the unit for the administration of rural schools. The county unit system is an attempt to apply the same sound business principles to education as are used in the administration of governmental service. Briefly, the "county unit" means the unified control of all the schools of a county—excepting cities and larger towns—by a county board of education, elected on a non-partisan ticket. Some form of county

tax prevails in county unit states. At present there are about twenty states that have this unit in some form or other. (See Figure 4.) Two types of county unit states are generally recognized—the strong form and the weak form.

The Strong County Unit Form.—In the strong county unit form the county board of education is the dominant body corporate. This board has the dominant control of the schools in general. It hires the teachers; chooses the county superintendent; arranges district boundaries; sets financial limitations; appropriates funds; provides equal length of school term throughout the county; looks after buildings and repairs; determines the county school tax; purchases books and supplies; and in general, manages the scattered schools of the county as if they were a compact city school system.

Alabama, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, North Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, and most of Georgia have the strong county unit form of organization.

The Weak County Unit Form.—In the weak county unit form the district authorities constitute the dominant administrative agencies, and the district board is given the dominant corporate power. The county remains as a contributor to school finance. The county superintendent is elected by popular vote, rather than being appointed by the county board as in the strong form. However many may be the powers of the board, if the district authorities have the dominant power for local school purposes, the weak county unit form exists.

Arizona, Arkansas, California, parts of Georgia, Mississippi, Ohio, South Carolina, Texas, and Washington have this type of organization.

Feeble Beginnings in County Unit Organization.—Iowa, Minnesota, and Wisconsin have made feeble beginnings in county unit organization. Each of these states provides for a county board of education, whose main duties are to select textbooks, pass on boundaries for consolidation, maintain schools in unorganized territory, and serve as an advisory board to the county superintendent.

What Are the Advantages of the County Unit?—Having briefly pointed out the general trend of the states toward the larger unit, let us now consider some of the important advantages of this larger unit.

1. We have noted that the taxable property and wealth are unequally distributed so that great inter-district variations in ability to support schools exist. The county unit is large enough to provide funds to make it possible to have good schools, and well qualified teachers, in all districts. Until we are able to raise enough money to pay adequate salaries to rural teachers we cannot hope to get and hold strong teachers in rural schools.

2. The county unit makes it possible to have the same efficient administration of rural schools that the city schools now have. The people of the county elect a county board of education—say of five or seven members—from the county at large, on a non-partisan ticket, only a part of whom retire at one time. This board assumes a responsibility for the efficient management of the schools of the county. Under such an

organization it is easy to place the credit or blame for the management of the schools.

3. With the authority in school matters thus placed squarely on the shoulders of one responsible board, we may expect to have uniformity in such matters where it is desirable to have uniformity, as in length of school term, qualifications of teachers, proper school facilities, supervision, etc.

4. The county unit makes it possible to plan definite educational policies extending over a long period of time. The county superintendent, being appointed by the county board for an indefinite tenure of office, rather than being elected by the people for a short period, may feel free to launch out on an educational policy with reasonable assurance that he may see it through without the uncertain interruptions now caused by the frequent political elections.

5. The county unit makes it possible to adopt a definite salary schedule, based upon preparation, experience, and quality of service rendered. This makes it possible for the school in the poorest district to secure as good a teacher at as high a salary as the school in the richest district.

6. The county unit makes it possible to secure medical care for rural children. County physicians, nurses, and dentists can be employed, whereas under the decentralized district system such services are almost impossible.

7. Under the county unit organization consolidation of schools is promoted. This makes possible better teaching and more and better supervision of instruction. Under the district system about the only super-

vision most of the teachers receive is the annual visit of the county superintendent. It is impossible for him to do much more, considering the long distances he often has to travel and the large number of clerical duties he is called upon to perform.

Economies Resulting from the County Unit.—We must not think of economy necessarily in terms of less money spent. Often such economy is of a short-sighted nature. In education, as in business, economy often consists in spending more money, as the ultimate measure is the increased amount and quality of the product sought. It is sheer waste to put the dollar before the child. It is also waste not to get the highest returns for the dollar spent. The wise expenditure of the funds at hand is the chief factor in the efficiency of a school system. The county unit makes it possible to expend school funds more profitably and also to effect many savings over the district system.

State Superintendent Benjamin J. Burriss of Indiana has made what he calls a "conservative estimate" of the savings that might be effected in Indiana if the county unit were adopted in lieu of the present township system. The total net savings are as follows: ²

Trustees' salaries and office expense	\$ 665,000.00
Supplies and equipment	2,183,000.00
Permanent improvements	664,000.00
Teachers' institutes	270,000.00
	<hr/>
Total savings, not including transportation	\$3,782,000.00

² *Journal of Rural Education*, Vol. 2, p. 310.

The county unit would perhaps reduce the amount spent for transportation considerably, for it would reduce the number of children transported, and the number of roads which are traveled.

In a study made by C. W. Stone of the State College of Agriculture, Pullman, Washington, he found the following sources of saving for one county:³

1. A reduction in the number of teachers. Many small schools were found that are now running at a high cost per pupil. It was estimated that the number of teachers could be reduced by one-third, thus effecting a saving of between twenty and thirty thousand dollars to the county.

2. A saving of about \$18,000.00 in the tuition of non-resident pupils.

3. A substantial saving in the cost of materials bought in quantity. In a survey made in Weber county, Utah, it was found that small boards and trustees were paying a great deal more for materials and equipment than they needed to pay.

Besides the economy in actual money there is an economy of infinitely greater importance to the state, and which cannot well be measured in dollars and cents, namely, the economy of human material—the economy of pupils, teachers, supervisors, and superintendents. The time element alone is very important, but misplaced and misdirected energy is of much greater importance. Where a teacher is required to conduct classes in all grades, as she is in the small rural school, she cannot acquire the skill and facility that the teacher can who has but one or two grades.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 314.

A great loss must come to the pupils because of this inefficiency of the teacher. But we cannot condemn her because of this inefficiency which is the result of the system! There is waste in supervision where schools are scattered so much that a supervisor must spend much of his time on the road. This great waste of human material tends to accumulate at the most vital spot, the child. He is the one who must carry the burden and ultimately transmit it to his state and country. The economy of human material is of far greater importance than the economy of money, but it is through the latter that we can best reach the public!

Grant, as we must, that the county unit is much more economical than the smaller unit, why is it that it has been so slow in evolving? This question can best be answered, perhaps, by asking another.

Does the County Unit Mean the Abolition of the Old District?—This is the stumbling block, and a great cause for the unwillingness of rural people to accept the county unit, or any other larger unit. In some cases the county unit does mean the abolition of old district lines and the creation of a new district, but this never should happen without the consent of a majority of the voters in the districts concerned. In many other cases it does not mean a change of boundary lines.

A second cause for the unwillingness of rural people to accept the county unit is the fear of losing the management of their school. The district system has become so firmly entrenched in their hearts that they will ignore all the shortcomings of "the little red

schoolhouse" and tenaciously hold on to it lest it slip from their control entirely. Their school has become a tradition, yes more than that, it has become a part of them. Witness, for example, the fate of the Missouri county unit law; one of the most sane pieces of legislation a state could adopt. Soon after its passage in 1922 a referendum petition was circulated, the necessary number of signatures was obtained, and the act was referred to the voters of the state and was rejected by them November 7, 1922.

Are These Fears Real?—We shall leave the question of district boundaries to be discussed in connection with the "community unit," save that we may state here that if the boundaries are drawn arbitrarily without regard to community lines, the patrons' fears are somewhat real.

The fear of losing the management of their schools is largely imaginary, provided however, that the county unit is properly planned. By this is meant that not all educational matters should be placed in the hands of the county board of education. If they are, the local community is left without representation, and consequently without initiative and responsibility, which is just as bad as too much local control. Again, if no provision is made for local taxation in the county unit scheme, local pride and responsibility are stifled. This has been found to be a bad policy.

The best plan is to retain a representative for each school community who shall represent its needs before the county board; and the county should be the unit for general taxation for ordinary maintenance while the local district should be the unit of taxation for

extraordinary purposes, such as, improving the school plant, buying sites and land for experimental purposes, increasing salaries beyond the county maximum, etc.

Patrons' Participation in the Management of Larger District.—It must not be inferred that the creation of a county board of education, under the county unit scheme, necessarily abolishes the local district board. In all cases, whether there be changes in the original district boundaries or not, each district should be permitted to retain its local school board or school committee, which has control of the management of its schools in all matters which can best be managed locally. The county board merely exercises control over those matters which require uniformity, so that all children in the county may receive the same opportunity for education.

The argument that the larger district, effected through consolidation, makes it impossible for the patrons to attend meetings as before is not entirely logical. The automobile makes it possible for the farmer to attend school meetings in the large district with no more loss of time than it formerly took him to attend the "district meeting."⁴

Thus, we see that the management of the school is still left largely with the local authorities. Let us now see the county unit in practice in two states that have recently adopted it, either wholly or in part.

The County Unit in Montana (weak form).—In 1917 Montana passed a county unit law which permits third class districts (1000 or less population) in a county to

⁴ Stone, *Journal of Rural Education*, Vol. 2.

vote for the county unit. Three of the fifty-four counties in the state have voted to accept it.

After a county votes to accept the county unit, it is districted into five large subdivisions by the county commissioners, for the purpose of appointing the first five county board members. The later members are elected by the voters of each subdivision. Each subdivision consists of a group of subdistricts, under the management of trustees. The subdistrict trustees submit their budgets to the county board, which determines from them a uniform tax levy for all third class districts in the county. After taxes are collected the county board meets to apportion funds to each district in accordance with its needs as presented in its budget previously adopted.

Local district boards are retained under the county unit plan and they have complete management of their school in all matters except that the expenditures are controlled by the county board. The county board has the power to raise or lower the budget presented by the local district board.

What Has the County Unit Accomplished in Montana?⁵—The law aims to correct two evils in education; inequality of tax burdens, and inequality of educational opportunity. Of the three counties now operating under the law, Cascade is the oldest, having voted favorably in 1917. Since then the following changes have occurred:

(1) During the last year under the district system (1917) 2022 children were enrolled in the schools coming under the county unit. Of these one-fourth were

⁵ Seventeen Biennial Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

enrolled in schools having a term of six months or less. 167 had no opportunity to attend school whatever. In 1922 every child was provided with nine months of school.

(2) The cost was no greater than in 1917 under the old system, in spite of the marked increase of prices generally.

(3) Children are now taking the eighth grade examinations in districts that were never before known to have anyone complete the eighth grade.

(4) Twenty-three schools have been closed temporarily, because of the small number of children attending them, and arrangements have been made for attendance at other schools.

(5) The standards of the teaching force have been raised and the holding power has been increased by the establishment of salary schedules based on successful experience and professional preparation.

(6) One-half of the valuation of Cascade County lies in one-fourth of the school districts. The great inequalities in taxing power have been equalized so that children are no longer the helpless victims of this injustice.

(7) Each county operating under the county unit was able to begin the new year with a good balance on hand.

The county unit law has accomplished its objectives in the counties in which it is operative in Montana. Let us now consider the county unit in a state where its adoption is state-wide and where the strong form prevails.

The County Unit in Maryland (strong form).—The

county unit has, perhaps, reached its greatest development in Maryland. The county board of education—consisting of three or six members, who are appointed for a term of six years, one-third retiring every two years—has complete charge of all the rural schools in the county, with the one exception, that the county school taxes must be approved by the civil authorities of the county. Each school has a district board which is appointed by the county board annually. The work of this board is limited to the following functions: to approve the selection of the principal for their school; to care for the schoolhouse and furniture; to supervise the repair of the schoolhouse when directed to do so by the county board; to handle extreme disciplinary problems; and to exercise limited supervision over their school.

The scheme has reached its highest development in Baltimore County which has one of the best rural school systems to be found in the United States. The excellent results that have been accomplished in this county are due, first, to the gradual awakening of the rural people to the needs and possibilities of education by means of a quiet but persistent campaign of education,—and, second, to the following five factors: ⁶

1. The county board of education has been a continuing body of citizens, only one-third going out of office at one time, and has thus been able to plan and to execute a continuing educational policy.

2. The county board was free to go anywhere it wished to secure the kind of man it desired for county

⁶ Cubberley, *Rural Life and Education*, Revised Edition, 1922, p. 354, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

superintendent, to appoint him, and to fix his salary.

3. The county board has been free to retain his services continuously, without the interference of party politics or the chances of a biennial political election. Efficiency, not politics, has been the basis of his retention in office.

4. The county board has also been free to appoint assistant superintendents, special supervisors, assistant supervisors, stenographers, and clerks, as they deemed necessary, and to fix their salaries, and without having first to ask the county board of supervisors or the legislature for permission to do so. They have been free, as such boards ought to be, to make progress as fast as they thought desirable, instead of being tied, hand and foot, by uniform laws.

5. The county board has also been able to consolidate schools and to transport pupils; to improve buildings and sanitary conditions; to provide a uniformly long term; to increase and standardize the salaries of the teachers throughout the county; to enforce the employment of good teachers for all schools; and to add new schools and new forms of instruction, where and as deemed desirable—and all because of its control of the schools of the county as a unit. Their work has been exactly analogous to that of a city board of education for a city.

Danger of Over-centralization.—Baltimore County represents extreme centralization of the management of the schools of the county. That there are dangers in this has been intimated in our previous discussion. The success of Baltimore County is undoubtedly due to the county unit system, but most likely not to the

extreme form it has taken there, but rather to the persistent campaign for education which has been carried on for a number of years. Experience has shown that we cannot bring about improvement by means of legislation without first educating the community to the need of these improvements. Witness, for example, New York's compulsory consolidation law, or, as previously mentioned, Missouri's county unit law.

Recommendations Based on State Surveys.—Within the last few years we have had several thoroughgoing state surveys of education, and we note that in all cases the recommendations especially include a larger unit of organization and administration.

The Kentucky Survey.—Although Kentucky started with the county unit in 1838 and had a nominal county form of organization until 1856, yet the rural school unit up to 1908 was the district. At this date the county board was re-established, having as its main duties the management of the school finances and the school plant. From time to time more financial powers were granted, and in 1912 the county board was authorized to combine the state and county school funds and to distribute them to the districts according to their needs. This enabled the board to adopt a salary schedule for teachers, thus giving the small district the same opportunity as the large one in the matter of securing teachers.

Further powers and responsibilities were granted from time to time until in 1914 the board had most of the functions which should properly belong to it. Up to 1920 the board was composed of the chairmen of the various division boards of which there were four,

six, or eight in each county. This made a rather clumsy board with the district spirit permeating it. In 1920 a law was enacted providing for the election of a county board of five members by the voters outside of graded school and city school districts. At present (1926) Kentucky has a four-year county board of five members, elected in odd years, three to be elected in 1927 and two in 1929. This gives the people a direct voice in the management of their schools. This law places in the hands of the county board the entire management of the rural schools, including the appointment of the county superintendent.

The county unit, as organized in Kentucky at present, has one prominent defect. This relates to the so-called "graded school districts." These are autonomous bodies operating under special charters, or under special legal enactments, the same as ordinary city districts do. There are 257 of these graded school districts which do not come under the county unit law. They are exempt from the county school tax and hence enjoy the use of property which scarcely belongs to them solely. Many of these districts are of irregular size so as to take in every possible bit of valuable personal and corporate property. They help to defeat the very purpose of the county unit law. They are also a great barrier to effective consolidation. It is recommended that steps be taken for their return to the county, permitting the largest to maintain a degree of local autonomy by retaining local boards, raise the local school tax above the county tax, for securing better teachers, longer terms, better equipment, etc.

The Virginia Survey.—The recommendations of the Virginia survey staff may be briefly summarized as follows:

1. That district lines be abolished in school administration.

2. That all present boards be abolished and in their place each county establish a county board of five members, elected at large by the voters of the county.

3. That the county board fix the amount of money to be raised by county taxation.

4. That the county board be authorized to select and appoint a division superintendent from a list of eligibles submitted by the State Board of Education.

5. That a minimum salary of \$2000 be established.

6. That minimum standards of eligibility for the superintendency be set by the State Board of Education.

7. That all teachers and regular employees of the county board be appointed on written recommendation of the county superintendent and that they be subject to his immediate authority.

New York State Survey.—We shall consider the recommendations of the Joint Committee on Rural Schools of New York State in the next chapter under the discussion of the "community unit." Suffice it to say here that the committee recommends a larger unit of organization and support, to be based upon community lines, and that the schools be managed by a community board.

Conclusions Regarding the Larger Unit.—The leading educators of the country have been represented on

the several survey staffs referred to above. They are all agreed that what the rural school needs most is a larger unit of organization, administration, and support, and that the management of the large problems of education be transferred from the local authorities to one small board, elected by the voters of the unit, which shall be responsible for the educational policies and conduct of the schools. The minor and particularly local problems of education should be left to the local boards, so that local initiative, pride, and responsibility will not be stifled.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. "The district system admirably fulfilled the purpose which called it into existence in early pioneer days." Discuss.
2. Why did the district system spread westward and not southward?
3. Let the instructor divide the class into two divisions, an affirmative and a negative, to debate the question, "Resolved that the district system has outlived its usefulness."
4. What is the township unit of organization? How does it differ from the town system of New England? What are the advantages and disadvantages of this unit?
5. It has been said that in spite of the shortcomings of the district most of our great statesmen and leaders have come up through the district school. Assuming that the statement is true, how do you account for it?
6. What are the chief sources of school support in your state? In your county?
7. Where does the dominant control of your school lie?
8. Is there inequality of taxation in your state and county? If so, what are the effects of this situation? What is your county tax rate for schools? For your local school?
9. What are the advantages of the county as the unit for taxation? Of administration?

10. Does it necessarily follow that district organization and local school boards are abolished if a county unit is established? Explain.
11. What power should the county board have, and what should be left to the local community?
12. What is your state law regarding the county unit? How may district boundaries be changed?
13. Distinguish clearly between the strong and the weak county unit forms.
14. What do you believe should be the qualifications of a county superintendent?
15. What are the chief objections to the political appointment of the county superintendent?

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. The development and decline of the district system in Massachusetts.
2. History of School development in your community.
3. Functioning of the county unit in one of the strong county unit states.
4. The history of the district (ward) system in city school organization. (Cubberley, *Public School Administration*.)
5. Waste of money due to the district system.

Selected References

- Brim, O. G., *Rural Education*, Chapter XII.
- Carney, Mabel, *Country Life and the Country School*, Chapter VII.
- Cubberley, E. P., *Public Education in United States*, Chapters II, III, IV, V.
- Cubberley, E. P., *Rural Life and Education*, Chapter VIII.
- Cubberley, E. P., *Public School Administration*, Chapters IV, V, VI.
- Cubberley, E. P., and Elliott, E. C., *State and County School Administration: A Source Book*.
- Foght, H. W., *The American Rural School*.

Showalter, N. D., *A Hand Book for Rural School Officers*, Chapter II.

Wilkinson, W. A., *Rural School Management*, Chapter XVI.

Journal of Rural Education.

Public Education in Kentucky (Survey).

Virginia Public Schools. Part I (Survey Series).

U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletins, No. 7, 1919; No. 10, 1922;
No. 13, 1922.

CHAPTER II

THE LARGER UNIT (*Continued*)

The Community Unit.—In the preceding chapter the case against the district system was presented and various arguments in favor of the county unit, together with concrete examples of its application, were given. We were also shown that the adoption of the county unit as such will not operate as a cure-all for the rural education problem, since the solution of that problem requires the hearty co-operation of the rural patrons. The question has been raised whether the county unit, ignoring as it does, neighborhood and community lines, and establishing wholly artificial ones, is, after all, the best type of unit for our rural schools; or, whether some other unit molded upon community lines, which would preserve that group consciousness and community spirit already existing, might not be much more fruitful of results. This brings us to the so-called “community unit” which we shall consider in this chapter.

The Community Unit Idea Not New.—Lest we feel that we are dealing with something entirely new, it is well to be reminded that the community unit was really our very first form of educational organization. When our Puritan forefathers established the town

system on the New England shore, they included in that scheme provision for public education—town controlled and town supported. That early New England town was nothing more than one big family—a community. Then, when the people gradually began to branch out they formed new groupings which gave rise to our district system. These districts were nothing more than little communities, as indeed, they still are today. The community unit concept of today is but a widening, an expanding of this early concept, *so as to include within its boundaries all those families which are drawn to a common center—usually a town or a village—by means of transportation, trade, or social relations.*

The community unit is at once the oldest and the newest unit for educational purposes. Let us now briefly consider the various factors which make up a neighborhood and their subsequent influence in the formation of the community unit.

What Is a Neighborhood or a Rural Primary Group?¹—A neighborhood as defined by The American Country Life Association is “that geographic group of farm families having some local cohesion.” Kolb gives for his definition of a Rural Primary Group “that first grouping beyond the family which has social significance and which is conscious of some local unity.” These groups, while they are essentially psychological, can nevertheless be located geographically. The chief criterion of their existence is a name. Figure 5 shows the neighborhood boundaries for the west-

¹ The discussion here is guided by the results of the investigation made by J. H. Kolb (see reference).

NEIGHBORHOOD BASE MAP

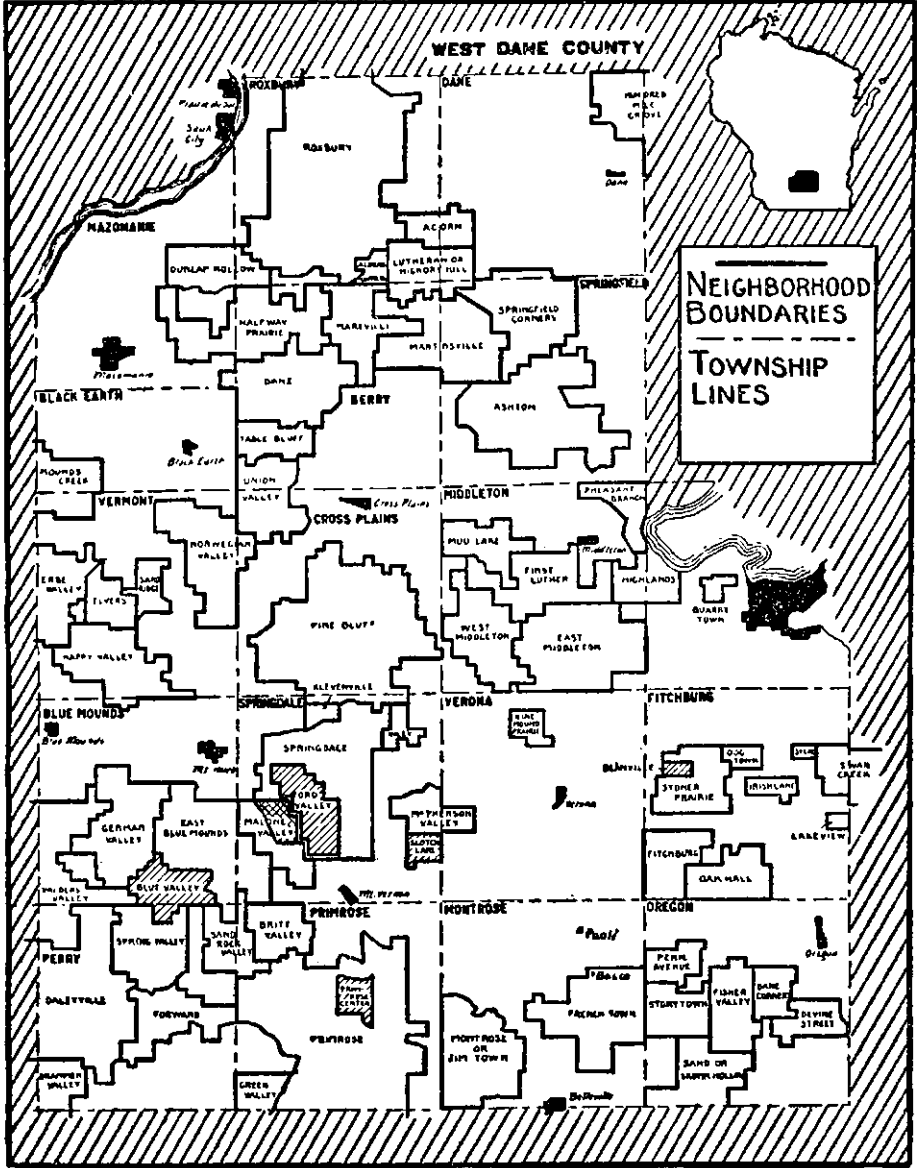


FIGURE 5

FINAL BOUNDARIES OF PRIMARY GROUPS IN WEST DANE COUNTY, WISCONSIN

(After Kolb, *Rural Primary Groups*)

Although the geographic limits look hard and fast yet the true condition is quite opposite.

ern half of Dane County, Wisconsin. Kolb was able to discover 121 such neighborhoods in this county.

What Are the Factors Creating a Neighborhood and Holding It Together?—Table 1 shows the primary and secondary factors, together with their frequencies, which are operating at present in holding the group together. These same factors and two others—com-

TABLE 1
Factors Creating and Holding the Group Together
(Adapted from Kolb)

Factors	Originally		At Present	
	Prin.	Sec.	Prin.	Sec.
Common former residence	15	8	0	0
Economic purpose	17	7	14	6
Educational purpose	4	6	29	9
Leading family	12	6	2	0
Mail distribution	0	8	0	0
Nationality bonds	34	13	5	27
Religious bonds	9	30	32	5
Social purpose	14	22	8	21
Topography	16	12	5	10
Lack of any factor	0	0	26	0

mon former residence and mail distribution, but not in the same order of frequency—operated in creating and holding the neighborhood originally.

Significance of These Facts for Rural Organization.—It is obvious that if the rural organizer, especially the rural school organizer, is to meet with the greatest success in his work, he must reckon with these factors in mind. Any school unit which will ignore entirely these primary groupings or cut across them ruthlessly will be under a severe handicap. As was intimated in Chapter I, the objection to the township unit as it exists outside of New England, is that it totally ignores these neighborhood groups. Specific knowledge of the direct causal factors of these groups will help the organizer in drawing his community lines.

Relation of Primary Group Lines to Other Lines.—

As stated above, the organizer must recognize these primary groups in his organization work. The boundaries of these groups approximate other lines in the following order: the school district, the church parish, the trade area, and the social area. By a trade area is meant a community or group of farms with a trading center. The town or village is usually the trade center and does not respect primary group lines. This may be due to various causes, such as improved roads; competing stores, especially farm stores; and abandonment of a local trade center. Social lines do not respect neighborhood lines. This is due in large part to the automobile and the influence of nearby villages. The church parish and school district lines approximate the neighborhood lines quite closely for the reason that they were originally established along neighborhood lines.

Perhaps the reader may feel that this leaves us exactly where we started, with the school district as the unit based on neighborhood lines. But, we really have gone a step farther and have shown that for purposes of trade and social relations the neighborhood is too small, and that larger areas have been established for these purposes. Let us now consider upon what principle the size of any unit must be based.

“Sufficient Volume for Business.”—This principle holds true for all business and social enterprises. The success of a creamery depends upon a large enough area to produce a certain amount of cream; that of a store upon a large enough area to produce a certain number of customers; that of a church upon a large

enough area to guarantee enough members to support it; *that of a school upon a large enough area to guarantee enough members to support it.*

It has been found that the average neighborhood group occupies an area considerably less than one-fourth of a township; and that the average number of families per neighborhood is twenty-one. It is obvious that this group is too small to provide "sufficient volume for business."

This has been found to be true not only for educational service, but also for most of the other services upon which the life of a group depends, namely: economic trade, religious service, social service, farmer organization, community transportation.

This does not imply that the group is useless, but it means that its organization must extend beyond its own boundaries.

Importance of the Village.—If we accept as a truism that the life of a group depends upon at least five of the six services mentioned in the preceding paragraph, then it becomes necessary for the neighborhood groups to federate with the village center. Of the twenty-nine villages studied by Kolb, twenty-three rendered five of the six services. This makes it possible for the neighborhood groups to ally themselves with a village center, and form a community unit. (See Figure 6.) But, in so doing, the larger unit must not swallow up the Primary Group, by arbitrary centralized power. A group as large as the new community unit cannot, as a group, satisfy all the demands of its members. There will necessarily be divergent religious wants; various social wants, as, for instance, the young peo-

NEIGHBORHOOD TRADE AREA

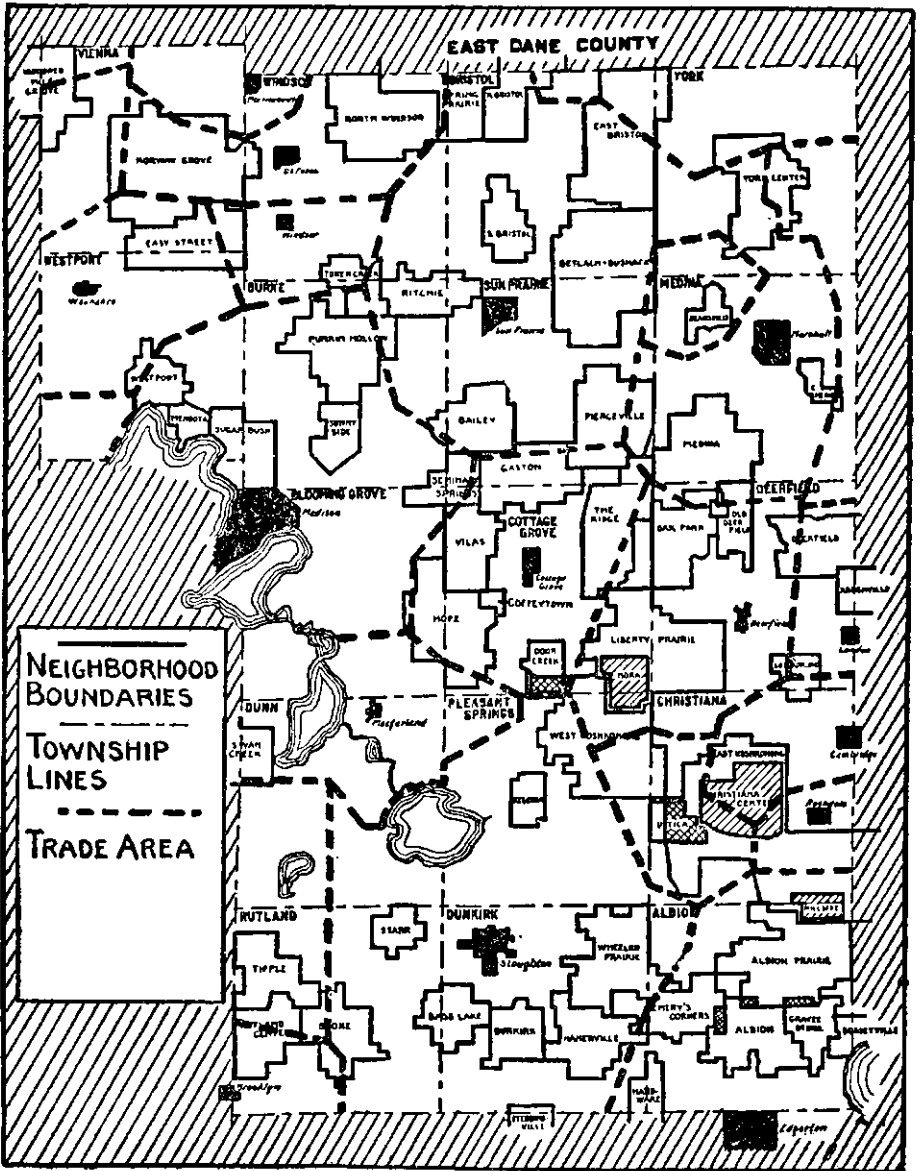


FIGURE 6

THE NATURAL COMMUNITY UNIT
(After Kolb)

ples' wants as opposed to the old; there will be various women's groups and clubs. Then, there will be the country groups and their interests as opposed to the village groups and their interests. All these must be allowed individual expression, if the community unit is to be a success. To be sure, there should be times when all the groups should come together—country and village—so that this new community may find a group expression. At these community gatherings provision should be made for all groups, for there will necessarily be country interests and village and city interests.

What about the Unorganized Territory?—The unorganized areas must be organized in the community unit. Their center, heretofore, has been the village, where they went for their services. Now they may feel a real sense of belonging. The new community unit must leave no gaps.

Inter-Community Organization Necessary.—For administrative purposes it is necessary to have an inter-community organization. There are two possible schemes for this organization: (a) utilizing the county and (b) dividing states into groups. Most states at present use the county for various administrative functions, as for example, county agricultural agents, home demonstration agents, county supervisor of schools, county nurse system, etc. Since many communities will necessarily transcend county lines, it is, perhaps, advisable to divide the states into groups of communities or divisions, each of these divisions being governed by an inter-community board, analogous to our present county boards.

This briefly, then, is the psychological and the sociological background of the community unit scheme of school organization. Let us now consider its application somewhat more closely.

Community Unit and High School Development.—The American high school has had an extraordinarily rapid growth within the last ten or fifteen years. This means that many more pupils are now taking advantage of high school who formerly considered a high school education outside of their class. It also means that many more pupils are drawn from the country areas who are now finding more in the high school curriculum than the purely college preparatory subjects. As a result of this, the high school has become an accepted institution in our educational scheme and every one who can profit by it should be privileged to attend it. Now, in our rural communities it has not been easy to attend high school because only the large villages and cities maintained them. This often made it necessary for families to move to town or to make other sacrifices equally great. The high school was maintained by the city district, and unless the town had some system of paying these charges, the individual was required to pay his own tuition. The rural people had no voice in the management of the school, and hence had to accept the city standards in curricula and courses of study, etc., or go without any high school education. As a result many country children were left without high school privileges. In 1925 it was calculated that eighty percent. of Wisconsin's area lay outside of legal high school districts. This brings up the question of how to provide for all rural children.

Illinois has gone a far way in making this possible by means of a community high school system.

Illinois Community High Schools.—Section 6 of the Illinois township high school law states: “The inhabitants of any contiguous and compact territory, whether in the same or different townships, upon a petition signed by at least fifty legal voters and an affirmative vote in such territory, may establish, in the manner provided by the act, a township high school for the benefit of the inhabitants of the territory described in the petition.”

A later law provides for high school tuition-paying districts in unorganized territory. We have here the principle of the community unit applied to high schools. A number of school districts have pooled their interests, so far as high school education is concerned, and have formed a community unit under the management of one board. One step farther, namely, a pooling of interests for elementary education also, within the same district, and under the control of one and the same board, and the community unit is complete. Statutory provisions to this effect exist in Illinois.

In the community unit the small districts may or may not be consolidated. Usually it is better to make provision for consolidation as rapidly as the community is ready to accept that move. The question of transportation enters here. In some cases it may be better to provide for the transportation of the upper grades to a central school, while retaining the local district school for the lower grades. Local conditions will have to decide which is the best policy.

The Consolidated School District an Example of the

Community Unit.—As was pointed out in the preceding paragraph, the consolidated district is an example of the community unit. Here the people of a community, which embraces several school districts, unite to form one large community unit. Instead of many school boards and many small areas for taxation and many small schools, the community elects one board; forms one area of taxation, provides one good school, centrally located, and usually makes provision for high school education. In this community the school becomes the center of community activity. We must defer further discussion of the consolidated school to the next chapter.

The Community Unit in Washington.—Already several districts in the state of Washington have adopted the Community Unit. Its successful operation in these districts indicates that it would be wise to extend the scheme over the whole state according to Superintendent Preston. She estimates that the number of school districts in that state would be reduced approximately from 2400 to 600. This plan combines the advantages of the two movements that are already under way making for a better community life, consolidation of schools, and the community center.

The New York State Survey and the Community Unit.—New York is one of the states in which the district system has been firmly entrenched. Any policy of rural school betterment, in states belonging to this type, which makes any marked advances, or curtails too many local powers, is bound to meet with disapproval by the people. Faced by this practical situation, the Survey Commission was required to make

some compromises in its recommendations, which from a purely theoretical view might seem unjustifiable. But, if the principle of local initiative is to be preserved and guided by a broader leadership, it becomes necessary to make advances slowly and to bring the people along in thought and in interest as we proceed. This is the fundamental principle in progressive education, that must be faced in all practical situations. It is upon this basis that the community Unit Organization outlined below was recommended.

Recommendations of Joint Committee of Rural Schools of New York.—The Community Unit is recommended because it will give a natural system of organization and yet one that will eliminate the old defects of the district system. The county unit is objectionable because it does not respect community lines.

The community unit is to be composed of those districts which are related by lines of transportation, trade, and social relations. These will naturally group around a local center—a town or a village—which will be the natural location for the high school.

The local district, district meeting, and trustees are to be retained, and a trustee from each district is to be a representative on the community board. This will make a large board, but progress must be made slowly. The board may be given the power to reduce its own members, and perhaps later the time may come when the board can be elected from the community at large.

The community boundary lines are to be determined by a commission of five local people, appointed temporarily for that purpose, by the County Board of

Supervisors. These shall work under the supervision of a State Commission of three, consisting of the State Commission of Education and two others appointed by the Governor.

An intermediate unit, which is to act as a go-between for the community and the state in such matters as supervision, curriculum formation, consolidation, community boundaries, etc., is recommended.

This intermediate Board of Education is to consist of one representative from each Community Board, elected by it from its membership.

The intermediate grouping shall be determined by a State Commission on Community Boundaries.

The various functions are to be distributed as follows:

PROPOSED DISTRIBUTION OF FUNCTIONS

Present District	Community Board	Intermediate Board
Elect trustee unless board is adopted	Budget and tax (f)	Select district Superintendent
Pass upon abolition of district	Selection and location of teachers (on nomination of superintendent or principal) (f)	Levy taxes for administrative and supervisory activities
	Power to close school for one year (f)	Re-define boundaries of community units

Curriculum (contributions and adoptions largely through teaching force)	Approve consolidation plans Select and adopt textbooks
---	---

Selection and adoption of textbooks (not to conflict with rules of intermediate board)	Curriculum (not in conflict with state)
--	---

Buildings, care of new (f)	Library (not in conflict with state)
----------------------------	--------------------------------------

Purchase supplies

Library (not to conflict with rules of intermediate board)

(f) Function to be performed by the full board, not by its delegated representatives.

Advantages of the Community Unit.—Our discussion of the community unit leads us to infer the following advantages for it:

1. It gives a natural system of organization based on community lines.

2. The unit is large enough to provide sufficient resources for an efficient school, including a high school.

3. It includes a town or village already supported by the community where the wealth of the community

tends to collect, and now in turn draws upon it to help support schools of the community.

4. It provides a natural location for a high school and makes it possible for all to have high school privileges. It also provides for community participation in the affairs of the schools.

5. It prepares the way for complete consolidation of schools.

6. It brings about a union of the town and country and fosters a real community spirit.

7. It provides for a unified control of the schools of the community under the Community Board.

Community Unit versus County Unit.—The question may have risen in the mind of the reader as to the comparative values of the community unit and the county unit, and which after all is the better of the two. We have various degrees of the county unit form, varying from the highly centralized form with little or no local control as we find in Maryland, to the strong local and weak county control of Montana or Wisconsin. And we also have the strong community form, like the Sargent Consolidated Community of Colorado where all the schools have been consolidated and the children are transported to the central school, and the weak community form where the schools have been only partially consolidated.

If we consider the matter of taxation and equalization of taxation we must conclude that the county unit is superior to the community unit. The community unit can never be large enough to create an equality of tax burden in the county.

A second point in which the county unit is superior

to the community unit as it has been operating so far, is that of providing for the extremely poor districts. Too often under the present voluntary community system the poorer districts are left stranded. This difficulty would, however, be overcome by the plan recommended by the New York Commission, where a board would be created for a state-wide community system.

Neither of the units can really afford to get along without the other. If one were forced to divorce the other, the community unit would, perhaps, be the survivor. Even in our pure county unit forms today, we have at least the rudiments of communities; in many states these are still the school districts; in others they are new consolidated districts.

The plan that will, perhaps, work for the best advantages of the child will be a combination community-county system. In this plan the community will be the chief support of the schools and will have the chief management of them, and the county will be a part contributor and equalizer of funds, and will furnish the larger guidance and supervision.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Distinguish clearly between the community unit and the county unit.
2. List the points of superiority of each of these two units.
3. Prepare a debate on the question, "Resolved that the Community unit is the best type of rural school organization, so far evolved in our educational system."
4. There is a hesitancy on the part of both country and village people to pool their interests educationally. The village people

fear that the country people, because of their natural conservatism, will lower their educational standards, while the country people, on the other hand, fear that their taxes will be raised and that their children will fall into city ways. If you were the county superintendent who is trying to interest the county in the community unit, how would you meet the above problem? Outline the main points of your argument.

5. Explain how consolidated districts are in reality community units.
6. What is meant by a "combination community-county system"? What would be the advantages? What are some of the obstacles to such a system?
7. In what respects is the community unit like the New England town unit?
8. How do you explain the lack of social and to a large extent of business co-operation between country and village people? What can be done to bring about a better relationship? Will the community school help in this direction?
9. It is maintained by some that the village school educates away from the farm. Others say that we have no right to restrict the country child's future by keeping him ignorant of urban life. Under our modern conception of education which of these two views is the more nearly right? Explain.
10. From what we have seen of the community unit in operation, what is its effect upon community life? Does the county unit provide for community center activities?

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. Make a map of the neighborhood group in which you live.
2. Map out your "community unit" as it would be if that unit were adopted in your state. (Use the criteria suggested on page 33.)
3. The effect of the community unit on the present tax rate of country and village patrons.

4. The equalizing of educational opportunity by means of the larger unit.

References

Hayes, A. W., *Rural Community Organization*.

Kolb, J. H., *Rural Primary Groups*, Research Bulletin 51, Agricultural Experiment Station, University of Wisconsin, Madison.

Works, G. A., *Rural School Survey of New York State*, Chapter XII. (See references of Chapter I also.)

CHAPTER III

CONSOLIDATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

Meaning of Consolidation.—The term “consolidated” as applied to schools means the concentrating of school work in fewer places, under a more centralized control, with a larger unit of support so as to distribute the tax burdens more equitably.

Usually the process of consolidation requires the combination of two or more districts to form one large district. A central school building is erected and the children of the district are transported to and from this central building daily. In some states the term “consolidated” is also applied to new districts possessing the characteristics of a consolidated school, but formed from original territory rather than from a uniting of two or more districts. Thus, if the people of a new territory, having an influx of population should agree to establish one central school and transport all children to it, rather than form several small independent schools, they would be forming a consolidated school.

The term “centralization” is often used interchangeably with “consolidation.” No clear-cut distinction between the two has yet evolved, but it seems best to reserve the term “centralization” to the centralizing of schools or grades in a district, at one cen-

tral point therein. Thus, a consolidated district may have within its boundaries several one-room schools—sometimes called “wing” schools—and yet have the upper grades and high school centralized in one central building.

Our large city school systems are good examples of consolidated schools. Here the various independent wards have been united into one school district for maintenance and control, yet the schools have not been centralized into one building.

Centralization also applies to the manner of control. If the management of all the schools in a given area is centered in one responsible person or board, we speak of it as “centralized” control, as opposed to “decentralized” control as represented by the district system.

Types of Consolidation.

(a) Complete consolidation.

(1) By grades.

When all the children in a consolidated district are transported to a central school, where all the grades and high school subjects are offered, we have complete consolidation by grades.

(2) By territory.

When all the schools in an administrative unit such as the township or county, have been consolidated we have complete consolidation by territory. This does not necessarily imply that all children must be transported to central schools, so long as all the schools in the unit belong to a consolidated district. In some of the best consolidated districts, the upper grades and

high schools are centralized in a modern building while the lower grades are housed in one-room schools (wings) throughout the district.

(b) *Partial Consolidation.*

(1) By grades.

Some states have found it desirable to organize consolidated districts for upper grade and high school purposes. A central school is established, and all children above a given grade—usually the fifth or sixth—are transported to it. The area served by this consolidation may be the community, as in Illinois, the township as in Ohio, or unions of two or more districts as in California. The lower grades are taught in the one-room school. This scheme makes it possible to have better instruction in the upper grades and it also makes it possible to have high school facilities within reach of all children. This plan necessitates a two district arrangement—the consolidated districts for upper grades, and the local districts for the lower grades. Its one advantage seems to be that it partially satisfies local pride by leaving the control of the lower grades in the hands of the district trustees.

(2) By territory.

When not all of the schools of an administrative unit, township or county—whichever may be the unit in a given state—are included in some consolidated district, the term “partial-consolidated” is applied. This form of consolidation is a very common one due to the fact that all consolidation laws must necessarily be permissive to be effective. The result is that the more progressive districts will combine to form con-

solidated schools and leave the poorer, unprogressive districts "stranded." Unfortunate though this may seem, the consolidation movement owes its success to these early "unions" and the stranded districts are martyrs to the cause.

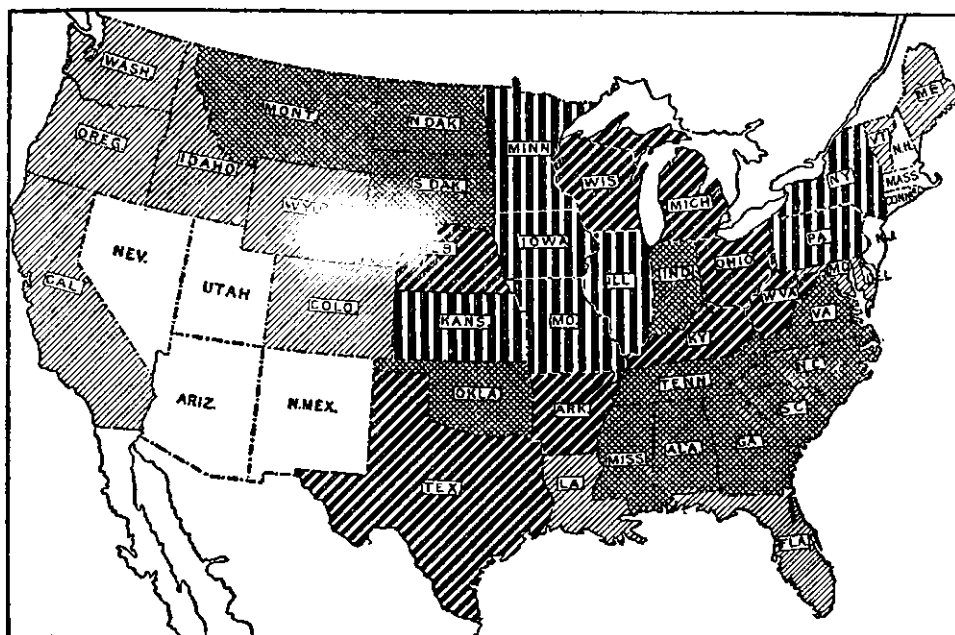
Early Beginnings in Consolidation.—The movement for consolidation had its beginnings in New England in cities and in densely populated towns. By special acts of incorporation, graded schools were established and local school systems grew up which were largely independent of the state, county, or town control. These districts had central administration and control of their schools and so were able to have the best type of educational advantages: better tax distribution, better buildings, better teachers, better supervision of instruction, etc. This type of consolidation had the disadvantage of depriving outlying territory of the use of property to which it really was entitled. Some of the rural districts saw the advantage of forming larger areas for school purposes, as practiced by the cities, and so began to form unions of districts for upper grade work. Most of the earlier consolidations were concerned with graded schools and high schools, and most of the states still have some form of union high school law on their statute books.

The first state to place a union school law on its statute books was Massachusetts (1838). Connecticut put a similar law on its statute books the following year, and established its first consolidated school at Farmington the same year (1839).

The movement for consolidating rural schools spread very slowly, due to the strong hold of the district sys-

tem. By 1880 the principle of centralization had become firmly established for urban schools, but little more than beginnings had been made in rural sections. It was not until 1894 that widespread interest in the consolidation of rural schools was awakened. Beginning about the year 1900, the movement made rapid gains in all sections of the country. Today, every state in the Union has embraced the consolidation idea.

Fields for Consolidation.—Anomalous though it may seem, the greatest headway in consolidation appears to be going on in those regions least favored geographically for it. The great field for consolidation is where most of the one-room schools are. In a recent study made by the United States Bureau of Education, it was found that the overwhelming majority of one-teacher schools are to be found in the great Mississippi River Valley. (See Figure 7.) The problem of consolidation is closely associated with the problem of transportation, but in this great middle western territory this problem is not so acute as in the mountainous sections. In Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island the consolidation movement has been pushed about to the present limits of practicality. Few one-room schools remain where consolidation and transportation are feasible. In the West consolidation has made much headway. The leading states in the movement are: Colorado, Utah, and Washington. In the South the movement is going on rapidly. The leading states here are: Louisiana, Mississippi, Texas, Georgia, South Carolina, and Tennessee. Many states in the middle west have made splendid progress in consolidating their rural schools.



- 1,000 to 2,500 one-room schools;
- ▨ Somewhere between 2,500 and 5,000 each;
- ▩ Fewer than 1,000 one-room schools;
- ▮ Somewhere between 5,000 and 7,500 one-room schools;
- ▭ More than 7,500 one-room schools.

FIGURE 7

DISTRIBUTION, BY STATES, OF ONE-ROOM SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES

(Courtesy U. S. Bureau of Education)

The greatest obstacles these states have to overcome are public inertia and the district system. The latter has become so strongly rooted in most of these states that it will take another generation at least to overcome it. In the middle western group of states, those in which the most headway has been made are: Indiana, Ohio, and Iowa. All these states have some form of township unit, which makes consolidation considerably simpler. The county organization of-

fers the most favorable conditions for consolidating schools.

Transportation of Pupils.—The early consolidations did not concern themselves with the transportation of pupils. Massachusetts was the first state to authorize the expenditure of public money for this purpose. Today rural school consolidation is greatly concerned with the problem of transportation. It is one of the chief disadvantages to an effective program of consolidation in many states. It is true, however, that the problem is often greatly magnified by those opposed to the movement. It is questionable whether it is a greater hardship for a child to be transported to school five to ten miles in a comfortable sanitary auto bus, than to walk one to two miles in bad weather over poor roads. Where the matter of transportation has been carefully planned so that children are not compelled to ride too far nor wait for the bus too long, it has been found to work out most satisfactorily. The only real objections to transportation are mountainous regions and bad roads. Where roads are impassable because of mud and snow, or because of hills and valleys, transportation, of course, is handicapped. In such sections consolidation must necessarily be limited. Here the one-room school will continue to serve isolated communities as it so valiantly served them in its early beginnings.

Transportation Must Be Logically Planned.—The success of the consolidated school will depend largely upon the success with which children are transported to and from school. The type of transportation best adapted to the community, the routing of the vehicles,

the selection of the driver, the length of time children spend on the road, and the general management of the transportation system must all be carefully considered and planned if transportation is to operate successfully.

Just what type of transportation is best suited to a particular community will be a question to be settled by the community itself. Climatic conditions, road conditions, and size of district are determining factors. Three types of transportation are in use: horse-drawn vehicles, motor busses, and trolley cars. Where the trolley car is conveniently located, it is perhaps, the best method to utilize. The objection to horse-drawn vehicles is that they are slow moving, thus requiring some children to be on the road a long time. The motor bus is the most popular type of transportation vehicle. By means of it, children can be transported in comfort relatively large distances in a short time. The question of who shall own the transportation vehicles is often raised. Most state laws make it permissible for the district either to purchase the vehicles, and hire operators, or to contract for privately owned vehicles. While many examples may be found where the privately owned vehicles are operating successfully, it is generally considered a better policy for the district to own its transportation busses.

The routing of the vehicles should be carefully planned. A map of the district should be studied so that the best routes can be laid out. The number of routes to be laid out will depend upon the size of the district, the condition of the roads, and the location of

the homes. If possible the routes should be laid out so that all children are met at their homes so that they will not need to wait in the open. The plan of having parents meet the school bus at some stated point on the road should be carefully avoided in the routing.

The route should be so planned that no child will be on the road more than from forty-five minutes to one hour. The busses should be carefully scheduled, and each parent should have a copy of the schedule, so that all children will be ready when the bus arrives. The bus should not be compelled to wait longer than three minutes for any child. No bus should arrive at the school building earlier than fifteen minutes before the time for opening of school, so that the first children on the route will not need to be ready too early. No child should be compelled to leave home before seven-forty-five o'clock. All drivers should be held strictly to the schedule. Drivers should be under the supervision and authority of the superintendent just as teachers and janitors are. A regular contract should be entered into with drivers and they should be required to furnish bond of about 10 percent. of their annual salary, as surety for the fulfillment of their contract. The importance of their position should be impressed upon them in the beginning. Only men of high character should be employed. It should be understood that the driver has authority over all children while they are in the bus, and the right to a seat should be conditioned upon good behavior. The driver should report daily to the superintendent on an appropriate blank form on such questions as: time of arrival at the

first child's home, disorderly pupils, complaints by parents, condition of roads, time of leaving last child from bus, etc.

Only when the transportation system has been carefully planned and is well supervised, will all parents heartily approve of consolidation.

As an example of how school transportation can be organized and systematized, an extract is given from a letter from the superintendent of one of the consolidated schools of Weld County Colorado.¹

“During the nine months of operation for the school year ending May 19, the transportation fleet of the Ault consolidated schools made a remarkable record not only in the cost of operation but in the maintenance of an accurate time schedule. The district transported in six school busses an average of 262 children each way daily, at a cost of 22 cents per child per day.²

“The busses were operated every school day of the year (175 days) and travelled a grand total of 29,580 miles in the 2,100 round trips. Not a bus failed to make its entire trip, and only twice did a bus arrive late at school. There were only two short delays caused by engine or mechanical troubles during the entire year.

“The original tires which were purchased on the trucks are still in use and are in splendid condition, all of them having gone over 10,000 miles. Tire trouble has occasioned only two short stops during

¹ Sargent, *The Consolidated Schools of Weld County, Colorado*, Rural School Leaflet, No. 13.

² In computing the cost of child per day, both depreciation on the busses and interest on investment were included.

the entire two years' operation; in both cases repairs were made so that all passengers arrived at school on time.

"Every patron is furnished a mimeographed time schedule, which we strive to observe to the minute, thus securing the support and co-operation of those along the routes. Our aim is to constantly improve the service in every possible way, and this has resulted in universal satisfaction."

(Signed)

JESSIE R. SHAW,
Superintendent.

Open Country versus Village Consolidation.—There is some disagreement among rural educators as to which is the best place to erect the new central building, when a consolidation is effected, the open country or the village. Those favoring the open country maintain that the only way to create rural-mindedness and a love for the farm, and to prevent the younger generation from leaving the farm is to have a typical rural school, situated in a rural setting free from the contamination of urban associations, where truly rural life courses may be offered.

Those favoring village consolidation maintain that the natural community center is the village and that we have no right to deprive the child of the development he might receive through associating with village children. We have no right to limit the child's life possibilities to one occupation, farming. The country child's education should be the same as that of the village child, so that he may have the same choice of a life career.

Doubtless there is some weight to arguments on

either side. Our village and city high schools have unquestionably been educating young people away from the farm. The chief reason for this has been, probably, the fact that they offered merely academic or college preparatory courses. They have been unable, because of size, to offer more. But, I do not believe that we can lay the entire blame on the high school. Many young people who have not attended high school, have left the farm merely because the city offered more attractions. Farm life was one round of monotony. The consolidated school is doing much, and can do a great deal, to change this state of affairs. A real consolidated school is more than a place where children meet to receive instruction; it is a community center where all members of the community, large and small, come together and are bound by common ties of social relationship.

In some sections of our country this "community" needs to be created. No former center exists; and here the open country consolidated school is the only solution. This is the case with many of our best consolidations in the West.

In many sections of the country, perhaps, the best consolidations can be effected by including the natural trade and community center—the village—in the consolidated district, by erecting the new central building here. Most of the taxable wealth of the community will be centered in the village, and it is only fair that this wealth, which is created by the community, should help educate the children of the community. Little apprehension need be felt that the village center will spoil the country child for the farm. In the present

age of the automobile he will mingle with much wider circles than his immediate neighborhood, and if farm life is not made more attractive to him than city life, he will leave the farm in spite of a rural school in a rural setting. The problem is not so much one of location as it is one of stimulation. The country boy and girl must be filled with enthusiasm for country life, by having all its possibilities revealed to them. The village center is sufficiently rural in its make-up to make it possible to offer rural life courses together with the other courses. It will be possible to have demonstration plots and to carry on club work just as easily from the village consolidated school as from the open country consolidated school.

It will be a splendid thing to create a consolidated school which will break down the social barriers between country folks and village folks. Each will profit by mingling with the other.

Size of Consolidated District.—The size of the consolidated district will necessarily vary in different parts of the country, but in general we may be guided by three general rules: first, there must be sufficient taxable property to insure adequate school facilities without an exorbitant tax rate; second, there must be enough children to maintain a good graded school including a high school; third, there must be adequate organization for providing and housing qualified teachers, and for transporting the children.

There is agreement among rural educators that the taxable valuation of the district should not be lower than \$2,000,000. The number of children in the grades should not be below 80, in order to maintain a four-

teacher graded school, nor below 60 to maintain a four-year high school. The distance children must be transported should not exceed one hour's ride for the farthest child.

These in general are the minimum requirements for forming a consolidated district. The better and more desirable types of consolidation are, of course, built on a much larger scale. Most states now set the legal minimum requirements, so that reasonable success may be assured to the district.

Cost of the Consolidated School.—Perhaps, one reason why consolidation has moved slowly in many rural sections is the increased cost of this type of school over the old type. The rural school patrons have been accustomed to paying a low school tax, and any move that would tend to increase this tax levy is viewed with disfavor. It must be conceded that except in extraordinary cases, the consolidated schools costs more than the one-teacher school when measured in pure cash outlay. But when the increased educational advantages of the consolidated school over the one-teacher school are considered, the consolidated school is the cheaper of the two.

State Consolidated School Inspector, George A. Brown, of Iowa, made a comparative study of fourteen consolidated schools of Buena Vista County, where consolidation was commenced early, with fourteen large first class cities of Iowa, and comes to the following conclusion:³

“Comparison of the cost of schools in first class cities doing the same type of work and the same amount

³ *Iowa's Consolidated Schools*, issued by State Supt. McClenahan.

of work, shows conclusively that the consolidated school is the cheapest school in the State of Iowa, giving twelve years of education to the girls and boys in the community.”

TABLE 2

TAX LEVY IN MILLS FOR SCHOOL PURPOSES

City Schools	Mills	Consolidated Schools	Mills
Clinton	124.4	Alta	58.0
Waterloo (West)	117.0	Brooke Township	56.0
Fort Dodge	100.0	Fairview	43.6
Council Bluffs	102.0	Hayes Township	24.5
Boone	97.3	Highview	39.2
Mason City	93.0	Lincoln-Lee	32.2
Marshalltown	91.0	Linn Grove	48.0
Iowa City	88.2	Marathon	53.3
Waterloo (East)	85.2	Newell	57.0
Ottumwa	78.8	Providence Township	33.4
Cedar Rapids	78.0	Rembrandt	65.6
Muscatine	76.0	Sioux Rapids	64.0
Burlington	70.0	Truesdale	41.6
Des Moines	67.0	Albert City	64.2

State Superintendent E. C. Brooks of North Carolina made a comparison of the per capita cost of instruction in consolidated schools and one- and two-teacher schools and reports as follows: ⁴

“The records in the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction show that, almost without exception, the per capita cost for instruction in counties in which a majority of the children of the rural districts attend one-room and two-room schools is

⁴ *Consolidation of Schools and the Cost of Transportation*, E. C. Brooks, Superintendent of Public Instruction, North Carolina, p. 4.

higher than in counties that have created the larger unit, and, as a rule, the former has a lower grade of teachers. It is a fact that the cost of instruction plus the cost of transportation in counties having consolidation is no higher than the per capita cost of instruction alone in some of the more backward counties.”

The argument should not be for a cheaper school but for the best possible school that the community can afford, and the best possible school that we know of for the average rural community is the consolidated school.

Two examples of what can be done in typical rural communities, where an active consolidation campaign is carried on, are selected for partial reproduction here. The first is the Consolidated Program of Weld County, Colorado, a county organized on the district system; the second is that of Randolph County, Indiana, a county organized on the township basis.

The Consolidation Program of Weld County, Colorado.⁵—The public schools of Weld County are organized on the district system. Each school district is a body corporate, with a board of education of three or more directors, and is entirely independent of other districts in all essential matters relating to the administration of its schools. Consolidation is brought about by local initiative, through a process of petition and election.

Buildings.—Eighty-five old schoolhouses of the one-room variety have been abandoned, and new and modern school buildings, complete in every respect, in-

⁵ Sargent, *The Consolidated Schools of Weld County, Colorado*, Rural School Leaflet, No. 13.

cluding modern motor bus transportation systems, have already replaced them, or will replace them just as soon as the plans now pending are carried to completion. The present values of the new school plants and their equipment is \$1,578,450. This is at least one hundred times greater than the combined value of the

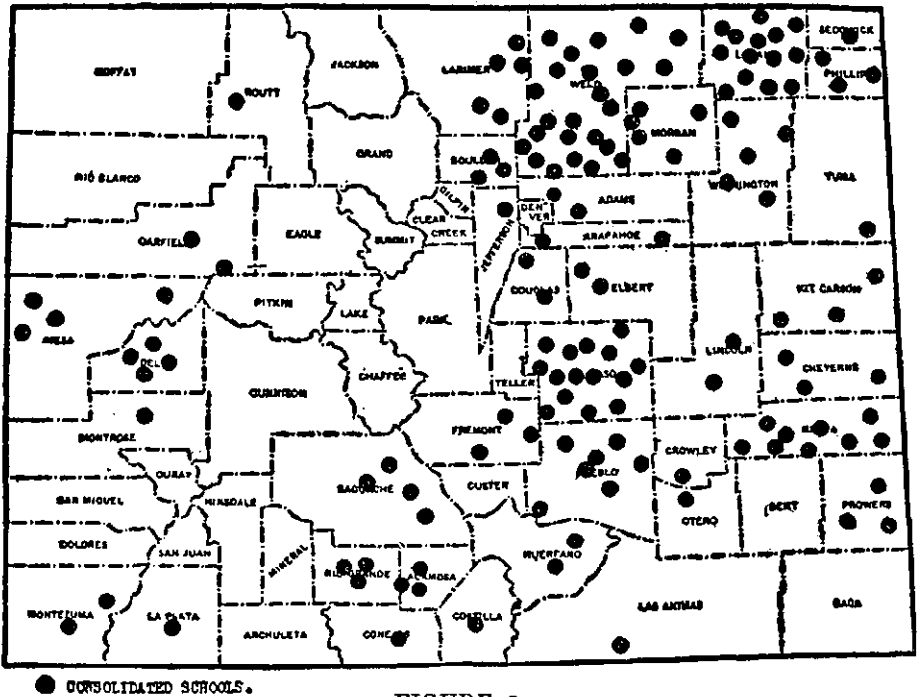


FIGURE 8

THE LOCATION OF THE CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS OF COLORADO

The consolidation program of Weld County is explained in the text

eighty-five abandoned buildings, most of them having been in use many years. Many of them were utterly unfit for any purpose. This comparison in cash value of the old and the new schools speaks volumes for the efficiency of the new ones.

Transportation.—Eighty warm, comfortable motor

busses, some carrying sixty or more children at a load, transport the country children to these consolidated schools. The children of several nationalities, some of them recent immigrants to our country, ride to school together, study and recite together, play together in their own school, and compete in teams against similar schools. This continues regularly five days a week, nine months a year. It is one of the best Americanization agencies yet provided.

Some of the districts are very large when compared with consolidated districts in other states, a few comprising more than one hundred square miles. A small number of children, those that live on the extreme edges of the large districts, ride twenty miles twice a day. But, in spite of poor roads in parts of the more remote sections of the county, in spite of sandy land in some districts, mud at certain seasons, and drifting snow at others, the children get to school much more regularly than ever before. More of them now attend school than ever attended the old schools. Tardiness on the part of the children who are transported has been almost eliminated. Motor busses make good roads a necessity, and much permanent road improvement has followed the consolidation of schools. The good roads are not only a help to the school but a valuable asset to the farmer in making frequent trips to his trading center and in marketing his crops.

Teachers.—All the consolidated schools are graded. They employ 222 teachers. In education, professional training, successful teaching experience, and maturity the teachers are vastly superior to those that were in the old schools. Moreover, twenty-four of the twenty-

five consolidated schools have trained, experienced superintendents to supervise, assist, encourage, and inspire the teachers, parents, and pupils. This important school official was wholly lacking in all of the old, country schools.

Enrollment and Attendance.—The twenty-five schools enroll at the present time a total of 6,265. This is probably 40 percent. more than were ever in the old schools. All enjoy approximately equal opportunities to secure an education in healthy and wholesome surroundings. Of the total enrollment 5,338 are in the first eight grades, the most important part of the school system. But, 927 are in the four years of high school. This represents a clear gain of four years of schooling for the country children. They had no high school before consolidation unless, of course, they were fortunate enough to be able to go away from home to some town school. There are now nineteen consolidated schools offering the full four-year high school course. With the possible exception of two or three of the smallest ones, all the other consolidated school plan ultimately to establish high schools.

Courses of Study.—The courses of study in these schools offer approximately the same advantages as those found in all other good schools in this part of the state. The regular elementary and academic subjects are taught, and well taught, by trained and experienced teachers, so that the children graduating from high schools in any of the consolidated districts may enter any of the colleges or universities of the state. Some of the larger and stronger ones offer good commercial courses; some give courses in school

music; and most of them have musical organizations such as glee clubs, orchestras, and bands. Most of them give courses in cooking, sewing, and the arts of housekeeping and home-making. Quite a number serve school lunches. A few offer courses in vocational home-making and vocational agriculture and receive State and Federal reimbursement under the national education act. In other words, they are real schools while the old ones were schools in name only.

Consolidation in Randolph County, Indiana.⁶—Randolph County is situated near the central part of the eastern boundary of Indiana. It is 447 square miles in area. The population of the county in 1920 was 26,484 or 59.2 to the square mile. Nearly all, 98.3 percent., of the people were born of white parentage. Illiteracy is nine-tenths of one percent. The number of families is reported as 7,307. It is purely an agricultural county, with only two small cities and very few small towns. The farms constitute 96.7 percent. of the county area.

Educational Conditions.—The county is divided into twelve civil townships, ranging in size from twenty-four to seventy-four square miles and in assessed valuation from three to ten millions of dollars. Each township is a school district and elects a trustee for a term of four years. The township trustees select the county superintendent.

There were originally 131 one-room schools located at the cross-roads and two miles apart. The county reported sixteen of these schools as having an average daily attendance of five to ten, twelve schools as having

⁶ Rural School Leaflet, No. 12, O. H. Greist.

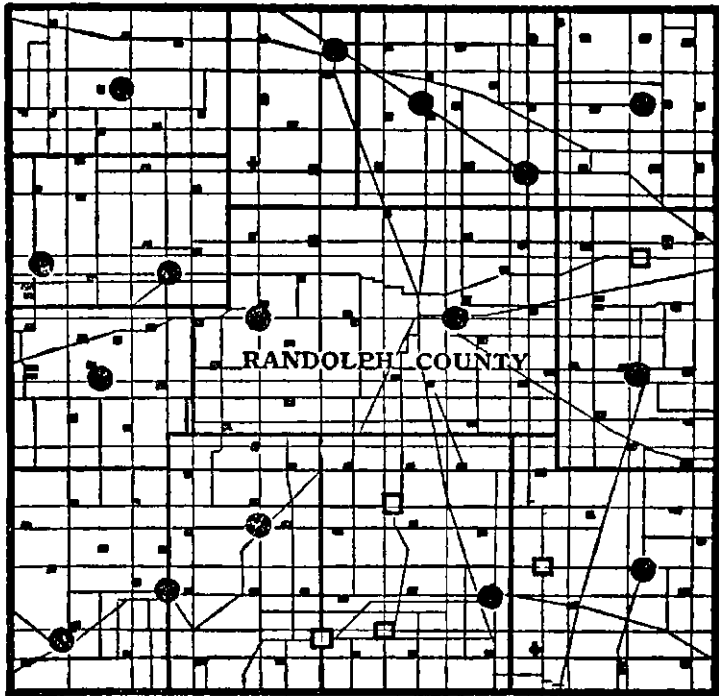


FIGURE 9

RANDOLPH COUNTY, INDIANA, SHOWING PROGRESS OF CONSOLIDATION

The large black circles indicate the position of consolidated grade and high schools, the hollow squares indicate consolidated grade schools; the three crosses indicate the one-room schools that survived until 1923 when two of these were abandoned, leaving only one one-room school in the county at present; and the small black dots indicate the abandoned schools. The heavy black lines indicate township lines. The county is approximately twenty miles square.
 (From Cubberley, *Rural Life and Education*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston)

ten to fifteen, and thirty-five schools as having fifteen to twenty. All were of the usual type of one-room schools with poor equipment, poor buildings, unkempt school grounds, and dilapidated outbuildings. Mud roads had given way to gravel and macadamized roads, the old churches had been remodelled, new farm homes had been built; in fact, everything in the community

had responded to the spirit of progress except the schools. They were forty years behind the other factors of community life.

A campaign was begun and every energy was directed to better the rural schools, which meant the consolidation of the rural schools. Of course, the opposition was very pronounced, but the county was fortunate in having boards of township trustees who were open-minded, progressive and fearless, and above all, had the one great purpose of doing the best that possibly could be done for children.

Consolidation was begun by the erection of a building at Lynn in 1901. The movement spread year after year. By 1920 only six of the 131 one-room schools remained. There were in March, 1923, four one-room schools, and three of the four were abandoned at the close of the term. At present (1926) one is still in existence, the only one in the county. (See Map, page 68.) Of the nineteen consolidated schools now established, sixteen are grade schools and four-year commissioned high schools, and three are consolidated grade schools.

Buildings and Grounds.—Seventeen of the buildings range from five to fifteen rooms. Fourteen of the buildings are in the open country; five are in towns. Three of the town schools have playgrounds of one square each; the remaining schools have from three to six acres used for playground purposes. Each of the buildings is modern in every particular, having the proper amount of light correctly located, furnace or steam heat with forced ventilation, sanitary drinking fountains, flush system of toilets, and hot and cold

water for domestic science tables. About half of them have shower baths, play rooms, and teachers' rest rooms. All have kitchens, manual training shops, and rooms for agriculture and sewing. Seventeen of them have auditoriums seating from 250 to 600.

Community Activities.—No school is at its best unless it functions as a community, and neither is a community at its best unless its interests center in and around its school. The school buildings are used for all kinds of legitimate community meetings such as farmers' institutes, community clubs, parent-teachers' association, farmers' clubs, Sunday school conventions, community socials, lecture courses, school plays, and concerts. Most of the commencements are held in the school buildings. These have brought people together who otherwise would have been almost unknown to each other, and whose influence upon the community would have been lost.

The consolidated schools offer a medium of organization that cannot be found otherwise. The work of the county agricultural agent is largely amplified through the organizations made possible by the schools. The meetings of the farmers' federation and other organizations are held in them, and they encourage a large number of boys' and girls' pig, corn, and canning clubs.

Perhaps, no one thing offered by the consolidated school does more for the elevation of the community life than music. Through the influence of the school the class of music used in the home has been raised. Victrolas have been purchased, and children have been induced to take lessons in instrumental music that they

may join the orchestra. Each school has one or more pianos, and nearly all have victrolas and orchestras.

High Schools.—The sixteen consolidated schools which have four-year commissioned high school courses make it possible for every boy and girl in the county to attend high school within easy driving distance of their homes and thus be at home in the evenings. Prior to consolidation comparatively few eighth-grade graduates entered high school. A thorough investigation of each of the townships shows that for five years previous to consolidation the percentage of eighth-grade graduates to enter high school was as low as 21 percent. in one township and as high as 50 percent. in another, the average for the county being less than forty percent. Since consolidation the entire county has averaged more than 93 percent.

Transportation.—The problem of transportation has successfully worked out. Children have been transported to the schools in this county for twenty-one years, and in all that time only two of them were ever injured, and those only slightly. For years the board of education has required heated, ventilated wagons having glass sides. Well-qualified men are employed to drive these hacks. They are paid from \$60 to \$65 a month. They must give bond to execute the contract which contains a schedule of arrival and departure from each given point on the hack route, going and returning. They are required to stop at all railroad crossings and ascertain whether the crossing may be made safely. They must not use tobacco on the school wagon, nor permit its use either coming to or going from school. They report to the principal each morn-

ing as to the condition of the roads, attendance, causes of delay, and the deportment of the children.

The 3,133 children that are transported daily are much more easily looked after than those that walk to school. It is very seldom that any difficulty occurs on the wagon. Children are transported from one-fourth to eight and three-fourths miles one way. The average ride in the school bus is 3.8 miles. A few are on the road as much as an hour and forty minutes, but for the most part they are in transit not over thirty to forty-five minutes. Costs of transportation range from ten to twenty-two cents per pupil per day. The percentage of average daily attendance in none of the elementary schools is below ninety; in eleven of them it is above ninety-five.

Sixteen horse-drawn hacks, and one hundred and six automobile busses are used. The wagons carry about twenty pupils each, and the auto busses twenty-five to thirty each load. Some busses make a double trip. A few pupils use their own conveyances and are paid for doing so. Some children are transported by inter urban trolleys to five of the schools. Objections to transportation do not come from those that ride but from those that walk.

If a tree is known by its fruits, the excellence of the schools can be determined by the sort of men and women coming from them. When judged by this standard, the consolidated schools of Randolph County are giving a good account of themselves.

Advantages of Consolidation.—Some of the advantages usually claimed for the consolidated school will be enumerated. In general they are those of the large

school, with adequate financial support and a large enough number of pupils to permit proper organization and administration and adequate curriculum provisions, over the small, inadequately supported one-room school. The following are some of these advantages:

1. Better organization. Pupils can be graded and classified better because there are more of them, thus making it possible to form regular "grades," in charge of grade teachers.

2. Better teaching. With a teacher in charge of only one or two grades, instead of all eight, as is often the case in the one-room school, much better work can be done. It is simply the application of the principle of specialization.

3. Better teachers. The consolidated school can attract, and hold, the better qualified teacher, just as the city does at present.

4. Better attendance. When the bus calls at the home of the child in the morning and safely returns him at night, the problem of tardiness and absence vanishes.

5. Better health and morals. The modern sanitary school bus operated by a competent, upright driver, protects children from exposure to weather and indecencies on the road.

6. Better school buildings. The modern consolidated school building is the last word in schoolhouse planning and construction.

7. Better equipment and apparatus, with less duplication.

8. Better library facilities. The large district

makes it possible to have more books and apparatus at a much lower cost than could be had at the small schools.

9. Better supervision of instruction. The consolidated school has a supervisor on the grounds all the time, thus making it possible to have better and closer supervision and to have it when and where it is most needed.

10. Provides for high school training at home. The consolidated district should be planned so that it will be large enough to offer a four-year high school course. This makes it possible for all to avail themselves of a high school education without the heavy expense of going away to high school.

11. Provides for differentiated courses. Agriculture, domestic science, music, drawing, etc., can be taught by special teachers, whereas this would be impossible in scattered one-room schools.

12. Provides for civic-social opportunities. The school becomes the community center, where civic and social gatherings may be held regularly.

13. It stabilizes the country. People do not have to move to town to educate their children, and so a better class of citizens remains in the country. This leads to community improvement—better homes, better grounds, better roads, etc.

14. It gives every child an equal opportunity for education regardless of wealth, or distance from school. All have equal length of school term.

15. It has a greater holding power on the child. Many more children complete the eighth grade and the

high school in the consolidated district than do so in the one-room district.

16. The consolidated school is less expensive to the parents whose children go through the high school.

17. It makes it possible to have better school officials.

18. It eliminates petty jealousies among parents because narrow neighborhood interests are lessened, if not entirely eliminated, by the wider community interests.

19. The circle of acquaintance of children is widened, thus developing initiative, self-reliance, and individuality.

20. It makes the farm an ideal place on which to live and bring up the children; and it creates an interest in country life.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Name the objections that are commonly given for consolidation. Are they real or mostly imaginary?
2. Why does consolidation move so much slower in states organized on the district system, than it does in states organized on the township and county system?
3. Why are compulsory consolidation laws almost sure to fail, as they have in several states? Look up the laws in your state.
4. Make a clear distinction between the types of consolidation mentioned in this chapter.
5. What effect has consolidation had upon good roads in your county?
6. Enumerate the problems to be considered in providing for adequate transportation of pupils.
7. Is there anything to be said in favor of "wing" schools?

8. Debate, "Resolved that the open country consolidated school, is more desirable than the village consolidated school."
9. Compare the course of study of the one-room school with that of the consolidated school. Of what nature are most of the important differences?
10. How do the preparation and general qualifications of teachers of the two schools mentioned in the preceding question compare?
11. What other important differences exist between these two types of schools?
12. What factors affect the size of the consolidated district?
13. What is meant by "per pupil" cost of instruction? How does this compare in one-room schools and consolidated schools in your county?
14. What is the best way to avoid the "stranding" of districts in a county? What causes districts to become "stranded"?
15. What are the advantages of the community unit for consolidation?
16. If you were the superintendent of a county planning a consolidation program, what would be your line of attack? Outline your procedure.
17. Prepare to give a report on one good consolidated school, such as the Sargent Consolidated School of Colorado. Include in your report, early beginnings, cost, buildings, transportation, curriculum, activities, community work, etc.
18. Does the one-room school have any excuse for being at all? Explain.
19. Prepare a brief talk on the subject, "The consolidated school in relation to community life."

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. Trace the evolution of the movement for consolidation from its early beginning in New England to the present.
2. Report on the "Community High Schools" of Illinois.
3. Work out a program of consolidation for your community. This will include valuation, buildings, transportation, etc.

4. What is the relative efficiency of instruction in one-room rural schools and consolidated schools?
5. The extent of consolidation in your state (map). Of the country.

References

- Arp, J. B., *Rural Education and the Consolidated School*.
- Blair, F. G., *Consolidated Schools of Illinois*.
- Brown, G. A., *Iowa's Consolidated Schools*.
- Carney, Mabel, *Country Life and the Country School*, Chapter VIII.
- Cubberley, E. P., *Rural Life and Education*, Chapters X-XIV.
- Foght, H. W., *The American Rural School*, Chapter XV.
- Rapeer, L. W., and Others, *The Consolidated Rural School*.
- Sargent, C. G., *Consolidated Schools of Mountains, Valleys, and Plains of Colorado*.
- Showalter, N. D., *Hand Book for Rural School Officers*, Chapter XV.
- Wilkinson, W. A., *Rural School Management*, Chapter XVI.
- See U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletins.

CHAPTER IV

SUPERVISION OF RURAL SCHOOLS

What is Rural School Supervision?—In the popular mind the term supervision is closely associated with the annual inspectional visit of the county superintendent; but, in at least a few of our most progressive states this notion is being expanded to include not merely inspection but also improvement of instruction. Among rural educators a two-fold classification of supervision has evolved—administrative supervision and instructional supervision. It is true that in most sections of the country both of these functions are performed by the same person, the county superintendent; and in many cases where he is provided with assistants, no clear distinction between the two is drawn.

Before considering these two types of supervision, let us consider the present rural school situation, so that we may understand more clearly the need for professional supervision.

There are in the United States approximately 400,000 rural and village teachers, and about eleven million children attend these schools. About 300,000 of these teachers have no supervision other than that of the county superintendent. Only six states have state-wide employment of rural supervisors; 18 percent. of

the counties in the United States employ assistant superintendents; 29 percent. have clerical assistants, and the average territory over which superintendents have to travel in visiting schools is 1672 square miles. Add to this situation the facts that only 45 percent. of the one-room teachers in the country are high school graduates and that less than two percent. have completed normal school, and the need for some sort of help for rural teachers is apparent.

There are three factors which make for skillful teaching—native teaching ability, academic and professional training, and opportunity to gain experience under intelligent guidance. The second and third of these are seriously lacking in the rural school, and only through good supervision can they be obtained.

The rapid turnover of teachers in the rural schools, too, makes it necessary to take on beginners and these are sorely in need of guidance. It has been figured that in places with a population of 8,000 and over, teachers remain in the same school 9.47 years, while in the one-room school they remain 1.3 years. This poor situation tends to cheapen the schools. Farmers with ambition for their children move to town, thus depriving the community not only of their financial support but also—and far more seriously—of future leaders.

The country child is not given an equal chance with the city child. All the state survey reports show that rural children are from one to two years behind city children in school achievement. This is due chiefly to the untrained, unguided, rural school teacher.

It seems unnecessary to provide more evidence for

the need of professional supervision in rural schools. Let us now consider supervision from the administrative and the instructional standpoint.

Administrative Supervision.—Administrative supervision has to do with the planning of the whole educational system; with the co-ordination of its parts; and with the assuring of the efficiency of each part. In other words, the superintendent, who is the administrative supervisor, is responsible for the general policies of the whole system and for the efficiency of the instruction. He must provide the aims, means, methods, and conditions for efficient instruction. In order to do this, he must secure the co-operation of school trustees, teachers, and various community organizations. He must know his teaching personnel and it should help form the educational policy. He should conduct teachers' meetings, institutes, etc.; and he should visit each school personally at least once annually. In these visits he will make general suggestions and emphasize such plans as his lieutenants, the supervising teachers, are working out. Other phases of administrative supervision are: school finance and accounting; building and equipment; teachers' salaries, qualifications, promotion; reports and records; legislation; etc. The course of study and selection of textbooks should be determined by the superintendent and his lieutenants.

Instructional Supervision.—Instructional supervision concerns itself entirely with the improvement of instruction, or, as one writer has put it, with the improvement of rural teachers in service. The supervisors, variously known as assistant superintendents,

supervising teachers, helping teachers, etc., are themselves expert teachers and are well trained professionally, so that they can lead, instruct, and inspire teachers. The chief functions of the supervisor as determined by a study made by Fannie W. Dunn, of Teachers College Columbia University, are as follows:

1. Advising as to methods of work.
2. Determining special methods for required use.
3. Consulting with the teacher, on the teacher's initiative, on matters of in-school work.
4. Recommending as to details of in-school work.
5. Observing instruction and management, and offering suggestions for development.
6. Guiding the work of local or group teachers' meetings.
7. Assisting teachers in organizing various types of school clubs.
8. Advising as to professional reading and study.
9. Interpreting returns from tests and laying the results of tests before the teacher.

Qualifications of Supervisors.—From the above list of functions it is obvious that the supervisor needs certain special qualifications in order to fill his position efficiently. First of all, he must be a thorough student of subject matter, methods of teaching, and classroom requirements. Second, he must be able to demonstrate various teaching methods. Third, he should have several years of practical experience besides theoretical study in normal school or college. Fourth, he should have a practical working knowledge of psychology, especially in the field of tests and measure-

ments. Fifth, he should be a leader, with the qualifications that go with leadership. His success will depend upon securing the co-operation of his teachers. Sixth, he must be able to direct his teachers in professional reading.

The supervisor must recognize that he is existing for the benefit of the teachers and pupils. With this thought uppermost in his mind he will center his efforts on the teaching performance, which is the core of his work.

The supervisor will need to keep growing himself. He will need to keep in touch with other supervisors, and know what others are thinking and doing. Attendance at summer school is one good means of continuing to grow. Occasional group meetings of supervisors with state officers is another good means. W. S. Dakin, regional director of the state of Connecticut, recommends that the supervising force be recruited from the teaching force. He believes that it is better to select a successful rural school teacher and give her an apprenticeship training under a regular supervisor, together with a course in professional reading or attendance at a summer school, than to select college people. The latter are rarely country-minded and consequently they are not permanent candidates.

The Supervisory Unit.—In a preceding paragraph it was stated that the average territory over which superintendents had to travel in supervising their schools was 1,672 square miles. Now, it is perfectly ridiculous to expect anything like adequate supervision with such a large territory for one supervisor. Under such circumstances all that can be expected of

the superintendent is the annual visit. Most of his time is occupied with clerical work, and much of his time must be spent on the road.

It is sound theory that the administrative and the supervisory units should be the same. The functions of each are so closely allied that the same authority should control both. As an illustration of this we might cite the following: employment and placing of teachers; regulation of salary; adoption of course of study; selection of textbooks. These cannot be effected by trustees who do not know or do not regard the policies of the superintendent. In our cities it is generally true that municipal and civil units coincide with the unit for school administration and supervision. This simplifies the financial and business management and results in greater efficiency and economy. But in the majority of our rural school systems this is not true. The county is the unit for supervision in all states except New England, Nevada, New York, Delaware, and parts of Ohio, Virginia, and West Virginia. The unit for administration is shown in the map on page 10.

In general the supervisory unit in the New England States is the town. Both rural schools and city schools within the boundaries are under the supervision of the same superintendent, or state agent, as he is called in Connecticut. Often two or more towns unite to form a supervisory district or Union. This system has the advantage of having a small territory and a small number of teachers per supervisor, and it gives the rural schools the same supervision that the city schools have. In Maine, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island, the

responsibility of supervision is chiefly local with state subsidy; while in Vermont, New Hampshire, and Connecticut the state assumes the larger share of the responsibility. Nevada, New York, and Delaware, each, have some form of direct state supervision without intermediate units.

Supervisory Plans.—Supervisory plans used in the various states may be classified into three types: (1) regional or district—sometimes called the “zone” plan; (2) special subject or grade plan, and (3) combination regional and special subject plan.

Under the regional plan the county or state is divided into regions or districts and all the schools in the district are under the supervision of one person. The advantages held for this plan are that the supervisor secures better co-operation of the teachers. There is a closer understanding between supervisor and teachers and this makes it more likely that they will follow out the supervisor’s suggestions. The fact that there is one supervisor for all subjects encourages general development in all the subjects rather than specialization. Too many supervisors are likely to confuse the inexperienced teacher rather than help her out of difficulties.

The daily program and the course of study can be made and applied best where but one supervisor is concerned. Special supervisors are bound to stress their pet subject and give it undue emphasis. With several special supervisors in the field, chaos is liable to result.

With our present knowledge of standard tests and intelligence tests, pupils’ achievement and intelligence

can best be tested and more valid conclusions can be drawn when the same person does all the testing, or at least the directing of it, and interprets the results on the basis of an intimate knowledge of pupils and conditions. This knowledge cannot be had unless the supervisor works one section intensively. So also, with the classification and gradation of pupils, it requires an intimate knowledge of the pupil and his environment. The human element must never be relegated to the background even when using objective means of classification and gradation.

Then, there is the question of rating teachers. Supervisors are often asked to rate their teachers. Unless a supervisor has worked in the same region with the same teachers for some length of time it will be difficult to make a fair rating of each teacher. No matter what criteria the supervisor may use in judging the efficiency of his teachers, he cannot dispense with that most valuable information which comes through knowing a person through personal contact. Objective tests and infrequent visitation do not discover the subtleties which go to make up a personality.

Then, finally, there is duplication of effort and added expense where more than one supervisor covers the same territory.

Under the second plan, special subject or grade supervision, the work is divided on the basis of either subjects or grades or a combination of each. This plan is used rather extensively in city school systems where it is possible to have special subject supervisors. Here the grade school principals exercise the supervision which would correspond to the regional plan.

Several states use the combination grade-subject plan, having special supervisors for each of the following groups: primary, elementary, high school; and special subject supervisors, as for music, agriculture, English, etc. The chief advantage of this plan lies in the fact that the supervision is really expert supervision. The chief disadvantages have been enumerated in the preceding paragraphs, the chief one being that it is impersonal supervision.

Under the third plan—combination of regional and special supervision—the work is regional for the ordinary elementary and high school subjects, while for the special subjects, such as music, art, home economics, manual training, agriculture, etc., it is special. This plan combines the advantages of the first two plans and eliminates as much as possible the disadvantages of each.

Let us now examine some of the supervisory programs being practiced in some of the most progressive states educationally.

Connecticut.—In this state the town system is in use, and supervision is of two kinds: (a) under local control, with a superintendent employed by the town school committee; (b) under centralized state control. Towns of twenty schools or less are eligible under the latter system. The state employs and pays the entire salary of the supervisors (called supervising agents). They have no administrative authority and the town school committee may grant or withhold powers at will. In order to carry out the regulations of the state board of education the supervising agents must be able to get along with the town school committee.

The supervisory district may be made up of one or more towns, none of which has more than twenty teachers. Each supervising agent supervises about thirty teachers.

Academic and professional qualities are required to qualify for the supervisor's certificate.

Under the Connecticut scheme there is unity of procedure throughout the state, but plenty of latitude for individual expression. The chief merit of this scheme is the superior team work of the supervisors themselves. Numerous committees and group meetings are held where problems are reported and discussed, and policies are worked out.

A special feature of the Connecticut idea is the model school. There is one for every twenty teachers. These model schools, for which superior teachers are selected by the supervising agents, are used as demonstration schools. Another feature of the Connecticut idea is the use of plan books. These are worked out by a committee of supervisors. In them the teacher writes brief lesson plans which are a help to the teacher and to the supervisor. A note-book in which the supervisor records his criticisms is left with the teacher. The supervisor's visit is closed by an oral consultation with the teacher.

New Jersey.—New Jersey is organized under the township basis of administration, and the county basis of supervision. The state has greatly increased its supervisory efficiency by means of the helping teacher. For each county from one to four helping teachers are selected by the Commissioner of Education, and are appointed by the State Board of Education. They are

considered state officials, but they are responsible to the county superintendent. Each helping teacher has from twenty to fifty teachers in her charge. Her work is concerned wholly with the efficiency of the classroom teacher.

Just before the opening of school in the fall a two-day institute is held in all counties under the direction of the State Department of Education. The county superintendents and helping teachers of the state meet twice a year. In this way a reasonable uniformity is effected throughout the state.

In general, the supervision is carried on by means of: personal visits, group meetings, county institutes, circular letters, demonstration teaching, individual instruction, and standard tests.

Local group teachers' meetings are conducted according to schedules worked out in advance and sent to all teachers. The meetings are held on regular school days and the children are dismissed at one p. m. At these meetings there is usually a demonstration lesson by one of the regular teachers. The lessons are planned to illustrate selected principles or methods. The discussion is led by the helping teacher. Teachers present are expected to ask questions or to give constructive criticism.

Some of the special progressive features that have been carried on in New Jersey are: standard tests, alternation by grades, extension classes, project method meetings, stimulation of school clubs, socialized recitation, teachers' councils, and school lunch.

Wisconsin.—In this state the district is the prevailing form for administration, and the county for super-

vision. The law of 1915 provides for assistants to the county superintendent, called supervising teachers. The committee on county schools, a fiscal body, annually appoints the supervising teachers, on the nomination of the county superintendent. Each county is entitled to one supervising teacher, and counties having more than 125 schools may appoint two. Their salary is paid from state funds. The state superintendent exercises a great deal of direction over their work. The plan is in the favor of county officials and teachers, for nearly all counties eligible for two supervising teachers have appointed them.

Qualifications of Supervising Teachers.—First or second grade certificate or graduate of county training school, or teachers' training department in high school; and at least three years of successful teaching, one of which must be in a rural school, are the qualifications necessary for supervising teachers.

As in the case of Connecticut, these supervisors have little legal authority, but must establish themselves in the minds of the teachers and pupils by the quality of their work and the force of their personalities.

Work of Supervising Teachers.—The county is divided into one or two supervisory districts and these districts are subdivided into sections. Local meetings are held monthly in each section where the supervising teacher gives general suggestions on classroom work; gives demonstration lessons; outlines plans and projects for organization, management, and instruction, etc. Besides supervising the instruction, the supervising teacher gives attention to the grounds and the buildings, and makes suggestions to school boards.

A plan used by some supervising teachers is to keep a map of the district showing the condition of each school by means of symbols.

Many supervising teachers give attention to community work. They stimulate interest in farmers' institutes, short courses, school fairs, and exhibits for county and state fairs, annual play day in the county, and have numerous evening community meetings.

Supervision in Consolidated Districts.—The Ohio law provides that any district wholly centralized may be a separate supervisory district. Each board of such a district may appoint a superintendent who works under the general direction of the county superintendent. The plan is to have the board select the superintendent after conference with, and upon the nomination of, the county superintendent. The duties of the superintendent are similar to those of a supervising principal. He has charge of one or two buildings. He spends from one-third to three-fourths of his time in supervising and the rest in teaching. The advantages of this plan are that the superintendent is on the grounds all the time and can give more time to supervision. In short, this plan provides for all the advantages of the consolidated school which has been discussed in Chapter III.

Utah and Maryland.—The strong form of county administration prevails in these states. The advantages of this form of organization have been discussed fully in Chapter I and these apply directly to the supervisory aspect. The strength of this form is to be found in the small responsible county board of education, which appoints the county superintendent, thus

removing him from the political arena and leaving him free to carry out his educational policies.

Special mention should be made of Baltimore County, Maryland, for this county is, perhaps, the best example of efficient administration and supervision in the United States. The supervisory aspect only will be outlined here. The county is divided into three supervisory units: (a) suburban, which consists of the larger graded schools near the city of Baltimore, which are divided into a primary department (first three grades) in charge of a supervisor and helping teacher, and a grammar grade department (grades four to eight) in charge of a supervisor and helping teacher; (b) middle zone group composed of one-, two-, and a few three-room schools in the semi-urban belt of the county, in charge of a helping teacher; (c) rural group, composed of twenty-eight one-room schools and twelve two-room schools in the strictly rural section of the county, under the supervision of a helping teacher. The supervisory force of Baltimore County, thus consists of six supervisory or helping teachers.

Supervisory Methods used in Baltimore County.¹

1. School year opened with a two weeks Institute, held at Towson Normal School. All teachers attended.

Classes were held in composition and geography, and discussions on various topics, such as teaching pupils how to study, evaluation of teaching, tests, etc., were conducted.

2. Determining definite objectives for the year. These were the outgrowth of specific needs of the

¹ Maryland School Bulletin, Vol. 5, No. 2.

classroom as seen by the teachers and supervisors.

The objectives for one year were:

- (a) Careful planning of work. (A definite plan of work in permanent form was kept by each teacher.)
- (b) Improvement in handwriting. (Legibility in all written work should be expected of every child in every grade.)
- (c) Silent reading attainment of standard in comprehension. (One of the state-wide objectives for the year.)
- (d) Improvement of the teaching of composition.
 1. Activities and experiences in which the children naturally engage should be used as a basis for the oral and written composition work.
 2. Each teacher must insist upon correct sentence structure in speaking and writing in all subjects.

3. Teachers' Meetings.

Four meetings were held for each—the one-teacher group and the two-teacher group. At these meetings topics of general interest to all were discussed.

4. Demonstration and Critiques.

Three centers were chosen in the county so all teachers could attend one demonstration. Classes were held until noon, when the children were dismissed and the afternoon was devoted to intelligent discussions.

5. Voluntary local meetings.

6. Study of professional books.

7. Standard tests and follow-up work.

8. Publicity work meetings, lectures, newspaper publicity, etc.

While the states mentioned above undoubtedly have excellent supervisory provisions—perhaps the best—yet it must not be inferred that the others are doing nothing in the supervisory line. Others could be mentioned—Massachusetts, Alabama, Maine—that are doing splendid work. The states selected are chosen because they represent certain types of supervision more clearly than do the others.

Difficulties of Supervision.—Real professional supervision of rural schools is just beginning. Until the rural population awakes to the seriousness of its school problem, and removes some of the difficulties in the way of expert supervision we cannot hope to better the situation much. What are some of these difficulties? They are practically the same today as Mabel Carney stated them over a decade ago:²

1. Difficulties arising from the status of the rural teaching force.

(a) Country teachers are largely untrained and transient.

(b) Each supervisor has far too many teachers to direct.

(c) These numerous untrained workers are not even centrally located.

2. Difficulties arising from the limitation and defects of the country school system.

Teaching methods, school management, boarding place dilemmas, neighborhood feuds, etc.

² *Country Life and the Country School*, Chapter XII.

3. Difficulties arising from ignorance and neglect on the part of the school officers and patrons.

Ignorance of legal aspects, inability to make reports properly, inertia and unprogressiveness.

4. Difficulties arising from the present general system of rural supervision.

(a) Political hindrances.

(b) Insufficient financial compensation.

(c) Too much work.

5. Difficulties arising through the lack of special training on the part of county superintendents.

What are the Values of Supervision?—Pittman³ has demonstrated experimentally that carefully supervised schools are almost twice (90 percent.) as efficient as unsupervised schools. The factors that go to make up this greater efficiency of supervised schools have been variously stated throughout this chapter, but perhaps the best summary of the supervisor's value to the teacher has been presented by Mary D. Pierce, Elementary Supervisor of the State of Virginia,⁴ in an article entitled "What the Teacher Should Expect from the Supervisor." These values are as follows:

1. More attention in general to the teaching side of school work.

2. Better understanding of teaching effort and surer recognition of teaching merit.

3. Inspiration to professional growth.

4. Benefits from state and national movements.

5. Instructional leadership.

6. Support of superintendents' policies.

³ See Zone Plan of Supervision.

⁴ *Journal of Rural Education*, Volume I, No. 7.

7. Graded improvement of school system.
8. More voice in the formation of school policies.
9. Better adaptation of course of study, school organization, teaching equipment, textbooks, etc., to teaching needs.
10. The use in schools of more progressive teaching methods and subject matter.
11. Teaching suggestions and materials.
12. Visits to individual classrooms, with various purposes in mind, such as:
 - a. Helping individual teacher.
 - b. Studying particular children.
 - c. Diagnosing the system.
 - d. Strengthening given work.
 - e. Helping weak teachers.
 - f. Studying the progress of certain work.
 - g. Securing uniformity in habit formation.
 - h. Co-ordinating joint undertakings.
13. Group working conferences.
14. More acquaintance on the part of patrons with teaching conditions and more support of schools.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Distinguish clearly between administrative and instructional supervision.
2. Is supervision in your state real supervision as explained in this chapter, or is it largely of the inspectional type? In either case, outline definitely the duties of the county superintendent and his assistants.
3. How many of the functions outlined on page 81 are being carried out in your county? How are they being carried out? Give specific examples.
4. Review the qualifications of supervisors, page 581-82. Has

- the political appointment of superintendents tended to encourage men and women with these qualifications to seek the office?
5. What is the average salary of county superintendents in your state? What effect does the county unit have on the appointment, qualifications, tenure, and salary of county superintendents?
 6. Discuss the statement, "It is sound theory that the administrative and supervisory units should be the same."
 7. Discuss the supervisory advantages of the consolidated district.
 8. Some states provide free summer school courses for superior country school teachers who then go back to their respective counties as "helping teachers." What justification is there in such a procedure?
 9. Explain the three types of supervisory plans. Which type is best suited to your county?
 10. What is the "zone" plan of supervision?
 11. Discuss the statement, "Supervision is the training of teachers in service."
 12. How far have the difficulties of supervision as presented on pages 93-94 been overcome in the United States? in your state?
 13. Is expert supervision more or less important in the country than in the city? Explain.
 14. Estimate the financial investment in the schools in your community or county. How large a business or corporation would this make? How does the management and supervision of this investment in business compare with that in education?

Special Topics for Investigation and Report

1. Supervision in Baltimore County, Maryland.
2. The "helping teacher" in New Jersey.
3. The "supervising teacher" in Wisconsin.
4. Standard tests in supervision.
5. The Teachers' Institute.

References

- Betts, G. H., and Hall, O. E., *Better Rural Schools*, Chapter XXI.
- Carney, Mabel, *Country Life and the Country School*, Chapter XII.
- Cubberley, E. P., *Rural Life and Education*, Chapter XIII.
- Cook, K. M., *Supervision of Rural Schools*, U. S. Bulletin No. 10, 1922.
- Newbury, Maud C., *Supervision of One-Teacher School*, U. S. Bulletin No. 9, 1922.
- Pittman, M. S., *The Value of School Supervision*.
- Showalter, N. D., *Hand Book for Rural School Officers*, Chapter XIV.
- Does the Helping Teacher Really Help the Rural Schools?* Maryland School Bulletin, No. 2, 1923.
- See also *Journal of Rural Education*.

CHAPTER V

THE RURAL SCHOOL TEACHER

Importance of Education in Social Development.—The “rural problem” must ultimately find its solution in education. The decay of rural civilization can be prevented only by maintaining a physically and mentally vigorous people on the farms. This can be done by taking advantage of the capacity to be educated which is inherent in the human race.

Since the time when the rural problem began to attract attention various attempts at its solution have been made. It is significant that all these attempts have been in the line of enlightenment through education. There is the agricultural extension department, which aims to help farmers in the solution of their particular farm problems by new and scientific methods of farming; there is the junior extension work, known also as boys' and girls' club work, which will be described in Chapter XVII; there is the movement of county organization, an attempt to unite the isolated families into a sort of rural community for social and economic purposes; there is the movement for co-operative marketing which involves educating the farmer in the principles of economics, which includes production and marketing; there is the recent movement for publicity and co-operation among farmers

through the county agents and home demonstration agents, whose aim is to get in touch with every family and to aid and enlighten them in their particular agriculture and economic problems; and finally, educational leaders have been attacking the problem of the rural school directly, by suggesting improvements in the fields of organization and administration as described in Chapters I and II, and by centering particular attention on the specific educational problems of the rural school, such as the curriculum and the teacher. Curriculum problems will be discussed in Chapter VI. This chapter will be concerned with the rural school teacher.

The crux of the rural situation lies in the rural school, and to the degree in which it successfully discharges its function—namely, to provide a good elementary education to rural pupils—may we hopefully look for the solution of the problem in general. For without a good elementary education, one equal to that afforded by the best cities, we can hardly look for much progress through the other agencies enumerated above. While the human being possesses the capacity to be educated, he will not be educated unless this capacity is developed. It is the function of the schools to develop this capacity, by means of the various subjects ordinarily included in the elementary school curriculum. In the development of this capacity—or better still, in the development of *these capacities*, for there are many capacities inherent in the individual—the teacher plays a very important rôle. It is she who must lead the pupil on from stage to stage as he gradually develops these dormant abilities within him.

It is she who must point the way to greater development or growth. It is because of this gradual development of the individual, both mentally and physically, as he progresses in his school subjects that education has been called a process of *growth*.

Because of this great responsibility in determining the growth of the boys and girls who are to be the men and women of tomorrow, the teacher's position in the school and country is of the utmost importance. If she is strong and active, a staunch and enthusiastic manhood and womanhood will be the result; if she is weak and resourceless, the inevitable result must be an undeveloped and a poorly enlightened country. With these important facts in mind, let us now briefly survey the present status of the rural school teacher.

The Rural Teacher Situation in the United States.—The total farming population of the United States is about 38,000,000, of which about 11,000,000 are children. This number of children is about 35 percent. of the total public school enrollment in the country and they are found in the 178,000 one- and two-room schools of the country. Most of these 11,000,000 rural children are taught by 300,000 country school teachers, who are supervised by 3,500 county superintendents and rural supervisors.

Of the 300,000 rural teachers, it is cautiously estimated that fewer than 2 percent. are normal school graduates; 33½ percent. or more have had no professional training; 50 percent. have not completed high school; 10 percent. have finished only the elementary grades; 25 percent. leave the ranks annually, whose positions are to be filled by inexperienced beginners;

66 $\frac{2}{3}$ percent. remain not more than one year in the same school, and the salaries of these 300,000 country school teachers ranges from \$325 to \$900 per year, considerably less than the average annual income of unskilled labor.

Several excellent studies of the rural teacher situation have been made in certain typical states. A few of these will be presented so that the reader may have a fair notion of the situation.

Pennsylvania.¹—In Pennsylvania the average rural school teacher begins teaching at 19.2 years of age. Eighty-one times out of one hundred she is born and reared in the country district, and in 80 percent. of the cases she receives from five to twelve years of schooling in the township schools. In 39 percent. of the cases she belongs to the 61 percent. who attended secondary school; in only 22 percent. of the cases did she complete the four year course. In seventy-six out of one hundred times she had no normal school training. If she was one of the remaining 24 percent. who attended normal school, in only eighteen of the twenty-four did she complete the course. In sixty-two out of a hundred instances she had no in-service training. The average number of places she taught was three.

In point of experience she is a "beginner" in 30 percent. of the cases, and in 37 percent., while experienced, she is now teaching in a new position. Thus, in sixty-seven percent. of the cases she is either with experience teaching in a new position, or a new teacher without experience.

¹ King, *The Status of the Rural School in Pennsylvania*, U. S. Bulletin, No. 34.

In fifty out of one hundred instances she participates in the Saturday and Sunday social life of the community, but only in twenty-eight out of one hundred instances does she have a parent-teachers' association or any other type of community activity.

Pennsylvania requires between 5,000 and 6,000 new teachers annually. On an average only 15 percent. of the normal school graduates enter one-teacher schools. Thus on the basis of 2,000 state normal school graduates, there will be only 300 trained teachers available to fill 3,000 vacancies.

New York.—Dr. George M. Wiley, assistant commissioner of Education of New York, analyzed the rural teacher situation in that state for the year 1920–21, and made comparisons between teachers in one- and two-room schools and those in three-room or larger schools.²

TABLE 3

In 1-room or 2-room schools Percent.	Academic Preparation	In 3-room or larger schools Percent.
1	College graduate	22
1	Part College work	4
62	High school graduate	60
32	Part high school	12
4	Elementary school graduate	2
0	Part elementary school	0

Table 3 shows that 36 percent. of teachers in one- and two-room schools have not completed a four year high school course, while of those in three-room and larger schools only 14 percent. did not. Of those in the larger schools 26 percent. had college training, while those in the smaller schools had only two percent.

² Wiley, *Journal of Rural Education*, Vol. I, No. 7.

TABLE 4

In 1-room or 2-room schools Percent.	Professional Training	In 3-room or larger schools Percent.
1	Training in College	21
7	Normal graduate	44
4	Part Normal	2
2	Training school	2
1	Part training school	0
47	Training class	4
2	Part training class	1
19	Summer school	4
17	No professional training	11

Table 4 tells the story as regards professional training of teachers in large and small schools. In the small schools 47 percent. had one year of professional training given in the high schools. Some of these are high school graduates and some are not. In the larger schools 44 percent. are normal school graduates. Adding to this number who received professional training in college, we find that 65 percent. of the teachers in the larger schools are college or normal trained, while for the one- and two-room schools only 8 percent. are so trained. Other comparisons may be drawn from the table.

TABLE 5

No. of years Experience	Teaching Experience		No. of Years in present position	Tenure of Service	
	Teachers in 1-room or 2-room school Percent.	Teachers in 3-room or larger school Percent.		Teachers in 1-room or 2-room school Percent.	Teachers in 3-room or larger Percent.
1	18	11	1	56	37
2	11	11	2	23	23
3	11	11	3	9	11
4	8	8	4	4	5
5	7	8	5	4	4
6	6	6	6	1	3
7	4	5	7	1	2
8	3	4	8	0	2
9	3	4	9	0	1
10 or more	29	32	10 or more	2	12

Table 5 gives the figures for experience and tenure of service. There is little difference between the two groups in regard to experience in teaching. The median for the larger schools is six years and for the smaller five years.

The figures for tenure show that there is a large turnover in the teaching force: 56 percent. of the one- and two-room teachers are teaching for the first time in their present position, and 23 percent. the second year. The turnover in the larger schools is also high—37 percent. are in present positions the first year. This characteristic of rural teachers works against efficiency in teaching.

From these and other comparisons Dr. Wiley drew the following cross-section of the rural school teacher of New York:

“The teacher in the strictly rural schools of the state is a high school graduate and has had one year of professional training in a training class. She has had five years of experience in teaching. She is twenty-four years of age. She receives a weekly salary of twenty-three dollars. She is teaching in her present position for the first year. She boards and rooms in the district, but she is quite at the point of having little if any interest in the community activities.”³

A somewhat more complete picture of the typical New York rural school teacher is presented by the Survey Commission in its report of the Survey of the Rural Schools of New York:⁴

“The typical teacher of a one-room rural school in

³ *Op. cit.* p. 296.

⁴ *Rural School Survey of New York State*, G. A. Works, pp. 66-67.

New York is between twenty-three and twenty-four years old, and has been teaching between four and five years, having begun this work at the age of eighteen. She is native born of native-born parents. She comes from a farmer's family which has an approximate income of about \$1000 at the time she enters teaching. She was one of the older children in a family of three or four children. She attended an elementary rural school for eight years and a neighboring high school for four years. During the latter part of her high school course she was a member of a teacher's training class. This class was in charge of a woman between forty and fifty years old, who had graduated several years before from one of the New York normal schools, and whose further education had been limited to one summer session in a college or a normal school. In this training class the present typical rural school teacher reviewed the common school branches. She also studied psychology, school management, and school law. She took no courses exclusively designed for the preparation of rural school teachers. She observed class work twice a week for a year in the local town elementary schools, and she made two or three visits during the year to a neighboring rural school. In addition to this observation she had two weeks of practice teaching in one of the grades of the town schools.

“With this equipment she began her work in a one-room rural school. She has had no additional education, either general or professional, since beginning her teaching four years ago. During the year just ended she had, *perhaps*, read one book on some phase

of her work. She takes one professional journal, *The Normal Instructor and Primary Plans*.

“In her school she not only teaches but also does most, if not all, of the janitor’s work. She sweeps the floor daily. She may do the scrubbing; in any case the floor of this typical teacher’s school is scrubbed about twice a year. The outhouses are scrubbed once a year. She is on the playground with her pupils at recess time almost every day, and frequently takes part in the games. Neither she nor any of the pupils who remain through the noon hour have a hot lunch.

“She has a room by herself within a mile of the schoolhouse. This room is heated in winter. She is also free to use the living room of the house and to entertain callers there. There are either one or two children in the home in which she lives and one of them is usually a pupil in her school. She assists the housewife in the work of the home to the extent of more than an hour a day. If she lives with her parents, she spends much more time in helping with the housework. Unless her home is there, she does not often remain in the district over week-ends.

“For her teaching she received during the school year a salary of \$800, and she taught nine months. During the summer she lives with her parents and usually helps with the housework and the lighter farm work. Her necessary living expenses during the school year she estimates at about \$300, and she may have saved about \$200 on the basis of her last year’s salary. She has no one dependent upon her for support, either wholly, or partially.”

Nebraska.—An investigation of the rural teacher

situation in Nebraska made by a committee of the University of Nebraska summarizes the typical rural teacher of that state as follows:⁵

“The rural teacher (as revealed by this study) was a young woman 21 years of age, who has lived approximately an equal number of years in both country and town. From the replies on nationality it was evident that her foreign lineage was near rather than remote. Her education was received in Nebraska and consisted of one summer school beyond eight years of elementary and four years of high-school training. She held a county second-grade certificate. The list of subjects that she had studied was comprehensive. She felt most proficient in arithmetic and liked to teach it the best. She had no preparation for the industrial subjects, did not teach them, and believed that their introduction into the rural-school course was a burden to the already overcrowded program. She had no training in social service. Her expectancy in the teaching profession was 1.85 terms. She hoped to become a grade teacher in town.

“This teacher’s yearly income was \$445.28. She paid \$114.80 for board, did her own janitor work without extra pay, and spent her vacation at home or attending summer school. She would have been glad of an opportunity to add to her income through some commercial pursuit. Her institute expenses and teacher’s periodicals amounted to \$15.28 per year. She lived in a family of two children. She occupied a room by herself, but it was not heated, and there were no bath conveniences. She did not spend the week-end in the

⁵ Carney, Rural School Leaflet, No. 14.

district unless forced to do so by weather or traveling conditions. She took some part in the organizations of the community. The organizations that appealed to her most were community and self-improvement clubs and religious societies. She believed that consolidation was the thing most needed for the betterment of rural-school conditions."

Conditions in the South.—In Alabama 63 percent. of all teachers have no professional preparation. In Virginia 10 percent. of the colored and 9.6 percent. of the white rural school teachers have no preparation beyond the elementary grades. Texas has 6,000 rural school teachers who have completed only the seventh grade. In Arkansas 22 percent. have a common school education only. In Mississippi, Georgia, South Carolina, and Florida, 20 percent. of the rural teachers have no professional preparation, and no academic training beyond the eighth grade.

Need for Supervision.—Add to this inadequate preparation and training of the rural school teacher the meager amount of supervision she receives and the seriousness of the situation is still greater. In the Pennsylvania study reported before, it was found that the teachers received from fifteen minutes to eight hours per year of supervision. Usually there is one annual visit of the county superintendent, which lasts from thirty minutes to one hour. The problem of adequate supervision has already been discussed, but in the light of the rural teacher situation as here presented, its importance can not be overemphasized.

What Happens to the Output of Professional

Schools.—About 35 percent. of the nation's children are in rural schools, so it would be fair to expect that these rural children are entitled to 35 percent. of the output of the professional teacher training institutions. But, what are the facts? In a study of a selected group of typical professional schools made by C. E. Benson⁶ of the graduates of the two year curricula, the following percentages entered the various services:

Year	Number of graduates	Graduates entering rural service	Village Service	City Service
		—all types 1, 2, & Consolidated	Percent.	Percent.
1910	1600	9.7	28.4	41.8
1915	2353	9.	36.4	42.7
1920	2079	6.	29.1	49.1

In 1920, 5.2 percent. entered one-room schools. The location of the teacher-training institution does not determine the number entering the rural field. In the schools studied the range was from none to one-half of the graduates, entering rural work the first year. In some of the most advantageously located institutions few graduates entered rural service. Apparently the attitude of the institution is a determining factor.

The total annual enrollment of the 382 normal schools and teachers colleges of the country in 1924 was 245,600. Of this number 40,400 were on the graduating list. It is evident that few of the 90,000 low sal-

⁶ Benson, N. E. A. Proceedings, Vol. 60.

aried positions will be filled by these graduates. Only 1.7 percent. of all the normal school graduates are serving in the rural school field.

Those students who enter the rural field, and it is estimated that there are between 15,000 and 20,000, come from the group who must drop out to earn money to continue their course later. These, usually, have a grade position in view when they come back.

Normal Schools Criticized for Neglecting Rural Service.—The function of the teacher training institution is to prepare teachers for all kinds of teaching positions, but many have become training schools for the cities wholly. Normal schools have been criticized for their failure to recognize their responsibility in training rural teachers; or when they do, they give shorter periods of training and have lower standards of scholarship, and give a superficial training. They have been further criticized for not differentiating the training of teachers who enter the rural field. They have also been criticized on the ground that as state supported institutions they have failed to return to rural communities leaders in proportion to the amount of taxes paid by them. This criticism is supported by Professor E. A. Ross in the following quotation:⁷

“As I see the situation here, I would rather the next million dollars this state gives to education went to rural schools rather than to city schools, or high schools, or university. It may be as unfair to spend taxes from city people in bettering the country as it is to spend taxes from country people in bettering the city, but it is not so foolish.”

⁷ Quoted by Burnham: U. S. Bulletin, No. 27, 1918.

At the present rate the rural child will be without professionally prepared teachers, i. e., two-year normal school graduates, in about ten years.

Of course, it is unfair to lay the entire blame on the normal school. The rural school system is partly to blame for this unfair distribution of professionally prepared teachers. The rural schools have been offering poorer salaries, poorer social opportunities, and poorer living conditions, than the city and village schools. The rural school must better these conditions if it will expect to get its fair share of the good teachers.

What Can the Normal Schools Do to Render More Efficient Rural School Service?—First of all the normal school must adopt the attitude that rural service is equal in importance to urban service, and consequently it must make provision for training teachers for various types of rural schools. The normal schools should provide courses for one- and two-room schools, for consolidated schools, for village and small town schools, for high schools, and, in addition to these, there should be courses for principals of consolidated schools, and for superintendents and supervisors. These courses should be differentiated from the regular normal school courses more than by merely offering one or two courses taught by specialists in rural education. These courses should be on the same level of scholarship, and should have the same entrance requirements that the regular normal school courses have. The practice of offering a short course for rural teachers, in which the regular normal school subjects are superficially covered, is an admit-

tance on the part of the normal school that rural service is inferior to urban service. Rather than offer such a superficial course—actually on the secondary school level—and discredit rural service in the eyes of the student, the normal school had better leave the training of rural teachers to the high school training classes. The better plan for the normal school to adopt, especially in states where one year of normal training beyond high school graduation is required, is not to attempt to offer a complete and rounded course in one year, but to offer the regular first year subjects (including observation and apprenticeship) the first year, and have the pupil come back at some future time to complete her course. This will keep the course on the regular normal school level, and yet provide partially normal trained teachers for the rural schools.

The Place of the High School Training Course.—Should rural teachers be prepared in high schools? The answer to this question depends upon the conditions in, and the attitude of, a particular state. Those who are opposed to the idea of having the training classes in high schools are either ignorant or forgetful of the present status of the rural teacher. They overlook the fact that the annual demand of rural teachers is 90,000, while the rural supply from normal schools is less than 20,000. They further overlook the fact that 100,000 of these rural teachers have had no professional training and besides this they have had only two years of education beyond the eighth grade. It must be conceded that it should not be the aim to prepare rural teachers on the secondary level, but that it should rather be a step toward professionally

trained teachers for all rural schools on the normal school level. High school training should be a temporary alternative between partially professionally trained rural school teachers and no professional training at all, and they should be discarded in favor of normal school training as rapidly as the conditions of the state will permit.

At present twenty-four states are providing training for rural school teachers in high schools. This training, given in the third or fourth year of the regular high school course or in a graduate year, consists chiefly of a review of the elementary school subjects, child psychology, rural school management, methods of teaching and some observation and practice teaching. Usually some emphasis is laid on the social and community aspects of country life.

In 1924 there were approximately 1,500 high school training classes in the United States, with an enrollment of about 34,000 and an output of 15,000 graduates. Adding to this number the 20,000 who enter the rural field from the normal schools, we have a total of approximately 35,000 professionally trained teachers entering the rural schools annually. This number is about one-third of the annual number required to meet rural needs. This presents a rather striking argument for the need of some type of teacher-training institution to meet the demands of rural schools.

Wisconsin has attempted to solve the problem by establishing county training schools in those counties in which no normal school is located. These training schools offer one year of academic and professional

training beyond the high school. They are filling a real need in the Wisconsin program of rural education.

In those counties where normal schools are located a one-year course for rural schools is offered in the normal school. This course is on the regular normal school level in its entrance and scholastic requirements.

What Qualifications and Training Should the Rural Teacher Have?—This problem can best be answered by defining the function of the rural school. Among rural educators there are those who would “either consciously or unconsciously vocationalize the rural elementary school, limit it to the contacts and ideals of the immediate community, select its teaching content in terms of adult needs, reduce its responsibility for perpetuating the world’s best social inheritance, and so restrict and ‘blinder’ country children as to force them of necessity, through ignorance or compulsion, into farming as a life vocation.”

Opposed to this group are those who believe that the function of the rural elementary school is that of any elementary school, except that the setting is rural. This view of “elementary education in a rural setting” certainly is the more acceptable of the two, since it opens much larger opportunities and choices for country children. To be born on a farm should no more circumscribe the vision and vocational possibilities of the rural child than to be born in the city should do so for the city child. Each must be given the opportunity to grow and develop and to find him

self, irrespective of the area in which he happens to be by accident of birth.

With this philosophy of rural education in mind, what should be the qualifications and the preparation of the rural school teacher? Obviously many. She must not only be capable of skillfully teaching country boys and girls by means of the elementary school subjects, including the newer specialized subjects of agriculture, art, manual training, and nature study, but she must also be a thorough student of country life, so that she may capitalize community interest and local environment, in this process we call education. This actually consists of acquainting the child with our social inheritance and with the world about him, so that he may use these resources to the end of rendering effective service and of living a complete life.

Ideally, then, the rural school teacher should have a good academic training—equal to that of any grade teacher—and she should have an acquaintance with both country and city life. To have an acquaintance with one of these only will restrict her power to interpret the rural situation broadly. It is imperative that she have a knowledge and sympathetic understanding of rural life and highly desirable that she know the city with its numerous advantages and disadvantages.

Perhaps the best type of rural school teacher is one who possesses an intimate rural acquaintance; who has a good academic training; and who has resources and a breadth of vision, sufficient to stimulate rural communities into "broadening their interests, increasing their opportunities for satisfaction, developing a com-

mon culture, and furthering the social interaction and co-operation essential to the stability and progress of a democracy." ⁸

Such a rural teacher is not merely serving the local economic interests of the community, but she is serving society as a whole.

The academic and professional training of the rural teacher should be differentiated from that of the urban teacher so as to fit her for the specific situation that will confront her in rural work. The application of psychology, pedagogy, school management, and various methods and devices must be made to suit the rural field. Observation and practice teaching should be largely in rural schools, so that the young teacher in training may adjust herself to actual situations immediately, and thus make the proper connection between theory and practice. A certain amount of practice in city grades will help to broaden her vision and will show her possible improvements in practice which these schools possess over rural schools.

Where it is possible to affiliate consolidated schools with normal training institutions, it is very desirable that they be used for observation and practice teaching. These practices are in use in several of our leading teacher-training institutions maintaining differentiated courses for rural school teachers. Several outstanding ones are described below.

Rural Teacher Training in Michigan.—The Western State Normal School at Kalamazoo, Michigan, offers courses in rural education equal in academic and professional standards to any of the other courses offered.

⁸ Brim, *Rural Education*, p. 281.

The differentiation in the rural courses consists largely in the illustrations and applications of principles related to the rural situation without losing sight of the fact that rural education is but elementary education in a rural setting. "In principles of teaching, in curriculum, in supervision, in county normal problems, and in a second year course in rural education which vivifies the educational, the economic, and the social situation in small communities, every possible care is taken to keep all that is said and done in true perspective with the best ideas in use in education anywhere."⁹

The school has affiliated with it, for training purposes, one one-teacher school, one five-teacher country school, and two rural agricultural schools. Here the students spend one-half of each day for one term of twelve weeks, observing and teaching under the direction of a supervising critic. The students are transported to and from these affiliated schools by means of motor busses.

Besides observation and practice teaching, the students receive practice in keeping records and reports, supervising play, planning and conducting community meetings, and planning and executing the annual "Rural Progress Day."

The Iowa Plan of Observation and Practice Teaching.—With the present unequal competition between rural and urban schools, it is almost impossible to get any normal school graduate to enter the field of rural teaching, especially the one- and two-teacher schools. Recognizing this fact, and yet desirous of rendering

⁹ Burnham, *Journal of Rural Education*, Volume 2, No. 7, p. 300.

service to rural schools, many normal schools and teachers' colleges have instituted one-year courses leading to a rural teacher's certificate.

The Iowa State Teachers' College has adopted a plan, not of providing a regular one-year course for rural teachers, but by providing observation and practice teaching in the first year of the regular collegiate course, for those who wish to teach in rural schools. Later, the teacher may complete her college course without loss of time or subject matter.

The plan provides for one hour per week for the first six weeks of observation of expert teaching in the campus demonstration rural school. Then the student is excused from work at the college for one month, during which time she goes to live in the country and does practice teaching in a rural school. Here she works as assistant to the regular teacher. She is assigned a regular schedule of observation, class teaching, helping with seat work, supervising the noon lunch and playground, and taking part in the evening community meetings.

The student teacher teaches about one-third of the classes which are selected to include all of the grades. The regular teacher is an expert critic, who is selected by the college and is paid in part by it. She goes over the lesson plans of the student teacher and discusses her teaching.

A month of living in the country at a farmhouse, and mingling with the country people of the community and participating in their activities, and of observing and participating in the management of a country school, has a very wholesome effect upon the

student in bringing about a sympathetic understanding of rural conditions, and of opening up to her the possibilities of leadership and co-operation in country interests.

Other examples of successful rural teacher-training might be given, such as that at Oregon State Normal School, Monmouth, Oregon; or the Kearney, Nebraska, State Normal School, or the Milwaukee, Wisconsin, State Normal School, or the now classic Kirksville, Missouri plan, and others, where opportunity is offered for observation and practice teaching, and for participation in rural community activities, by means of campus demonstration schools or affiliated rural schools.

Undoubtedly, we shall have to content ourselves for some little time to come with rural teachers who have less than a regular two-year normal school course. This will be especially true in the case of most of our one- and two-room rural school teachers. For this supply we must undoubtedly look to high school training and county normal training classes.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Show why the rural school teacher should be at least equally well prepared as the city school teacher.
2. Why have country people been satisfied with less well prepared teachers than city people have?
3. In many cities teachers are required to serve at least a year or two apprenticeship in rural or village schools before becoming eligible to appointment. Show how this policy, although favorable to the city child, is unduly severe on the country child. How can it be remedied?
4. Should the rural school be regarded as a "stepping stone" to

the village or city school? How can this tendency be overcome?

5. How do the rural school and village school compare with the city school in offering freedom and encouragement to the teacher for carrying out new methods, devices, and theories?
6. How do these two types of schools compare in their recognition of service well rendered? In which can the teacher "make her mark" most readily?
7. How does the country compare with the city in offering real fields for leadership?
8. From the standpoint of supervision received, would it not be more sensible to have our city teachers teaching in the rural schools and vice versa? Discuss from the standpoint of the child.
9. What opportunities for professional growth do the rural teachers of your state have? of your county?
10. What is meant by training teachers in service? How is it done?
11. What arguments may be advanced in favor of county training schools? Should they be a temporary or a permanent source of supply for rural teachers?
12. Would it be possible in your state to pass a law requiring every teacher who enters the profession, say within four years, to be a normal school graduate? What effect would such a law have on the supply of teachers?
13. What are the reasons for the poor showing made by rural teachers as presented on pages 100-101?
14. During the war teachers left the profession in large numbers to enter clerical positions because these were more remunerative. Does this give any clue regarding the standing which teaching has in the minds of many as a profession? How can pride in teaching as a profession be developed?
15. One of the marks of a profession is that it have a code of ethics. Has teaching such a code? If so, is it known to teachers, and is it being followed?
16. Is the criticism that the normal school has neglected the rural field just?
17. What is your opinion as to who makes the best rural teacher,

- the girl reared on the farm or the one reared in town?
18. What is your philosophy of rural education? Should the rural school aim to develop rural-mindedness or should it be broader in its teachings? Explain.
 19. How would the rural teacher situation be simplified if rural elementary education were limited to the first six grades, and the seventh and eighth combined with the ninth into a junior high school? (See Chapter XII.)
 20. Discuss the value and importance of the rural demonstration school, and field apprenticeship in preparing teachers for rural service.

Topics for Investigation and Report

1. Look up and report on outstanding examples of rural leadership.
2. Courses for rural teachers in county training and normal schools.
3. Rural teacher turnover.
4. Training teachers in service.
5. Preparing teachers for consolidated schools.
6. The effect of consolidation upon the preparation and tenure of teachers.

References

- Betts, G. H., and Hall, O. E., *Better Rural Schools*, Chapter X.
Brim, O. G., *Rural Education*, Chapter XIII.
Carney, Mabel, *Country Life and the Country School*, Chapter XI.
Cubberley, E. P., *Rural Life and Education*, Chapter XII.
Dewey, Evelyn, *New Schools for Old*.
Foght, H. W., *The Rural Teacher and His Work*.
Foght, H. W., *The American Rural School*, Chapters V, VI.
Pittman, M. S., *Successful Teaching in Rural Schools*.
Quick, Herbert, *The Brown Mouse*.
Showalter, N. D., *Hand Book for Rural School Officers*, Chapter X.
Wilkinson, W. A., *Rural School Management*, Chapter XVIII.

CHAPTER VI

THE RURAL SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Increasing Complexity of the Curriculum.—No other field of rural school administration presents so many perplexing problems to the superintendent and supervisor as does that of the curriculum. The number of subjects clamoring for admittance, taken with the large number already admitted, constitutes a problem which challenges, and often perplexes and baffles, the minds of our keenest educators.

The curriculum may well be called the barometer of society. It indicates society's needs and desires. In colonial times, when social and economic needs were simple, the curriculum was very simple. Reading, writing, and arithmetic, together with the Bible, were all that were needed, and even these were not necessary beyond an elementary degree. As our social and economic status became more complex, more subjects were added to the elementary school curriculum, until today the number has grown to seventeen.¹ Table 6 shows the evolution of the elementary school curriculum from colonial times to the present era.

Rural Schools Last to Make Curriculum Changes.—The figure of the curriculum being the barometer of society is not entirely true, particularly in the case of

¹ Reinoehl, *Analytic Survey of State Courses of Study for Rural Elementary Schools*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 42, 1922.

TABLE 6

1775	1825	1850	1875	1900
READING	READING * <i>Declamation</i>	READING DECLAMA- TION	READING <i>Literary Selections</i>	READING LITERATURE
Spelling	SPELLING *	SPELLING	SPELLING	<i>Spelling</i>
Writing	<i>Writing</i>	WRITING	PENMANSHIP*	<i>Writing *</i>
<i>Catechism</i> BIBLE	<i>Good Behavior Manners and Morals</i>	Manners Conduct	Conduct
Arithmetic	ARITHMETIC*	MENTAL ARTIH. * CIPHERING	PRIMARY ARITH. ADVANCED ARITH.	ARITHMETIC
	Bookkeeping	Bookkeeping
	GRAMMAR	Elem. Language GRAMMAR	<i>Oral Language *</i> GRAMMAR	ORAL LANGUAGE <i>Grammar</i>
	Geography	<i>Geography</i>	Home Geog.* TEXT GEOG.	<i>Home Geog.</i> TEXT GEOG. *
		History U.S.	U.S. HISTORY <i>Constitution</i>	<i>History Stories *</i> TEXT HISTORY *
		Object Lessons	Object Lessons * Elementary Science *	<i>Nature Study *</i> Elem. Science
			Drawing * Music *	<i>Drawing *</i> <i>Music *</i>
			Physical Exercises	Play Physical Training *
	Sewing and Knitting	Sewing Cooking Manual Training

CAPITALS, Most Important subjects. Italics, Subjects of medium Importance. Roman, Least important subjects. * New methods of teaching now employed.

THE EVOLUTION OF OUR ELEMENTARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM
AND OF METHODS OF TEACHING.

(From Cubberley, *Public Education in the United States*, Houghton Mifflin Co. Boston.)

the one-room rural school. The conservatism of the rural school in regard to curriculum changes is well known by those who have attempted to introduce new and varied subjects and methods of presenting those subjects. The old traditional subjects, with the old

traditional manner of teaching them, have been adhered to in most one-room schools, and it is very difficult, under existing conditions, with poor equipment and inadequately prepared teachers, to make very radical changes in the curriculum.

But, in spite of these disadvantages many new subjects are finding a place for themselves, and in states where good systems of supervision are developed, are being taught with considerable degree of success.

Relative Importance of Subjects Now Being Taught in Rural Elementary Schools.—Table 7 lists the seven-

TABLE 7

Subjects	Rank	Pages per course	Median number of pages	Percent. of total space	Medians of percent. of space	Percent. of class time	
						26 programs	50* cities
Arithmetic ...	1	25	21.1	13	11.0	19.1	13.3
Language	2	22	16.3	11	10.5	17.0	11.4
Reading	3	19	14.8	10	9.5	23.8	17.4
Geography ...	4	20	15.0	10	10.0	9.5	7.1
History	5	19	13.1	10	8.0	6.9	6.5
Agriculture ..	6	16	15.1	8	5.5	2.1
Hygiene	7	10	6.0	5	4.0	4.1	4.4
Nature Study.	8	9	5.4	4	3.5	2.3	(†).
Spelling	9	7	4.5	4	3.0	9.2	6.4
Household Arts	10	10	3.9	5	3.0	.2
Drawing	11	7	5.4	4	3.0	.9	6.1
Music	12	5	4.2	3	2.5	1.1	4.8
Handwriting .	13	5	3.1	2	2.0	2.1	5.3
Civics	14	6	2.6	3	2.0	.9	(‡).
Physical Education	15	8	.5	4	1.0	.2	4.2
Manual Arts..	16	5	2.3	2	1.5	.4	5.6
Manners and Morals	17	3	.8	2	1.0	.2
Total		194	§ 191	100	§ 3.0	100.0	92.5

* Fifty cities placed here for comparison only. They are not used in ranking. History includes civics; hygiene includes nature study. Manners and morals included with opening exercises.—Fourteenth Year Book Part I, p. 26.

† Hygiene. ‡ History. § Median. (After Reinoehl)

teen subjects now included in the rural elementary school curricula of forty-four states, in the order of their importance as determined by the five criteria of pages per course, median number of pages, percent. of total space, medians of percents. of space, and percent. of class time (twenty-six model programs).

From this analysis it is clear that arithmetic is considered the most important subject in the rural school curriculum. It leads in the first four criteria and stands second in the fifth. It receives about one-fifth of the total time on the daily program. Without belittling the importance of this subject, it is fair to say that too much time is given to it to the detriment of other subjects now receiving too little time in proportion to their importance.

Language and reading are almost as important as arithmetic in the rural elementary curriculum. Reading leads in the amount of time devoted to it in the daily program. The wide possibility for correlating these subjects with others in the curriculum suggests that the time allotted to these subjects, in the upper grades at least, might be reduced.

Next in prominence follow the subjects of geography, history, agriculture, hygiene, and nature study. This shows that the so-called "content" subjects are accorded a much more prominent place in the curriculum of rural schools than is accorded the more "formal" subjects.

Spelling and handwriting are included in the foregoing lists when the criterion of percent. of class time given to the subject is considered.

The household and manual arts, drawing and music,

civics, physical education, and manners and morals, occupy a relatively insignificant place in the rural elementary curriculum, both from the standpoint of the space accorded them in state courses of study and the time allotted them in the daily program.

This leads to the questions of the aim of the rural elementary school, of the various subjects in meeting this aim, and of the possibility of reorganization of the curriculum to meet this aim. Let us consider each of these questions in turn.

Aim of the Rural Elementary School.—The aim of the rural elementary school should be the same as that of any elementary school anywhere, namely, to help boys and girls to grow and to develop physically, mentally, and morally in a normal way. There are those who believe that the aim of the rural school should be to develop “rural-mindedness,” or a better rural citizenship, or to prepare for the vocation of farming. This is a misconception of the function of the rural school. It is not in accord with the principle of democracy to predetermine the individual’s place in life. Rural education should be elementary education in a rural setting. In our city elementary schools we do not aim to make carpenters of carpenters’ sons, nor do we attempt to restrict the city child’s experience to the city environment, nor do we teach him a narrow city citizenship. Why then should we be so illogical regarding the country child? Why should we not provide him with the same possibilities for growth and development that we now provide for the city child? We are alarmed by the away-from-the-farm movement, to be sure, but the solution to this problem does not lie

in the process of trying to force agriculture upon unwilling farm boys, by refusing to enlighten them in other fields. In summing up his discussion of "Objectives in Elementary Rural School Agriculture,"² E. E. Windes says that agricultural instruction in rural schools has been used inadequately by deliberately seeking through it to keep the boy or girl on the farm. As a result of this a faulty vocational program, with its emphasis on production, has grown up. This program, he says, cannot be justified, because

1. There are probably too many workers on the farm today, as indicated by overproduction and low prices to the producer.

2. There can be no justification for a program designed to restrict vocational choice, to any individual because of the need of the vocation for workers. The only justification must be found in the fitness of the individual for the vocation and his inclination to enter it.

3. Through emphasizing production and neglecting an adequate program designed to protect the agricultural group against exploitation, through teaching effectively organization, co-operation, understanding of the distributive process, and a proper interpretation of group inter-relationships, we have, in effect, aggravated rural problems. We have largely increased competition within the group without providing compensatory protection.

Does this then mean that we are not to teach agriculture and home economics to rural boys and girls?

² Rural School Leaflet, No. 11.

Decidedly not. A good principle in teaching is to proceed from what the child already knows, from what he has experienced, to that which is new and which we wish to teach him. Agriculture and the experience connected with farm life, is what the country child knows, and constitutes the experience upon which the wise teacher will build. The question is not whether we shall teach agriculture or not, the question is how shall we teach it and with what purpose or aim shall we teach it. This brings us to the second of our questions, regarding the aim of the rural elementary school.

The Importance of the Various Subjects in Meeting the Aim of the Rural School.—This thing which we call the “curriculum” is really that large mass of material that has been handed down and materially increased from generation to generation, and which we call our “social heritage.” Curriculum builders take this social heritage and systematize and crystallize it so that it can be brought into the reach and understanding of those for whom it is intended. Different methods of presenting the material or principles are devised from time to time; nevertheless, the content remains essentially the same. It is this content that should become the possession of all, irrespective of the environment in which they happen to be born. The city child, as well as the country child, has a right to know about plant and animal life, and how his food is raised, and brought to him; and the country child, on the other hand, has a right to know how machines are made with which his father cultivates his farm. It is maintained, then, that what we teach—the content—should not be

very different in our elementary schools, whether urban or rural, but how we teach it, the method of attack, will depend largely upon the environment. For a country school teacher to ignore the rich background of experience that the child has of the geography of his community, for instance, and to plunge him into a study of the geography of North America, is to fail to capitalize one of the richest opportunities she will ever have to make geography a real vital thing in the child's life. A child cannot really "experience," that is, "live" the things we try to teach him unless they are connected in some vital way with his own life and experiences.

Arithmetic.—Arithmetic should not be taught as so many abstract figures and problems, but it should be used as a means of opening new fields to the pupil. Here again the environment must be considered in teaching. There are two extremes in the teaching of arithmetic. There are those who would make all arithmetic "farm arithmetic," and then there are those who would teach arithmetic as "arithmetic" without much concern whether it reaches the child's experience or not. It is the process the latter are interested in, and not the means the subject offers for opening new experiences to the child. Undoubtedly a middle ground is to be pursued here. Our arithmetic texts have been criticized on the ground that they deal with city activities and are meaningless to the rural child. This problem was investigated by W. A. Monroe, and the following classification of types of problems was found:³

³ Brim, *Rural Education*, p. 238.

TABLE 8

Subject	Percent. of total number of type problems
A. Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry	10.8
B. Extraction of Minerals	0.2
C. Manufacturing and mechanical industries	18.1
D. Transportation	9.9
E. Trade	21.9
F. Public Service (not elsewhere classified)	6.2
G. Professional service	2.1
H. Domestic and personal service	0.8
I. Clerical occupations	0.4

The distribution of population among the various occupational activities listed above is as follows:

TABLE 9

	Percent.
A. Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry	33.2
B. Extraction of minerals	2.5
C. Manufacturing and mechanical industries	27.9
D. Transportation	6.9
E. Trade	9.5
F. Public service (not elsewhere classified)	1.2
G. Professional service	4.4
H. Domestic and personal service	9.9
I. Clerical occupations	4.5

There undoubtedly is some justification for this criticism since, as has been stated previously, the subject matter should draw upon the child's experience. To make all the problems farm problems, however, would be violating the principle of growth, for arithmetic must provide new experiences for the child just as any other subject must. Problems chosen from all ordinary occupational ranks should be included in the text that these new experiences may be provided. To have 10.8 percent. of the problems related to the child's experience is perhaps too much of a violation of a sound principle of learning. Perhaps the best proportion of problems in an arithmetic textbook for

rural schools would be that based on the distribution of population engaged in the various occupational activities. This would mean that approximately one-third of the problems should be related to agriculture, about 28 percent. to manufacturing and mechanical industries, etc. The danger of an overurbanized arithmetic seems to be more apparent than real.

Reading.—The returns from reading in the rural schools have not been commensurate with the time devoted to it. The chief reason for this, as I see it, has been the dearth of vitally interesting material to read. Children have been put through the motions of reading and rereading dead material contained in the readers. Often they practically knew the material in the next reader before reaching it themselves from having heard it read and reread aloud so many times before. Then again the methods of teaching reading in rural schools have not kept up to the times so well as in the city schools. Rural teachers are not so familiar with the latest and best methods of teaching nor are they familiar with the best materials to read at given ages. Add to these drawbacks the scarcity of reading material in the rural school library, and you have a combination that cannot be surpassed for inefficiency in reading ability, and for developing a lack of interest in, if not positive distaste for, good reading.

I think we are all agreed that reading is as essential for the country dweller as it is for the city dweller; indeed, it is possibly more essential. The point of difference seems to be in what types of reading should be encouraged in country children. Is reading to be used as a tool to create an interest in agriculture and

to develop rural-mindedness, by providing rural readers and bulletins dealing with rural problems? No. With the exception of the primary grades, where it has some excuse for being, because it deals with reading material familiar to little children, the rural reader is not to be recommended. Bulletins dealing with scientific aspects of agriculture surely should be read and studied in connection with agriculture, but to prescribe them as reading material without establishing a vital need for reading them is not to be recommended.

Should the rural school develop a taste for literature by reading the so-called classics? By all means. The rural child has as good a right to the best there is in literature as anybody. Rural children's imaginations have been stunted by not giving them the proper nourishment. It is hoped that the time is not far distant when every rural school will provide the best there is in children's literature and make them lovers of good reading. The narrow view of restricting a rural child's reading to vocational material, bulletins on chicken-raising, and mail-order-house catalogues is absurd. A healthy trend in this direction is already to be found in our best rural schools.

Language and Composition.—This field has been even more neglected and poorly taught in the rural school than the field of reading and literature. Evidence of this may be seen in the lack of ability the average rural person possesses in even simple letter writing. The simplest elements of grammar and composition, such as writing complete sentences and punctuating them properly, do not seem to be understood.

That at least one type of composition teaching has been effective may be seen from the almost universal manner of beginning a letter: "I take my pen in hand to write you a few lines to let you know I am well and hope this finds you the same." In one of our popular magazines an R.F.D. mail carrier tells of the prevalence of this familiar beginning for letters in the South. He is at a loss to know why the wording is so general. The answer is that it was so taught in our rural schools. It is a good example of the typical manner of teaching language and composition in the old-type rural school. It was almost entirely textbook work. No application to life and what was of immediate interest to the child was made. In order to be effective these subjects must be related to the child's experience. He must live them. Without drawing upon his own experience he cannot enter into the task of writing spontaneously. The modern tendency is to teach language and composition in connection with the practical arts, agriculture, nature study, geography, and history. The experience gained from these subjects gives something to write about, and writing about them tends to clarify thinking and understanding.

Geography, History, and Civics.—How should these subjects be taught in the rural school? Certainly not as so much textbook material to be mastered, as is the all-too-common way of doing. The importance of these subjects lies in the contribution they can make in helping the child to understand world relationship and interdependence of one country upon another, and of one community upon another. It should make him understand the interdependence of country upon city

so that a sympathetic understanding may grow up. In teaching these subjects the child's immediate experiences and environment should be made the starting point. Home geography, local history, and community civics should be the point of attack, and with these as a foundation the wider fields and their significance to local conditions and times will be better understood. In civics the structural side should be subordinated to the functional. Community civics is the term that has come into general use, and the new books on this subject treat civics from the community standpoint. The country child must be made to feel that he and his community are a part, a vital part, of this great world; that the world is made up of thousands of such communities as his, differing, to be sure, in geographic features, in historical setting, and in political history, from one another, but nevertheless, dependent upon, and to a large extent, destined by the other. History, geography, and civics, must be so taught that it will break through the crust of isolation and narrow community-mindedness that has characterized rural communities.

Elementary Science.—Under this group we may include nature study, hygiene, agriculture, and physical education. All but the last have been receiving considerable attention in our best rural schools, although the teaching of them has usually been of the textbook variety. There is some excuse for this, because our rural teachers have not been trained to teach these subjects. Occasionally some laboratory work is done, but the average rural school lacks laboratory equipment.

The importance of including these subjects in the elementary rural school curriculum is obvious. To neglect to capitalize the natural environment of the child in helping him to grow and develop, through such studies as nature study and agriculture, would be criminal in education. We have already been cautioned against the narrow aim of teaching agriculture. Perhaps the greatest contribution of nature study is its contribution to the joys of living and the cultivation of right attitudes toward life.

Hygiene and physical education go hand in hand. The World War has awakened us to the needs of the latter especially. Rural schools have been slow, however, in making provision for physical training. Again, teachers have not been trained in what to do. The importance of providing adequately trained teachers for rural schools cannot be overemphasized. Hygiene should emphasize right modes of living, proper health habits, and general community sanitation. This question will be fully discussed in Chapter IX.

The Practical Arts.—These include industrial work in the lower grades, and manual training, cooking, sewing, and household management in the upper grades. Much of the so-called "seat-work" in the lower grades has been mere busy-work, without any educational aim whatsoever. This work, to justify itself in the curriculum, must be vitalized. That is, it must be so planned that it will contribute definitely to the educative process. It must help develop children rather than just keep them busy.

Manual training and household arts are carefully

provided for in the larger rural and consolidated schools. In the one-room school little time has been provided for them in the program. Perhaps the most common manner of teaching cooking has been through the hot lunch. This is a splendid opportunity to correlate cooking, household management, hygiene, and sanitation.

Manual training usually is limited to woodwork, where it is taken up at all. The modern rural school should provide room for the manual arts. Their aim, of course, should not merely be to develop skill in the use of tools, nor to make practical things, although these aims are not to be overlooked, but rather to broaden the experience of the children, to bring about growth through the co-ordination of muscle and nervous system. It is learning by doing in the most practical sense. We have been accustomed to look upon education too much as a purely mental process, the forming of mental habits. Education includes not only mental habits but also physical (motor) and moral habits. This brings us to the last group of subjects in the elementary rural school curriculum.

The Fine Arts.—This group includes music, drawing, and general appreciation of the beautiful, a group that is still much neglected in rural schools. Of course, not all rural teachers can teach music and drawing, nor are they all able to lead children to appreciate beauty in nature, in pictures, in life. It requires a talented teacher to do all these.

But, we all agree that this side of life is as essential as, if not more so than, the intellectual and practical. The person who sees only the practical in everything

and fails to see its beauty, is missing a good share of the really worth while in life. The sad thing about it all is that we do not see beauty or appreciate the beautiful unless we have been taught to look for it or to appreciate it. So many persons are compelled to go through life, not really appreciating the beauties around them, through no fault of their own. It is for the curriculum builder and the school organizer to find a way in which children will be helped to grow symmetrically.

We have now finally arrived at the third of the problems we set for ourselves in the beginning of this chapter.

Possible Reorganization of the Curriculum to Meet the Aim of the Rural Elementary School.—The reader, no doubt, in reading over the large number of subjects included in the curriculum for rural elementary schools, has said to himself, “What manner of teacher will be able to handle all these subjects to say nothing of teaching them well?” and “Where is the time to come from for all these different subjects?”

The answer to these questions is attempted in Chapters V and VIII. The problems will never be entirely satisfactorily answered until we reorganize the rural school system along the lines suggested in Chapter III.

In the meantime while the one-room school must remain with us, something must be done to prevent the present generation of children from being deprived of their rightful inheritance. A possible line of attack is to provide certain groupings of subjects and to teach the “groups,” rather than to teach individual subjects as such. This is the old principle of correla-

tion carried to the *n*th degree. As an illustration of this we might again mention the teaching of the household arts, hygiene and sanitation, home management, arithmetic, reading, and composition, in connection with the hot noon lunch, rather than to provide a definite period for each separately.

Several experiments of this kind are already being carried on, notably those of Mrs. Johnson at Fairhope, Alabama, and of Dr. Meriam at the University of Missouri Elementary School. Rural curriculum builders might well consider such reorganizations for their rural elementary school curriculum.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. "To maintain discipline and to get the pupils through the course of study has been for a long time the chief aim and end of rural school instruction." How has this affected the rural school curriculum?
2. Do you think the old traditional subjects take up too much time? Can you suggest changes?
3. What is the purpose of teaching reading in rural schools? Suggest methods of teaching silent reading.
4. What do you consider to be the values of such subjects as agriculture, home-making, industrial arts, fine arts?
5. What is meant by the home-project method? Suggest several projects that could be carried out in rural schools.
6. What do you think of the following basis for promotion: "Promotion should be upon the basis of a year of normal life"? Meriam.
7. Discuss each of the following principles set forth by Meriam:
 - (a) The curriculum should contribute primarily to enabling boys and girls to be efficient in what they are now doing, only secondarily to preparing them to be efficient later.

- (b) The curriculum should be selected directly from real life and should be expressed in terms of the activities and the environment of people.
 - (c) The curriculum should lead the pupil to appreciate both work and leisure and to develop a habit of engaging in both.
 - (d) The curriculum should be so organized that it will admit of easy arrangement of the schedule for any day, of the work for any grade, and even of the transfer of work from grade to grade.
8. The following are the subjects in the University of Missouri Elementary School: Observation, Play, Stories, Handwork. What are your reactions to a curriculum of this kind?
 9. Do you think the rural school should prepare boys and girls for farm life?
 10. What suggestions can you offer for relieving the overcrowded rural school curriculum?
 11. Explain how you would teach geography in a rural school; nature study; hygiene and sanitation; domestic science.
 12. Do you think that the rural school should have "ruralized" textbooks?
 13. What is meant by a "project-curriculum"? What advantages has it for rural schools?
 14. Explain what is meant by "correlation" and show clearly how you would teach subjects that are correlated, so that neither would suffer.

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. Report on the Fairhope, Alabama, "Experiment."
2. The objectives of rural elementary education as set forth by various students of rural education.
3. How to organize a curriculum around three or four main fields, such as observation, play, stories, and handwork.
4. Utilizing the environment in curriculum making.
5. The importance of play in the curriculum.

References

- Bonser, F. G., *The Elementary School Curriculum*.
Brim, O. G., *Rural Education*, Chapter XI.
Charters, W. W., *Teaching the Common Branches*.
Collings, E., *An Experiment with a Project Curriculum*.
Cubberley, E. P., *Rural Life and Education*, Chapter XI.
Dewey, Evelyn, *New Schools for Old*.
Dewey, J., *Schools of Tomorrow*.
Meriam, J. L., *Child Life and the Curriculum*.
Woofter, T. J., *Teaching in Rural Schools*.
Baltimore County Course of Study.

CHAPTER VII

TESTS AND MEASUREMENTS IN RURAL SCHOOLS

Present Status.—Mental classification of pupils on the basis of intelligence tests, and scientific measurement of achievement in school subjects by means of standard tests have barely reached the rural school. Here and there a progressive superintendent or supervisor has ventured to make use of them as a means of determining the status of his schools and of improving instruction in them. But before he could hope to accomplish much in this direction, it was necessary for him to educate his teachers in the theory and uses of such tests. The lack of knowledge and understanding of this modern movement in education, on the part of rural teachers, and indeed, also on the part of many superintendents, has been the reason why it has barely reached the rural school today.

In Chapter V it was stated that only 46 percent. of our rural teachers are high school graduates, and that only 2 percent. are normal school graduates. This accounts largely for their ignorance in the field of tests and measurements. Furthermore, our teacher-training institutions have been tardy in providing training in this modern field of applied psychology, partly through inability to procure trained leaders in this

field and partly through a lack of enthusiasm in and support of the movement by those in charge of the training institutions themselves. The colleges are the leaders in developing tests and measurements, and they are also the leaders in training teachers in their use. Naturally these college-trained individuals do not drift into rural sections in any large numbers; hence the cities thrive on these educational advances long before the rural schools even know of their existence. Such has been the pathetic fate of the rural school in all matters educational, since Horace Mann's day.

Remedy for This Situation.—The remedy for this situation lies (a) in better trained teachers, and (b) in better supervision. Under our present system of inadequate training of teachers we cannot hope to train a young woman much in professional lines before she enters the service; most of this training must be in service. This is largely the province of the superintendent, the supervising teacher, and the helping teacher. We must, however, provide professional courses for these supervisors so that they may go out and lead their teachers. This can be done by means of extension courses, Saturday courses, and summer schools. Much can be done through directed professional reading.

Purpose of This Chapter.—It is the purpose of this chapter to present the practical aspects (1) of mental tests and (2) of standard achievement tests, particularly as related to the rural school situation. The theoretical aspects of these tests cannot be entered

into here. The reader who is interested in a wider knowledge of this field is referred to the books listed in the references at the close of the chapter.

(1) Mental Tests; also called Intelligence Tests.

A mental test is one devised to measure the native ability or native intelligence of the individual. These tests are often called intelligence or psychological tests. They measure the individual's native ability apart from learning or schooling. This native ability is expressed in terms of mental age (M.A.), which is expressed in years and months, just as we now express actual age (chronological age, C.A.).

For the sake of convenience in classification, a unit, known as the Intelligence Quotient (I.Q.) has been established. It is simply the relationship that a person's mental age (M.A.) bears to his actual age

(C.A.).
$$\frac{\text{M.A.}}{\text{C.A.}} = \text{I.Q.}$$
 In other words, it is the quo-

tient obtained by dividing the mental age by the chronological age. Thus, if a child's mental age, as determined by an intelligence test, is 10 years and his chronological age is 10 years, his intelligence quotient (I.Q.) is $\frac{10}{10}$ or 100 (decimal point is omitted in expressing I.Q.). An I.Q. above 100 indicates above normal intelligence and one below 100 indicates less than normal, normal being the expected mental age for a given chronological age. Terman's interpretation of I.Q.'s, which is the commonly accepted one, is here presented:

I. Q.	Interpretation
above 140	near genius
120-140	very superior
110-120	superior
90-120	normal
80-90	dull
70-80	border line deficiency
below 70	mental deficiency (often feeble-minded)

The term "feeble-minded" is a general term meaning all degrees of mental deficiency existing from birth. The specific types of feeble mindedness from the highest to the lowest are:

moron	mental age never exceeds	11
imbecile	mental age never exceeds	8
idiot.....	mental age never exceeds	3

Public schools are rarely concerned with the last two of these types, but the first type is common in our schools, and is rather a perplexing problem to the teacher.

With this brief general statement of mental tests and I.Q. classification, let us now consider the kinds of mental tests and their uses.

Kinds of Mental Tests.—In general there are two kinds of mental tests: (1) individual and (2) group tests. The individual test, as its name implies, must be given to one person at a time. This makes it rather impractical for general school use, because it takes thirty minutes or more to give the test. The advantage of this test, however, is that it is much more accurate than the group test. It also gives many characteristics of the individual's personality

which must necessarily escape the examiner in the group tests.

A more serious objection to the individual intelligence test is that it requires an experienced person to administer it. This factor practically eliminates its use in rural schools, except by the superintendent or supervisor. The use of the individual intelligence test can well be restricted to doubtful and problem cases, in which case the superintendent or supervisor can be asked to give it.

The most commonly used individual intelligence test is The Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon Intelligence Test. It requires a high degree of skill to administer this test successfully. All superintendents and supervisors should be able to give this or some other standard individual test to check up on group test results.

The Group Test.—Individual intelligence testing had developed considerably before the advent of the group test, which dates back to the period of the War. Group intelligence tests were used extensively in the Army in classifying recruits. The principle of the Army group tests has been carried over into education since the War, so that now we have several fairly dependable group intelligence tests for use with children and high school students.

These tests are so constructed that they can well be given by the classroom teacher. The directions are clearly and specifically stated in the manual of directions. All the teacher needs to do is to follow these directions. It is important that they be followed *to the letter*, however, for the standards or norms are

constructed on the basis of those directions, and any deviation from them will invalidate the norms.

The scoring of the test booklets is done by means of a scoring key. This eliminates the teacher's judgment completely from the scoring, thus making it thoroughly objective.

Interpreting the Results of Group Tests.—The scoring method differs for different group tests, but usually the number of right answers constitutes the individual's score. The scores on these tests have been standardized. By this is meant that the test has been given to a large group of people of various ages and grades, and on the basis of their replies, averages, or norms, have been computed for various ages and grades. Thus, if a large number of children of a given age, say ten years, approximate a certain score in the test it is reasonable to assume that a particular ten-year-old child, under similar conditions, should approximate that score. By means of the standards accompanying the test, the teacher is able to determine the intelligence rating of her pupils. Group intelligence scores can be translated into mental age and I.Q.—this is sometimes called the Group Intelligence Quotient (G.I.Q.).

There is an advantage in having a common basis into which to translate all intelligence test scores. The raw scores of various tests might lead to confusion since a given score on one test means something entirely different on another. The letter scheme of ranking intelligence presented below is used in Oakland and Berkeley, California, and is reported as being very satisfactory.

*I.Q. Classification as Used in Oakland and Berkeley, California*¹

Intelligence Rank	Meaning	I.Q. or G.I.Q.
A	Very superior	130 and up
B	superior	115 to 129
C+	slightly above average	105 to 114
C	average	95 to 104
C-	slightly below average	85 to 94
D	inferior	70 to 84
E	very inferior	69 and below

Let us now consider the uses and values of mental tests for the rural teacher and superintendent.

Uses and Values of Mental Tests.—First, it is very important that a teacher know the individual capacities of her pupils, so that she may make allowance for lack of original endowment. But, some one will say, that it must be a very poor teacher, indeed, who cannot distinguish the bright from the dull. It may be true that in general the teacher's estimate is a fair criterion of a pupil's ability, but in many cases this estimate is entirely wrong. Actual testing experience has shown that teachers often fail to estimate mental ability accurately. The shy, retiring child is often classed as dull, when test results reveal superior mental ability; or again the forward, bold child who is always raising his hand is often classed as bright, when his test score actually places him at below normal. Then there is the case of the child who is small for his age, and is retarded in his school work, who is doing excellent work perhaps, in a grade or two below where he should be. The teacher is likely to rate this child high—perhaps the brightest in his class—when in reality he may have the lowest I.Q. of all. The personal equa-

¹ Dickson, *Mental Tests and the Classroom Teacher*, p. 118.

tion cannot help but enter into our everyday judgments and often causes them to be distorted. An objective measure of ability such as is offered by mental tests will help the teacher to form correct judgments of each of her pupils.

Second, mental tests will show the teacher what level of work a child is able to do. If he is not doing that level, she will know that something is wrong outside of the child's mental ability. It may be some physical defect, and often the cause is here; or it may be some environmental cause, perhaps, in the home; or the child may be merely lazy and needs new life instilled into him by tapping some mainspring of energy; or, finally, it is possible that the teaching has been poor—wrong methods, insufficient drill, lack of enthusiasm, etc.

This diagnostic value of mental tests is, perhaps, the most important one both from the standpoint of the child and from the standpoint of teaching efficiency.

Third, mental tests are important in classifying pupils into grades. While most rural schools are not seriously concerned with the problem of gradation, yet it is important for the teacher to know what grade of work a child is able to do. State courses of study are constructed on the basis of the eight grades, which make it all the more necessary to have some system of gradation in mind. Theoretically, a child should be in the grade where he can get the most good from the subject studied. This grade should be determined by the mental development of the child rather than by any other standards. The best criterion of mental development is the mental age. So if the child has a

mental age of ten years, theoretically, he should be in the fifth grade, no matter whether he is eight or twelve years old chronologically. I say, theoretically, because there are some circumstances, under which this rule could not be followed. For instance, a child entering school for the first time might have a mental age of eight years, yet it would be obviously impossible to place that child in the third grade. There is a certain amount of traditional learning that must be covered as a prerequisite to a given grade. Provision should, however, be made for covering this amount in as economical a manner as possible. The "system" must not interfere with the child's possibilities of progress.

Then, again, there is the case of the mentally retarded individual. It would be unwise to keep a fourteen-year-old boy, with a mental age of eight in the third grade, for reasons to be discussed later. Then, finally, it might be unwise to push the highly nervous child along as rapidly as his mental development will allow. It is important that the physical development be brought up along with the mental development.

The teacher will make such adjustments in the work as she sees fit, but always bearing in mind the general rule, that the best results will be accomplished where the work is commensurate with the mental ability of the learner.

Fourth, mental tests help to classify the exceptional child—meaning by this both the supernormal and the subnormal. Lately, we are beginning to pay more attention to exceptionally bright pupils. We have always, in our public school system, spent a great deal of

time and effort on the dull child, as if he merited more sympathy and attention than the bright one, who, after all, must become the torch bearer of the nation.

The reason for this extraordinary attention given to the dull child is clear. Our Constitution states that we are all created equal, and we have taken this statement at its face value. Teachers have been expected to accept everything into the educational mill and to turn out the same grade of flour from all. If they failed to do so they were held accountable for the failure. And so they have learned to turn out a uniform product (to all appearances at least) by devoting most of their time and effort to the dull pupils in their classes. The bright ones took care of themselves largely, because they were bright and learned readily.

The fact is that we are all born unequal. The psychology of individual differences teaches us that no two of us are alike in any characteristic. The sooner we recognize this in our educational system, the sooner will we be fair to all classes of children. Superintendents will not gauge their teachers' success by the number of graduates or "passes" but rather by the units of progress actually made throughout the year (measured by scientific tests) as compared with the objectives aimed at. This will give the teacher who has to work with a low general average of mental ability the same credit for teaching efficiency, provided she brings her school up to the standard set for that level of intelligence, as her sister teacher receives who is working with a group of much higher intelligence. It is proverbial that "You cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's ear," but it should be added that you can make

a good leather one. The maker of leather purses should receive credit for efficiency in working with coarse materials, just as the one working in silk receives credit now, largely because he is working with high grade materials. This figure of speech but approximates the teaching situation, but it will help to show how misdirected much of our teaching has been.

The rural school is the best place to take care of both types of exceptional children because most rural schools do not suffer from congestion. The exceptional child is largely an individual problem needing individual care and instruction. The bright child must be provided with work that will keep him developing. If he is not kept busy, he will form habits of idleness and carelessness, and he will form an attitude of indifference toward life, which will be a serious obstacle to him always. By not being taxed to his capacity, he will get the feeling that things come easy in life and so may never realize the possibilities of which he is capable. Much more of our teaching time should go to these potential leaders than we now give them.

The problem of the dull child can best be solved by knowing exactly where he stands in the scale of intelligence. The I.Q. is relatively stable; that is, it does not change appreciably with age and education. Knowing this fact greatly simplifies the teacher's problem, in so far as it eliminates the possibility of making a normally intelligent individual out of the dull or border-line class. Many a teacher has been blamed for failing to bring a child up to grade standard, when such a thing was a mental impossibility. Mental tests

will help to prevent such unjust criticism. Knowing the mental limitations of a pupil, the teacher can adjust her teaching accordingly. The dull-normal and border-line cases will be able to profit from most of the drill work in the curriculum, but they will drop behind more and more in the linguistic and reasoning phases. This answers the question why so many dull pupils fail to go beyond the sixth grade.

Parents should be informed early of the mental states of their children so that they will not blame the teacher when the crisis comes. The border-line cases are the most perplexing ones to the teacher. They are retarded in their school work and are not interested in books. They are often a bad influence in the school. They are controlled largely on the levels of instinct; hence they are often a positive menace to the school. They should not be kept in classes with growing children. The best type of education for these children is of a vocational kind. The farm is one of the best places to train these pupils, provided they are under sympathetic direction. Some plan of school credit for home work should be worked out. This would make it possible for the teacher to exercise direction over the work at home.

(2) Standard Educational Tests, or Achievement Tests.

Achievement tests are not to be confused with mental tests. The latter measure the pupil's capacity to do, while the former measure his accomplishment, or what he can do in a given subject of the curriculum.

Standard tests have long been looked upon as a fad or as a plaything for professional educators. But, because of their importance to the teacher and the supervisor, they have made a place for themselves in our educational program which they will retain. They are especially valuable to the rural teacher because they will enable her to determine her teaching efficiency and the place her school occupies with reference to other schools. To some degree the teacher can supervise her own work. Of course, standard tests are extremely valuable in the hands of the supervisor and superintendent. They are one means of judging the efficiency of instruction of a school system.

What Makes a Test a Standard Test?—Two factors make a test a standard test: (1) definite standards of achievement for each grade, in the subject tested, and (2) an objective method of giving and scoring the test. The standards are obtained by giving the tests to large numbers of pupils and determining the average or representative achievement for a given grade. Thus, when a teacher is comparing the results of her class in a standard test with the standards of the test, she is really comparing them with the achievement of hundreds or thousands of children of the same grade in the country.

The second factor, that of objective scoring, is accomplished by providing a scoring key which tells exactly which answers are right and which wrong. This eliminates the teacher's or scorer's estimate in marking the tests. Any teacher marking the test will obtain the same score as another, if the test is properly standardized. An objective test is one in which the

personal element is entirely eliminated when marking it. A subjective test is one in which the personal element plays an important part when marking it. Practically all of the tests made and scored by the teachers themselves are more or less subjective.

In Which Subjects Are Standardized Tests Available?—In practically all subjects of the elementary school a variety of standard tests are now available. In most of the high school subjects one or more standard tests are available. There are excellent books describing and illustrating many of the standard tests now available. (See references at the end of this chapter.)

Is a Knowledge of Statistical Methods Necessary in Giving and Scoring Standard Tests?—The answer to this question is that a knowledge of elementary statistical methods, at least an acquaintance with common statistical terms, is handy but not really necessary. The superintendent and supervisors should, however, have a working knowledge of elementary statistics in order to compute test results and explain them clearly to their teachers. All the classroom teacher needs to know about standard tests is how to give and score them correctly and how to tabulate and interpret the results. Anybody who is able to get a teacher's certificate and is able to follow printed directions surely can use standard tests.

Recording the Results of Tests.—By far the best method of recording the results of standard tests is the individual graph or profile. Figures 10, 11, and 12 show two types of such graphs. The graph card can easily be made by the pupils and each pupil can

be taught to keep his own score. It is advisable to give several standard tests throughout the year in each subject, and enter the graph for each period in different colors. This will indicate clearly the changes that

NAME														AGE				GRADE			
	READING		ARITHMETIC					WRITING		ENGLISH		GEOG	HIST								
	SP'D	COMP	ADD	SUBT	MULT	DIV	PROB	SP'D	QUAL	GRAM	COMP										
8																					
7																					
6																					
5																					
4																					
3																					
2																					
1																					

FIGURE 10

INDIVIDUAL PUPIL GRAPH

have occurred since the last testing. The class graph can be constructed by taking the average of each test and recording it on the card. There are several advantages of this graphic method of recording test results.

Advantages of Individual Graph.—First, it shows at

a glance where the pupil stands in all his subjects. He sees in which he is up to standard and in which he is below. This shows him directly where to place his study effort.

Second, the teacher sees where she needs to place her teaching effort for each pupil, and she will see how well her teaching is functioning. If a pupil is well above his grade standard in one subject and below in others, she can readjust his time so that he will receive more instruction in the backward subjects.

Third, the graph offers an incentive—a definite objective, for work. Pupils know (can see) where they should be in a given time in the year and so will make an effort to get there. Under the old scheme pupils had no definite goal in mind, nor did they know where they stood throughout the year.

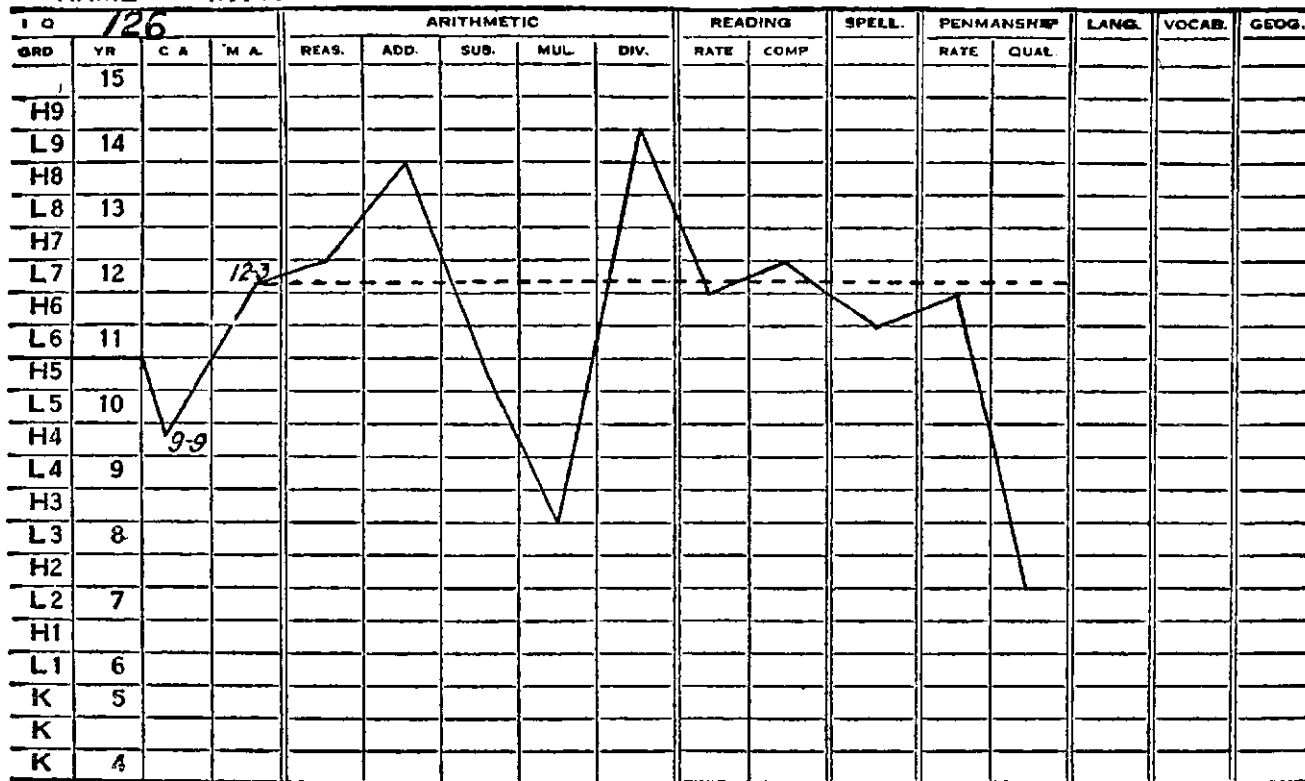
Fourth, it is something definite for the children to take home to show to their parents. If parents are kept informed of the progress or failure of their children in this way, many misunderstandings regarding promotion will be avoided.

Fifth, the group graph will show the teacher where her school stands in comparison to other schools. The superintendent should make it a point to inform all schools of the standing of the others.

Unless the test results are made use of to better the instruction, one of the greatest advantages of standard tests has been lost. The purpose of all testing should be to better instruction. This brings us to the advantages of standard tests.

The Values of Standard Tests.—1. The chief value of standard tests is that they are diagnostic. That is,

NAME *M. R.*



----- Level of capacity

————— Level of accomplishment

FIGURE 11

INDIVIDUAL PUPIL GRAPH, SHOWING ACCOMPLISHMENT OF RETARDED PUPIL

(From Dickson's *Mental Tests and The Classroom Teacher*, Copyright, 1923, by The World Book Company)

they diagnose or analyze the classroom situation. They show points of strength and of weakness in the subject tested. They show each pupil's points of strength and of weakness. Knowing these points, the teacher can adjust her teaching accordingly. Superintendent Brooks ² of Winchester County, New Hampshire, discovered, by means of standard tests, that the schools of his division were uniformly high in arithmetic and low in silent reading. He made the adjustment called for by this diagnosis, namely, gave more time and drill to silent reading and less to arithmetic.

2. They are valuable in measuring the progress of pupils and in determining promotion. In fact, they are the best single criterion we have for determining promotion. If several standard tests are given throughout the year and the scores are recorded on the graph, the pupil will see at a glance whether he is ready for promotion or not. It will not be necessary that all scores in all subjects be up to standard, but those in the major subjects must be up to or very near the standard.

3. They are valuable in helping to grade pupils. This is especially true where there is considerable shifting of population and new pupils are admitted during the school year. A standardized test will tell at a glance where the pupil will profit most.

4. They are easy to give and score, thus saving much of the teacher's time and energy.

5. They are fair tests of achievement, and are fair to the pupil because they are objectively scored.

² Brooks, *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests*.

NAME *L.N.*

I. Q. <i>93</i>				ARITHMETIC					READING		SPELL.	PENMANSHIP		LANE	VOCAL	GEOG.
GRD	YR	C A	M A.	REAL	ADD.	SUB.	MUL.	DIV.	RATE	COMP.		RATE	QUAL.			
	15															
H9																
L9	14															
H8																
L8	13															
H7																
L7	12															
H6																
L6	11															
H5																
L5	10															
H4																
L4	9															
H3																
L3	8															
H2																
L2	7															
H1																
L1	6															
K	5															
K																
K	4															

----- Level of capacity

———— Level of accomplishment

FIGURE 12

INDIVIDUAL PUPIL GRAPH, SHOWING ACCOMPLISHMENT OF ACCELEBATED PUPIL

(From Dickson's *Mental Tests and The Classroom Teacher*, Copyright, 1923, by The World Book Company)

6. They are valuable in determining the efficiency of teachers. They must not be used for this purpose, however, without taking the general level of intelligence of the school into consideration; the quality of the supervision; the limitations under which the teacher is working, such as, equipment, attendance, and previous teaching.

7. They are valuable for supervision.

Using Standard Tests in Supervision.—Standard tests are a most valuable tool in the hands of the supervisor. By inaugurating a test program early in the school year, the actual situation that must be faced is disclosed. This initial program will give an inventory of the mental and educational stock of the supervisory district. Succeeding tests throughout the year will show the advances that are being made. This testing program for supervisory purposes should be managed by the supervisor. He should select the tests that are to be used, and the time for giving them. He should determine who shall give the tests. Usually, it is best, before beginning the testing, to have one or two group-teachers' meetings at which the program and tests are to be explained. Teachers should be informed as to the proper procedure in giving and scoring tests, for the supervisor will not be able to do this himself. In general the best procedure to follow in supervising by means of standard tests is as follows:

1. Determine the tests that are to be given and instruct the teachers how to give them. Where the teachers are unfamiliar with tests it is wise to start in on only one or two subjects: arithmetic, reading, etc.

2. Score the tests. Teachers may do this and they may tabulate individual pupil scores. The supervisor, then, tabulates the group results.

3. Interpretation of results. This should be done by the supervisor. Each teacher should be informed about the results and their significance. She should know where her school stands in the district. In general the graphical method of presentation is the most effective.

4. Finally, remedial measures must be recommended. The instruction must be modified to meet the needs revealed by the test results. It is on this step alone that testing can be justified.

Can Teachers Be Trusted to Do Their Own Testing?—I believe that the answer to this question is yes. The whole success of this movement, as any other movement, depends upon how well the teachers are “sold” to the idea of standard tests. If the supervisor has won the confidence of his teachers, and if they know that the test results are to be used to better instruction—which is their main purpose—and not to test them, there will be no temptation to cheat or coach. In fact, they will not want to, for they will be interested in knowing how they are getting along in their work.

If, however, the supervisor has reasons to feel that a particular teacher is not honest he can check up her results by giving a test to her class himself. Most of the tests can be procured in several forms or editions which makes it possible to compare results. This factor also eliminates the danger of coaching. With plenty of tests to choose from, and several forms

of each test, the coaching danger is fairly well eliminated.

A Testing Program in Wisconsin.—Wisconsin is one of the leading states in the educational test and measurement movement. It maintains a division of tests and measurements in the State Department of Education. This division has undertaken several state-wide testing programs embracing both the village and the rural schools. One of these programs, that involving silent reading, is selected for presentation here:³

In October, 1920, the division of tests and measurements tested more than 2,000 ninth grade pupils, in silent reading, in both city and village schools scattered throughout the state. Of these 30 percent. failed to exceed the sixth grade standards in reading, while only 4 percent. fell below the sixth grade intelligence level. Most of the deficient pupils came from the country schools.

At the November, 1921, meeting of the supervising teachers of the state, it was voted to give a reading test to the country pupils. The following plan was followed:

1. The Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Test was given to see what the specific needs were.
2. Practice exercises were provided, suited to the needs of those deficient.
3. After four or five months of work a second form of the test was given to see what improvement had been made.

³ Osborn, "Educational Measurements in the Rural Schools of Wisconsin," *Journal of Rural Education*, June, 1922.

The results of the first test showed that some of the children were in need of remedial work. Two types of remedial exercises were used. One aimed at the eradication of careless reading, the other aimed at increasing the speed of silent reading. Pages from old books were mounted on mounting paper, and questions were prepared by the teachers to bring out the content of these pages. The material was passed out to the children, who read silently and found the answers to the questions. The answers were sometimes given orally and sometimes they were written. A premium was placed on speed of reading.

Another device was the use of flash phrases. These ranged from short easy ones to long difficult ones. These were used as drill exercises in speed of reading.

The average amount gained in the second test, given after five months of drill, was beyond the wildest dreams of any of those participating in the work. These gains are shown in Figure 13. It should also be stated that 10 percent. of the children did not improve at all.

The advantages of this testing program may be summarized as follows:

1. It has been a great time saver in the long run. By getting at the fundamental difficulties and relieving them, the track is cleared for all other subjects. They are all dependent upon silent reading. If that is poor, the others cannot be good.

2. The work is a sort of activity which leads to further activity. Teachers are encouraged by such definite and specific results that they are anxious to carry it on into other fields. It leads to definite teaching

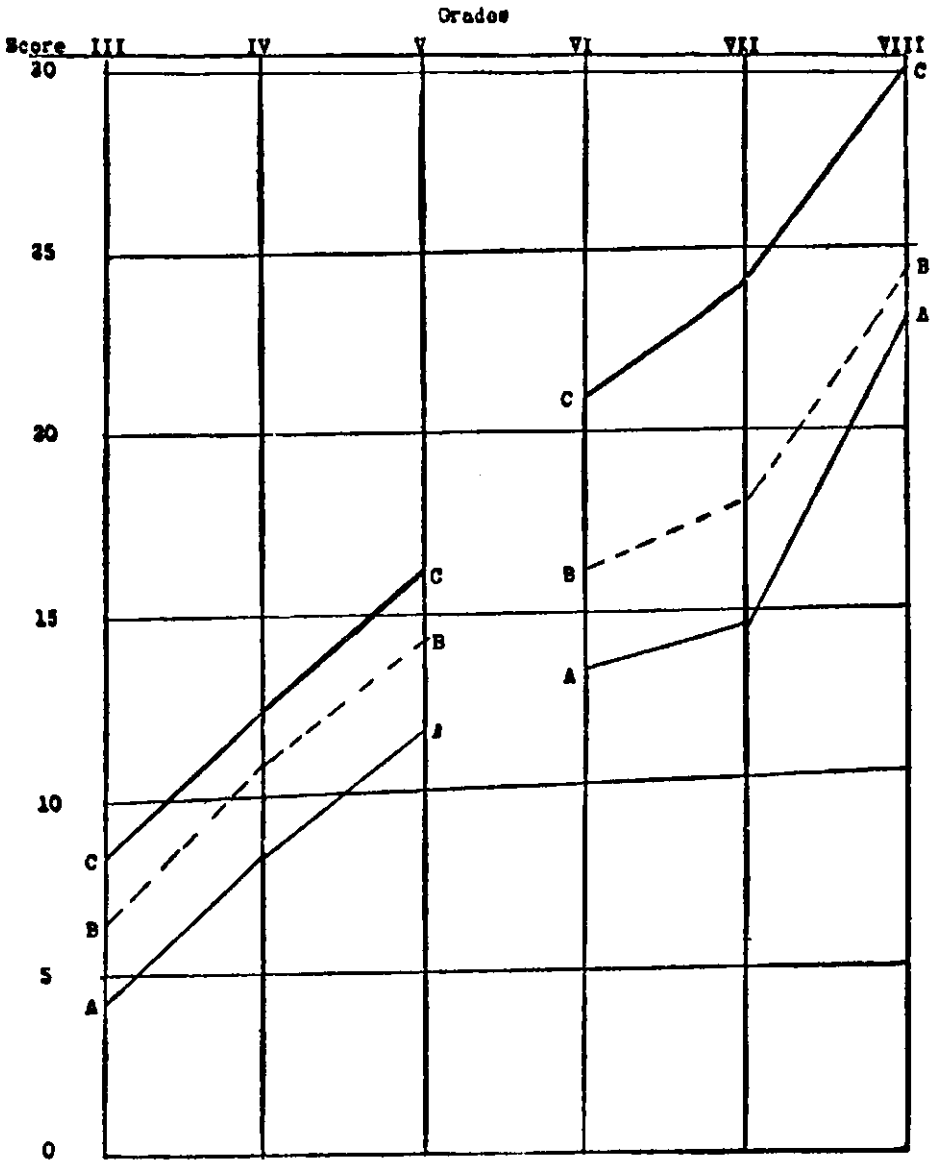


FIGURE 13

HOW THE MEDIAN IN READING IS BEING RAISED

Tests used—Monroe Standardized Silent Reading Test, Forms 1 and 2
 Line A A shows the achievement of the pupils in December in Comprehension
 Line B B indicates the standard amount of improvement measured from
 Line A A and based upon Monroe's grade standards
 Line C C shows the amount of improvement actually obtained
 No. of children involved—850, representing six counties
 (After W. J. Osburn, *Journal of Rural Education*, Vol. 1, No. 10)

objectives, such as collecting types of errors and drilling on these.

3. The efficiency of rural supervision is tremendously increased when rural teachers understand and appreciate standard tests. Teachers will be willing to give tests under the supervisor's directions, score them and work up the results. Then they can work at the specific needs of their pupils.

4. Such a program inspires both teachers and supervisors with an enthusiasm which is both contagious and refreshing. This then spreads to pupils and parents.

How Standard Tests Are Used in Winchester County, New Hampshire.—In a very interesting and illuminating book,⁴ Superintendent S. S. Brooks of Winchester County, New Hampshire, tells how standardized tests and scales were used periodically for two years throughout an entire supervisory district, and how the results of the tests were put to practical use for classifying pupils, for measuring their progress, as a partial basis for promotion, for measuring the efficiency of teachers, for measuring the relative efficiency of special methods, and for motivating the work of both teachers and pupils. It also tells of the remedial measures undertaken to correct the unsatisfactory conditions revealed by the tests.

The Situation.—The new law of New Hampshire, which became effective September 1, 1919, provided for compulsory supervision of schools. Before this, supervision had been optional, and many districts did not elect to have it. The supervisory district to which

⁴ *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests*, Houghton Mifflin Company.

Superintendent Brooks was appointed consisted of twenty-six one-room rural schools, with teachers for the most part inexperienced and untrained, and a majority of whom had never worked under a superintendent before. Three of the teachers were normal school graduates and two had attended one summer school; the others had no professional training whatever. The schools were typical rural schools of the old class, no grading, archaic books, poor and inefficient methods of teaching, poor unsanitary buildings, etc. Such was the situation that this superintendent faced.

Method of Attack.—Two weeks were spent in getting a general size-up of the situation. Having been trained in the use of tests, the superintendent determined upon a program which would not only reveal the actual present needs, but would also be of direct aid in improving the situation. Among the problems that stood out clearly, as demanding early attention were the following: (1) to grade the schools fairly and accurately, (2) how to measure the progress of pupils, (3) how to measure the ability of teachers, (4) how to find a practical method of supervising study. Standard tests covering the following subjects were ordered: arithmetic, silent and oral reading, spelling, writing, geography, history, and English language.

The next step was to procure the co-operation of the teachers. This was obtained by a series of well planned teachers' meetings at which the various problems were discussed together with means for attacking and solving them. The subject of standard tests was introduced and carefully explained. It is need-

less to say that the subject was entirely new to most of the teachers. Samples of the various tests were used in explaining them, and some of the tests were given to the teachers, and then were scored by them. These scored samples were kept by the teachers to use as models in correcting the tests that they were to give in their schools.

After the final meeting (there were four of them) each teacher went back to her school and gave the tests, scored them and returned the papers to the superintendent, who did the tabulating of results.

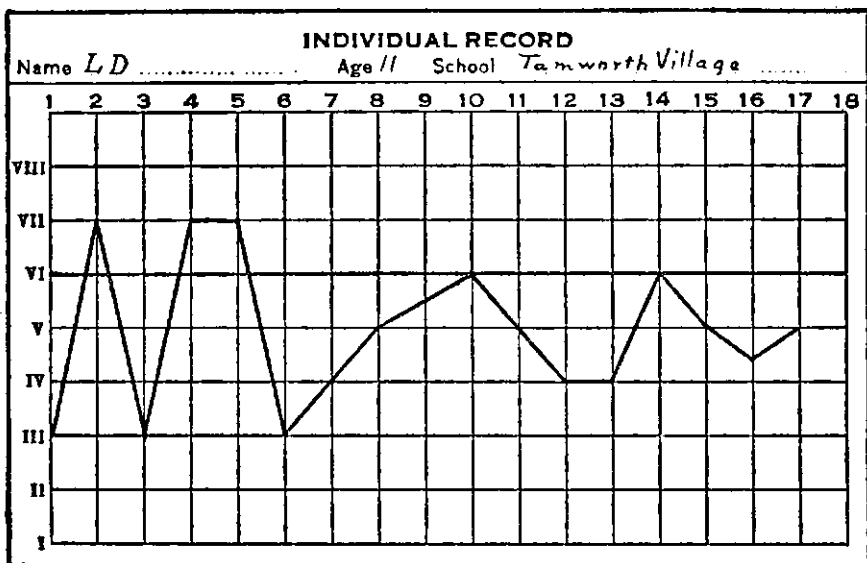


FIGURE 14

SAMPLE OF INDIVIDUAL RECORD. DATA THE SAME AS IN TABLE 10
 (From Brooks, *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests*, Houghton Mifflin Company)

The Results.—A very simple graphic method of showing each pupil's scores was devised. The card was hectographed as shown in Figure 14. The Roman numerals on the left indicate the grade, and the Arabic

numerals at the top correspond to the subject as indicated in Table 10. This simple graphic method of showing where the individual stands in each subject can easily be used by the teacher in her testing programs. The same graph can be used from month to month or from year to year, if different kinds of lines, or different colors are used.

TABLE 10

Record of L. D. (See also Figure 14).

No.	Subjects and phases of subjects.	Grade
1.	Rate of silent reading; Curtis's Test.	III.
2.	Writing Speed.	VII.
3.	Writing Quality.	III.
4.	Questions answered in five minutes; Curtis's Test.	VII.
5.	Index of Comprehension; Curtis's Test.	VII.
6.	Spelling.	III.
7.	Addition.	IV.
8.	Subtraction.	V.
9.	Multiplication.	V½.
10.	Division.	VI.
11.	Mixed Fundamentals.	V.
12.	Arithmetical Reasoning: Correct principle.	IV.
13.	Arithmetical Reasoning: Correct answer.	IV.
14.	Visual Vocabulary.	VI.
15.	English Organization.	V.
16.	Geography.	IV½.
17.	History.	V.

(From Brooks, *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests* Houghton Mifflin Company, p. 35.)

A certain tendency was found to pervade all graphs, namely, that all tended to be high in certain subjects and low in others. Arithmetic scores were uniformly high, while reading, writing, language, geography, and history, were low. Figure 15 shows average scores of sixty-two normal seventh-grade pupils. A search for the cause of this situation revealed that arithmetic was overemphasized to the detriment of other sub-

jects. It also showed that reading was not taught by silent reading methods. The old oral reading methods were used entirely. Writing was taught by the old copy-book method in many schools. The other subjects that were dependent upon reading ability were low. Hence, the way to bring them up was to bring up reading.

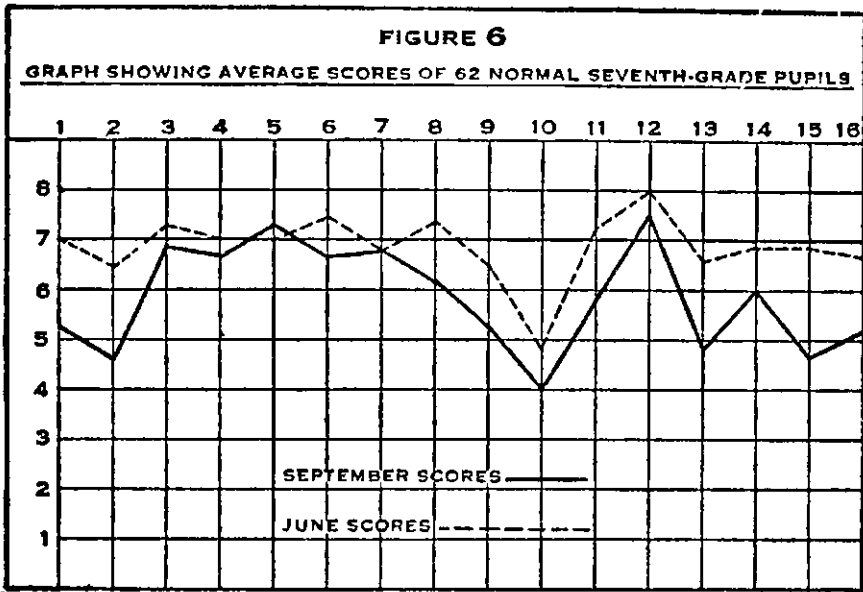


FIGURE 15

GRAPH SHOWING SCORES OF 62 NORMAL SEVENTH-GRADE PUPILS
 (From Brooks *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests*, Houghton Mifflin Company)

In the actual remedial program much of the material in the histories and geographies was used for reading material. Much drill in silent reading was given. Various methods and devices were used in increasing silent reading ability.

The results of this comprehensive program are amazing. Some idea of the advances made can be

had from Figure 15 (Difference between September and June scores). The other values derived from the uses of tests and testing programs of this nature have been given elsewhere in this chapter.

This New Hampshire program is an outstanding example of what a superintendent can do with standard tests in a rural district with typical rural material to work with.

Surveying Rural Schools by Means of Standard Tests.—The standard test is an invaluable tool in the hands of the school surveyor. Already we have several state surveys and numerous city surveys in which standard tests are used solely in measuring the educational status of the schools. Comparisons can be drawn between states, cities, and schools on the basis of test findings, because they offer a common basis of measurement. Now, we are beginning to have county surveys. Superintendent Brooks' work in Winchester County, New Hampshire, may be considered to be such a survey. Another very thoroughgoing survey of rural schools is that of Black Hawk County, Iowa,⁵ made by Fred D. Cram, for the National Council of Education.

Purposes of the Black Hawk County Survey.—The purposes of the rural school survey were as follows:

- I. Are tests and measurements usable and useful in rural school teaching, supervision, and administration?
 1. If usable, by whom?
 - a. specialist
 - b. supervisor
 - c. teacher

⁵ Bulletin of the Iowa State Teachers' College, Vol. 23, No. 3, Part 1.

2. If not usable, why not?
- II. What are the results of testing when administered by.
- a. the specialist
 - b. the teacher
- III. Can these tests result in improved instruction and better results, over a term of years?
- IV. Can results, when determined in such a survey, be passed on to teachers and supervisors in a form which they can understand and use?

Procedure Followed.—In general the procedure followed in this county survey was as follows:

The county superintendent planned his work for the year to meet the requirements of the committee on tests. His object was to have the county surveyed and incidentally to have his teachers trained in test procedure. Each teacher secured a copy of Wilson and Hoke, "How to Measure." The plans for the year were outlined at a county institute early in September, and during the year Saturday study periods were emphasized by specialists.

The tests were given by the county superintendent and surveyor in as many schools as could be reached. The results were tabulated and presented to the teachers. Specialists then discussed remedial measures. Plans for the next test were outlined and readings assigned. The teachers were then instructed to give the next test under consideration. Some scoring was done by the teachers, others by the superintendent, and surveyor.

Material Used.—The materials used in this work were as follows:

1. National Intelligence Tests.
2. Monroe's Silent Reading Tests—Form 1.
3. Adaptation of the Virginia Word List.
4. Ayre's Gettysburg Scale for Measuring Hand-writing.
5. Cleveland Survey Arithmetic Test.
6. Barnes-Courtis Locational Geography of the United States.
7. Harlan's Test of Information in United States History.
8. A specially constructed Iowa Geography Test.
9. Charter's Language Test—miscellaneous.

Conclusions of this Survey.—The general conclusions of the Rural School Survey are so definite in answering the questions listed under the "purposes" of the survey and also in making clear to superintendents and teachers how tests are usable and who can use them, that I quote them in full.

What are the conclusions, primary and secondary, at which we arrive?

- I. Testing is feasible in one-teacher schools.
 1. It may be done by a specialist, if funds permit and personnel is available.
 2. It may be done by a supervisor or superintendent himself, provided he desires to devote a major portion of his time to it.
 - a. A superintendent of county schools would probably be justified in making a testing campaign his major program about one year in five.
 - (1) This is all the time that he can spare.

(2) There will probably be a complete change of teachers in that period.

(3) No grade or group will completely escape being tested at least twice.

3. It may be done by the teachers.

a. If they have had a course in tests and measurements in normal school or college.

b. If they have opportunity to study through extension service in

(1) Credit class work.

(2) Study center groups.

(3) Correspondence courses.

c. If they have observed the giving of tests to such an extent that they are familiar with the methods through frequent demonstrations and provided they have a scientific attitude.

II. The tests used should for the most part be such as can be administered to an entire rural school of eight grades at one time, assuming that Grades I and II are eliminated.

1. To this end, we used, with success, the following list of tests. The one marked with a star (*) was given only by the specialist. The others were administered by the teachers, in whole or in part, after instruction.

a. National Intelligence Test.*

b. Monroe Silent Reading.

c. Cleveland Survey Arithmetic.

d. Virginia Spelling (from Ayres).

- e. Ayres Gettysburg Scale for Measuring Handwriting.
- f. Harlan History.
- g. Barns-Courtis Geography Test.
- h. Charters Language Scale, Miscellaneous and Miscellaneous B.
- i. Iowa Geography Test (Home-made).
(Harlan History was given to grades 7-8 only. Barns-Courtis to grades 5-8. Iowa geography to grades 5-8.)
- j. Fullerton Music Test.

III. Only such county superintendents as can arouse and maintain an enthusiastic response on the part of teachers should undertake a testing program through the teachers.

1. There must be a proper attitude when the examiner enters the school.
2. The teacher must be willing to give the tests, to score the papers, and to tabulate results, if asked to do so.
3. She must attend meetings for instruction in new tests; for graphic interpretation of results; and for recommendations.
4. She must carry back to the school a report as to conditions, without humiliating or embarrassing individual pupils.
5. She must invent, adapt, or adopt means of making improvements.
6. She must study the original papers and draw conclusions therefrom.
7. She must consult with pupils as to difficulties; as to why this or that error was made.

8. She must have the support of pupils and parents in remedying the faults of the school as a whole, and of the particular pupil.

IV. From the above, it appears that the maker of this report believes in the test as a means of instruction. It may be, also, as it has been, a means of supervision and administration. But in this connection it has a very narrow field. When the teachers use it as a means to an end, it will come into its highest usefulness. But teachers will never use it enthusiastically until prejudice, already aroused by the distorted impressions they have received, is removed, and they are trained in its administration, interpretation, and adaptation to needs.

V. It seems that children in one-teacher schools fall entirely too low in all tests, and in all subjects. This would be a more definite "find," if we were not also greatly surprised at the low medians in consolidated and town schools.

VI. There is no difference worth considering between the performance of those living in the country and those living in town, when they comprise mixed groups in a consolidated school.

VII. No outstanding difference is noticeable between performance of boys and girls. A brief and unsatisfactory intelligence test shows girls superior to boys (difference in physical age not considered). Most of the comparisons made, in this survey, between boys and girls, show the girls to be slightly superior in performance when the basis is the grade.

VIII. Intelligence of Scandinavian children, in one community measured by the National Intelligence

Test, is slightly superior, on the whole, to the intelligence of other nationalities.

IX. A consistent follow-up program brings results in silent reading and geography of the United States.

X. The novice in testing should not at first be intrusted with tests in which the time limit falls short of two minutes. Power, rather than time tests, are advisable for the beginner.

Conclusion.—Educational tests and measurements have come to stay. Their importance to the teacher and supervisor can hardly be overemphasized. Their importance in the field of rural education is already being recognized by many. The testing programs and the surveys outlined in this chapter show the practical uses to which tests can be put, and the educational values to be derived from them. The large number of books and other literature appearing, together with the emphasis now being placed on this subject in teacher-training institutions, is a good index to the importance that is being placed upon this relatively recent trend in education.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Distinguish clearly between intelligence tests and achievement tests.
2. What makes a test a standard test?
3. How can intelligence tests be used to advantage in the rural schools? Who should give the tests?
4. Many teachers say that they know their pupils' abilities without having to be shown by means of intelligence, or

- any other, tests. How can the superintendent "win over" such teachers to the scientific attitude in education?
5. Explain clearly what is meant by the I.Q. Of what significance is this concept in education?
 6. What is the difference between an individual intelligence test and a group intelligence test? What are the advantages and disadvantages of each?
 7. What can the rural teacher do with the dull and backward child? With the feeble-minded child?
 8. Why have standard tests been used so little in rural schools, whereas, in city schools, they have been in common use?
 9. Do you believe that the standard test has come to stay, or do you think it is just another "fad"?
 10. Should standard tests be used by the rural school teacher or should their use be restricted to supervision?
 11. If the classroom teacher uses them, will their further use by the supervisor be invalidated? Explain.
 12. What are some improper uses of standard tests?
 13. How do standard tests motivate school work?
 14. Show exactly what you would do with the standard test results in your school.
 15. Discuss the values of the individual pupil graph.
 16. Of what value is the standard test to the superintendent? How can he use standard tests in rating his teachers?
 17. Is there danger that standard tests will lead to too much uniformity in schools?
 18. Do you believe that promotion should be determined by the scores made on standard tests? Could the small rural school arrange for promotion by subject?
 19. How can the teacher induce her school board to appropriate a few dollars with which to purchase tests?
 20. Name several tests that you think would be good to begin with in your school. How much would the combined group cost?
 21. Of what special importance are standard silent reading tests to the rural teacher? arithmetic tests?

Special Topics for Investigation and Report

1. Report on the various standard tests in each of the elementary subjects.
2. Comparative school achievement of rural and urban children as measured by standard tests.
3. How to conduct a rural educational survey.
4. The Binet-Simon Intelligence Test. What it is and how to give it.
5. Group Intelligence tests suited for grades one to nine.
6. Consult periodical literature for uses made of standard tests in rural schools, and report on some of these.

References

- Brooks, S. S., *Improving Schools by Standardized Tests.*
- Cram, F. D., *Surveying Rural Schools*, Bulletin of Iowa State Teachers' College.
- Dickson, V. E., *Mental Tests and the Classroom Teacher.*
- Gilliland, A. R., and Jordan, R. H., *Educational Measurements and the Classroom Teacher.*
- Hines, H. A., *A Guide to Educational Measurements.*
- Horn, J. L., *The Education of Exceptional Children.*
- Monroe, W. S., DeVoss, J. C., and Kelly, R. J., *Educational Tests and Measurements.*
- Terman, L. M., *The Intelligence of School Children.*
- Terman, L. M., *The Measurement of Intelligence.*
- Wilson, G. M., and Hoke, K. J., *How to Measure.*

CHAPTER VIII

ORGANIZATION OF THE ONE-TEACHER SCHOOL

A Perplexing Problem.—The organization of the one-teacher school is one of the most perplexing problems confronting the rural school teacher and supervisor. It is, indeed, a difficult proposition to arrange a program that will include all the subjects of the elementary school curriculum for the eight grades and yet allow a reasonable length of time for each class. The common practice of hearing from thirty-five to forty classes a day, with class periods of only five and ten minutes has resulted from the attempt to “grade” the rural schools and from the increased number of subjects that have come into the elementary school curriculum. In the majority of states this number is now seventeen.¹ This is quite an increase over the traditional three R’s of our grandfathers’ time. To be sure, no one grade will have all seventeen subjects at the same time, but in some grades the number runs as high as twelve. This is too big a load for any pupil to carry daily.

When we consider the problem from the teacher’s angle, we find that her teaching problems are concerned with an excessive number of classes due to the large number of subjects, with the consequent result of very short class periods. Table 11² shows the

¹ See page 122.

² Rural School Leaflet, No. 10.

number of subjects and the grades in which these subjects are expected to be taught, as outlined in one state course of study. This table shows that there are sixteen subjects, nine of which are supposed to be taught in grades one to eight inclusive. It also shows that the aggregate number of grades in which all subjects are to be taught is 101.

TABLE 11

Subjects and grades represented in each subject, in state course of study for Wisconsin:

Subjects	Number of grades in which subject is taught.
Agriculture	2
Arithmetic	8
Civil Government	7
Domestic Science	2
Drawing	8
Geography	4
History	8
Hygiene, Sanitation, Physiology	6
Language and Grammar	8
Manual Training	2
Music	8
Nature Study	6
Reading	8
School Library	8
Spelling	8
Writing	8

Now the real problem of organization consists in determining means for reducing the number of daily classes and for lengthening the class periods.

Methods of Solution.—The course of study from which the above data are taken and a majority of courses of other states, include suggestions for lengthening class periods. The most important of these are: grade grouping, alternation by grades, alternation by subjects, and correlation.

Grade Grouping.—Grading the country school is a rather recent innovation. It is not so long ago—and perhaps the practice still exists in some schools—that the *reader* determined one's status in the school. In other classes pupils were grouped according to their ability to get on with a subject. Then some county superintendents began to copy the graded system as it existed in the villages, making no allowance for the different conditions existing in the two schools. The schools were graded and all subjects were taught in all grades. This produced an excessive number of classes per day, often as many as forty. Many schools may be found today that try to carry out the graded system slavishly, handling each grade as a separate unit. It is ridiculous to expect one teacher to carry on a one-room school on the principle of eight separate and distinct grades. In recognition of this fact many states have adopted what is known as grade grouping. This scheme recognizes grade classification, but for economy of time and efficiency in teaching, the grades are grouped into divisions or sections, each group being instructed as a unit. The grades most frequently combined are three and four, five and six, seven and eight. The groups thus formed are called "classes" or "divisions" and are designated by the letters A, B, C, D, E. Sometimes grades one and two are combined. In the south where the elementary school consists of seven years, grades two and three, four and five, six and seven are often combined. A study of twenty-six "Model" state programs revealed the following grade groupings for the subjects listed:³

³ United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 42.

TABLE 12

Distribution of Combinations in twenty-six state "Model" Programs

Subjects Grades Combined	Number of Programs						
	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8
Reading	13	5	24	6	19	5	19
Language	15	5	16	6	16	6	19
Spelling	3	2	18	10	26	12	21
Arithmetic	10	1	16	5	22	6	20
History	4	4	4	4	11	5	18
Geography	1	2	10	8	15	8	13
Hygiene	4	4	3	4	12	4	10
Nature-Agriculture	11	5	8	3	6	5	6
Average	8.1	3.1	10.9	5.1	13.1	5.6	14
Percentage	14	5	18	9	22	9	23

Alternation by Grades.—By alternation by grades is meant the combining of two grades on the work of two consecutive years. While the work of one grade is being done, the work of the other is omitted. The next year the omitted work is taken up. Thus, alternation by grades and grade grouping go hand in hand. For example, in the case of advanced geography the usual method is to cover the first half of the book in the seventh grade and the last half in the eighth grade. It really makes little difference which continent is studied first so long as all the work is covered. Where the seventh and eighth grades are grouped together the work of the eighth grade may be covered the first year and that of seventh grade the second year without loss to any child. This is true of all upper grade subjects, except, perhaps, arithmetic and grammar.

In general the principle of alternation by grades can be used in every subject except the two mentioned above, and perhaps reading in the lower grades. It is best not to use alternation by grades in the first two grades. In some states the course of study is ar-

ranged for alternation in all subjects where grade grouping is used.

The obvious objection to grade grouping and alternation by grades is that pupils of different natural development and maturity are brought together for the same work. This makes the work excessively difficult for the lower grade in the group the year the advanced grade work is taken, and too easy for the upper grade when the lower grade work, which was skipped the previous year, is being taken. This difficulty can be largely overcome by the teacher if she will hold the advanced division responsible for more and better work than the other.

The advantages of alternation by grades greatly outweigh the disadvantages. Twice as much time for teaching is available for each grade where two grades are combined. Much better work can be accomplished with the larger classes afforded by combination, for more interest, competition, and group spirit can be stimulated. This plan has been in use for some time in many states and its successful operation in thousands of one-teacher schools has won for it a place in modern progressive rural school organization.

Alternation by Subjects.—By alternation by subjects is meant that a class will recite in one subject a certain number of days a week and in another the remaining days. As for instance, in alternating history and civics the class might meet for history three days a week and for civics the remaining two days. Many subjects lend themselves to this plan. Agriculture and nature study, drawing and writing, history and civics, civics and spelling, or any other combination of these

can easily be alternated. This plan is used a great deal in many states. It secures some of the advantages of alternation by grades, but it does not increase the size of the classes, nor does it provide for more teaching time for a subject as alternation does. It distributes the same amount of time that would ordinarily be given to the subject over a fewer number of class periods, thus increasing the length of the class period. This, in itself is an advantage. It also avoids the difficulty of having some pupils work beyond their natural stage of development.

The following are the combinations most frequently made in the twenty-six model programs studied by Reinoehl: ⁴

TABLE 13
Combinations Most Frequently Made

Subjects Combined or Alternated	No. of Programs	Most Frequent Grades
History and Civics	15	7-8
Writing and Drawing	12	All classes
Reading and Spelling	8	1-4
Reading and History	7	3-5
History and Geography	7	5-6
Geography and Hygiene	6	5-6
Language and Spelling	6	1-3
Reading and Language	5	1-3
Hygiene and Agriculture	5	7-8

Correlation of Subject Matter.—By the correlation of subject matter is meant the teaching of one subject in conjunction with another. It would be impossible to organize a class for each grade for each of the sixteen or seventeen subjects found in most of the state courses of study. Hence, it is suggested that some subjects be correlated with others. The Wisconsin

⁴ United States Bulletin of Education, No. 42.

course of study suggests that in the first four grades spelling and history be taught in connection with reading and language; and that in the fourth grade home geography be correlated with language. Civics, hygiene and sanitation, morals, nature study, etc., in the lower grades, and music for all, can be taught during the general exercise period. Correlation in subject matter offers great possibilities in relieving the over-crowded rural school teacher.

Putting Principles into Practice.—The question may be asked whether the teacher should make these changes in her school on her own initiative. The answer to this question is, that where alternation of grades is concerned she should first consult with her superintendent before making any changes, because with the frequent change of teachers, there is danger that the missed work will not be made up. Alternation should not be undertaken locally, but should be county wide, or better still, state wide. This will insure against loss of time or work on the part of the pupil by changing from one school to another.

The remaining three principles can readily be undertaken locally and on the initiative of the teacher.

A Balanced Schedule for the One-Teacher School.⁵—The schedule presented in Table 14 has been carefully worked out with the chief principles of organization in mind. It contemplates twenty-four well balanced class periods, for a one-teacher school of eight grades. By the use of this schedule as a guide it should be comparatively easy for any teacher to make out a program adapted to her school.

⁵ United States Bureau of Education, No. 42.

TABLE 14

Proposed Balanced Schedule of Class Periods for One-Teacher Schools with Eight Grades Represented

No. of Periods weekly	No. of Minutes per Day	Classes and Subjects
35	85	Class D
15	36	Reading and Spelling (Class E).
10	25	Reading and Spelling (Class D). Reading includes Phonics, Spelling, Word Study.
5	12	Language. Correlate Hygiene, Civics, History.
5	12	Numbers. Note. Nature Study and Industrial Arts with Class C. Change of seat work between periods.
25	75	Class C
5	15	Reading.
5	10	Spelling.
5	15	Language. Correlate Hygiene, Civics, History.
5	20	Nature Study and Industrial Arts. Correlate Home Geography.
5	15	Arithmetic. Note. Grade 4 Geography with Class B.
20	75	Class B
3	25	Reading (Grades 5 to 8).
2	28	Spelling (Grades 5 to 8).
4	15	Language. Correlate Hygiene.
4	15	Arithmetic.
4	16	History and Civics.
3	20	Note. Grade 6. Geography with Class A. Agriculture and Industrial Arts with Class A.
20	70	Class A
4	15	Language.
3	15	Arithmetic.
4	20	Agriculture (Grades 5-8). Correlate Industrial Arts.
3	20	Geography (Grades 6 and 7).
3	15	Hygiene (Grades 6 and 7).
3	20	History and Civics. Note. Reading and Spelling with Class C.
20	55	All
5	10	Opening Exercises and Community Songs.
5	15	Handwriting and Drawing.
5	30	Physical Education and Organized Play.

Note. Industrial Arts: Handwork in lower grades through educative seat work. Manual Arts and Sewing in Upper Grades correlated with Agriculture. The Hot Lunch at noon. More extensive project work in the eighth grade.

Manners and Morals correlated with all subjects are contributing to the better conduct of the school.

Individual Instruction and Directed Study.—“Possibly the greatest source of waste in the public school system is the time supposed to be spent by pupils at their seats or at home in trying to study lessons by their own unaided efforts.”

It is the realization of this waste of time and energy that has led educators to direct their attention to the study activities of pupils. The results of these efforts are the so-called systems of directed study or supervised study, and individual instruction.

In order to be able to direct the study of pupils and to give individual instruction, the teacher must be released part of the time at least from hearing recitations. Clearly, it is the teacher's duty to help the pupils learn and not merely to hear them recite what they themselves have learned. Too much of the old type of “teaching” has been to hear pupils recite what they learned at their seats in their own way of studying, or at home from other members of the family. The mother who sent a note to the teacher saying that she would much prefer to have the teacher do the teaching and she would hear the reciting at night instead of the present reversed condition, saw clearly the folly of the existing condition. School is the place for pupils to study. This time should not be taken up in reciting or hearing others recite, what they already know. Learning is the solution of problems, and a good school is one in which the children are engaged in learning. It is during the study period that the teacher is most needed. She should be ready to help pupils, but not any more than is necessary. The class period in which

pupils do not learn and are not helped to learn, is a waste of time.

Value of Group Instruction.—Group instruction is valuable and economical when all must learn the same thing. In the first and second grades it is essential to have group instruction because the work is largely of the drill nature. Interest is aroused by means of the group and much of the unpleasant nature of drill is reduced. Group instruction is also valuable when new phases of a subject are presented, and new problems are discussed. It would be a waste of time to take up new problems individually with each pupil. After a new phase of a subject has been presented to the group, several days may be allowed for directed study and individual instruction. Then, when all have reached a certain point in their study, the group may be called for the final discussion to fix the work in mind. This is essentially what is done in the Dalton plan as the writer saw it in operation at Dalton, Massachusetts. Each pupil studies the subject he wishes at a particular time, under the direction and help of the teacher. From time to time he reports his progress to the teacher. Provision is made for group meetings for final discussion of a topic and also for the presentation of a new topic or problem.

Organization for Directed Study and Individual Instruction.—The organization of the one-room school for individual instruction and directed study need not be different from the regular form, where alternation is used. The program followed in Illinois rural schools is presented (in Table 15)⁶ as a model.

⁶ Hoffman, *Organizing and Teaching a One-Teacher School in Illinois*.

(Using Minimum Alternation.)

Year's work.	Course of study.	Classes	Individual and class instruction.	Grades.	Time.	Begin	Directed study.
	255		General exercises	All.	10	9:00	Directed
3	76	Reading.	Class	3	10	9:10	study
4	96	Reading.	instruction	4	10	9:20	20
5	123	Reading.	when	5-6	10	9:30	min.
7	178	Reading.	desired.	7-8	10	9:40	Reci-
1	32	Reading.	Class	1	10	9:50	tations
2	32	Reading.	instruction	2	10	10:00	40
		Spelling.	daily. Directed	All.	15	10:10	min.
			play.	All.	15	10:25	15
4	108	Arithmetic.	Class	4	10	10:40	Directed
5	137	Arithmetic.	instruction	5	10	10:50	study
6	160	Arithmetic.	when	6	10	11:00	20
7	193	Arithmetic.	desired.	7	10	11:10	min.
8	232	Arithmetic.		8	10	11:20	Reci-
1	50	Numbers.	Class	1	10	11:30	tation
2	68	Numbers	instruction	2	10	11:40	60
3	86	Arithmetic.	daily.	3	10	11:50	min.
		Lunch.	Play.	All.	60	12:00	60
5	134	Language.	Class	5	10	1:00	Directed
6	156	Language.	instruction	6	10	1:10	study
7	184	Grammar.	when	7	10	1:20	25
8	222	Grammar.	desired.	8	10	1:30	min.
7	207	Phys. and civics.		7-8	10	1:40	
1	39	Read. and lang.	Class	1	7	1:50	Reci-
2	64	Read. and lang.	instruction	2	8	1:57	tation
3	82	Language.	daily.	3-4	10	2:05	65
		Writing.		All.	15	2:15	min.
			Directed play.	All.	15	2:30	15
1	71	Reading and	Class	1	7	2:45	Directed
2	71	const. work.	instruction	2	8	2:52	study
3	111	Home geography.	daily.	3-4	10	3:00	25
5	141	Geography.	Class	5-6	10	3:10	min.
6	167	History.	instruction	6	10	3:20	Reci-
7	197	Geography.	when	7-8	15	3:30	tation
7	201	History.	desired.	7-8	15	3:45	50
		Dismissal				4:00	min.

TABLE 15

The school day is divided into four work periods and pupils have definite time to study certain subjects. The major subjects are reading, arithmetic, language, geography, and history. Other subjects are placed in with these majors. The teacher also has a definite schedule for work.

The time allotment for each class in column six is adhered to only when all classes meet for group recitation. When some classes do not recite, the teacher uses the time for directed study or for other recitations. The program suggests the division of time between class work and individual instruction and directed study which tends to preserve some balance. The pupil's time is also adjustable. He has the whole period—less the time spent in class recitation—to study a subject. The teacher may choose to have group instruction, either at the beginning or at the end of the period, as she feels best suits the occasion, provided she informs the class in advance.

Advantages of Directed Study.—The following advantages are claimed for directed study and individual instruction:

1. It makes pupils self-reliant and masterful. They are working for a definite goal, and the desire to reach it is a great inducement to work.

2. It teaches proper study habits. The pupil does most of the work under the direction of the teacher, and he gets help where and when needed, without wasting the time of the rest of the class.

3. It makes provision for individual ability. Each pupil goes along at his own gait. The slow one does

the minimum amount of work required while the bright one does more.

4. When the class meets for new problems, the teacher knows where each pupil stands in the work and so can make her explanations intelligently.

5. The problem of discipline is greatly reduced, for each pupil knows what he is to do and he is being supervised while he is doing it.

6. It brings about a different attitude between pupil and teacher. The teacher assumes the attitude of helper, and the pupil sees that he is not learning for the teacher. This begets confidence and a healthful attitude for learning.

Silent Reading and Supervised Study.—The methods that have been found most useful in teaching silent reading have also been found to be most helpful in conducting supervised study in various subjects. Supervision of study means more than merely keeping order and answering questions. It means the development of correct study habits, the stimulation of a desire to learn, and independent work on the part of the children. This is no small task for the teacher.

One of the methods commonly used in teaching silent reading is the so-called "timed section" method. The class is given a short time to read as rapidly as possible a selection, and on the signal "stop," all stop, and some one is called upon to tell what he read. After he has told all he can others add and supply omissions. Then all read again and the same procedure is followed. The advantages of this plan are: that everybody is working all the time with rapidity

and concentration, and that the pupil gets practice in thinking and in oral expression. A further advantage of this method is that any teacher, no matter how inexperienced or unprepared she may be, can use it to advantage.

A second method of teaching silent reading is for the teacher to prepare questions beforehand on the reading material. Then, using the same "timed" method for speed, she may test comprehension by means of questions. A variation of this method is to ask the questions first, one at a time, and have the class read and see who can find the answer first. This method does not rely upon memory for the answer, but it develops concentration and speed in reading.

These methods can easily be used in directing study in other subjects besides reading. Other methods that can well be used are: making outlines, finding the main thought of a paragraph, collecting material on a given topic from various sources, etc. The main point in directing study is to provide problems, or objectives, and to help in the solution or attainment by the most economical methods. This will help pupils to think clearly and logically, which is one of the chief aims of supervised study.

Conclusion.—The problem of properly organizing and conducting the one-teacher school is indeed a difficult one even for the experienced teacher. Here the superintendent and supervisor can be of great service to the rural teacher, especially at the beginning of the year. Particular attention should be given to the inexperienced and the new teachers, for much of their

success and happiness will depend upon the right start. The right start will depend much upon the proper organization of the school.

The various methods for solving the problem of teaching the excessive number of subjects and grades discussed in this chapter are suggestive of what can be done. The ultimate and satisfactory solution of the problem must, however, be sought in a reorganization of the rural school system—either partial or complete consolidation. Limiting the rural elementary school to six years, and establishing junior high schools (Chapter XII) will do much to bring about desirable organization in the one-room school.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. What are the difficulties that the rural teacher encounters in organizing her program of studies?
2. Describe possible ways of overcoming these difficulties.
3. Name the grades and subjects where alternation is possible.
4. What can be said in favor of partial consolidation in regard to the problem of organizing the course of study?
5. What is meant by supervised study, or directed study?
6. Is it necessary that all pupils recite in every subject daily?
7. How could you convince parents that you were really teaching when you do not have children recite daily?
8. Should the rural teacher attempt to keep her school "graded"?
9. Why is it a good plan for the rural school teacher to prepare daily written lesson plans?
10. Show how the older pupils could assist the teacher in primary work. Is this practice to be recommended?
11. What are the advantages of having a definite study program? Should all pupils study the same thing at the same time? Why?
12. Will it be necessary to have alternation in a school having

only the first six grades? Base your answer on a study of the curriculum for these grades.

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. Draw up a "model" rural school program for a school of grades one to six.
2. Methods of teaching silent reading.
3. The socialized recitation.
4. The project method in rural schools.

References

- Betts, G. H., and Hall, O. E., *Better Rural Schools*, Chapters, XII, XIII.
- Hall-Quest, A., *Supervised Study in Elementary Schools*.
- Hoffman, U. J., *Organizing and Teaching a One Teacher School in Illinois*.
- Woofter, T. J., *Teaching in Rural Schools*.
- U. S. Bulletin No. 42, 1922.

CHAPTER IX

THE HEALTH OF RURAL SCHOOL CHILDREN ¹

The country has always been pictured as being the most healthful place in which to live, and those living in the country have been prone to look upon the city as a veritable breeding place for disease. There is no doubt that the relative healthfulness of country and city, as pictured in this statement is true, if both were to adopt the mode of living that exists in most of the country communities today. But, as conditions actually exist, all the available evidence indicates that the city is more healthful and takes better care of its people than the country. As a matter of self-defense, the city, because of its very make-up, is forced to safeguard the health of its members. It is necessary to supply pure water and to make provision for the disposal of garbage and sewage; pure food must be provided; city ordinances guaranteeing health protection must be passed; free clinics must be established so that the poor may have the benefit of expert medical and surgical treatment, etc.

While all this is going on in the city, the country with its usual complacency lives on as before. The regularly recurring epidemics are taken as a matter

¹ This chapter appeared in the *Journal of Rural Education*, Vol. 4, No. 3.

of course. The physician is not consulted until very serious trouble threatens. A physical examination of school children to determine the most outstanding physical defects is considered revolutionary, and is met by active opposition in many rural communities today. So, it is little wonder that the city is now the most healthful place in which to live. It is hoped for the sake of those living in the country, with the tremendous advantages for healthful living which the country possesses over the city, that this condition may not be true in the near future. A healthful movement is already under way in our rural schools to safeguard the health of rural children.

The Health of Rural Children, Present Status.—Of the 20,000,000 school children between the ages of six and fifteen, 1,000,000 have defective hearing; 5,000,000 have defective eyes; 5,000,000 have enlarged tonsils or adenoids; and over 10,000,000 have defective teeth. Over three-fourths of the school children of this country suffer from preventable or curable defects! Of these 20,000,000 children, over 12,000,000 (60 percent.) are in the *rural schools* of this country.²

In a health examination of nearly 2,000,000 New York State children, made by the state department of education it was found that 72 percent. of the pupils of the city schools, and 87 percent. of the pupils of the rural schools have health defects. In the city schools 36 percent. were treated, and in the rural schools 22.7 percent. It was further found that four out of five children suffered from malnutrition.³

² Preston, *National Education Association Proceedings*. Vol. 60.

³ Wood, *National Education Association Proceedings*. Vol. 60.

In a very thoroughgoing rural school health survey⁴ conducted by the Missouri Tuberculosis Association in six counties of Missouri, it was found that 20 percent. suffered from undernourishment, that is, they were 10 percent. or more below standard weight; 70 percent. had unfilled decayed teeth; 45 percent. had defective tonsils; 22 percent. were mouth breathers (80 percent. of these were judged to have adenoids); 29 percent. had defective eye-sight; 5 percent. had defective hearing; and 21 percent. had enlarged cervical lymph glands. During the year 1914-15 the State Board of Health of the State of Virginia conducted a medical inspection of the school children of seven counties and two cities of the state. The results of this inspection are shown in Table 16.

Unfortunately the survey commission, due to financial limitations, was unable to examine the physical condition of school children in 1918-19 when the Virginia survey was made, but in making its report on medical inspection and supervision the commission reports as follows: "Since the time of the medical inspection referred to above (1914-15) many cities and a few counties have made considerable progress in the medical inspection and supervision of school children. For the state as a whole, however, and particularly in the counties, the situation remains much as it was when the statistics in Table 16 were compiled."

Table 16 shows that for all non-city school children about 23 percent. suffer from defective vision. This defect can easily be remedied by medical inspection.

More than three-fifths of all children examined had

⁴ Moore, *Rural School Health Survey*.

defective teeth, easily remedied by a school dentist. From one-half to two-thirds have serious throat troubles. A great majority had previously had one or more of the contagious diseases and had lost more or less schooling because of it.

TABLE 16

Showing the percentages of defects found in the school children of seven counties of Virginia (Orange, Loudoun, Albemarle, Washington, York, Warwick, Alexandria) and in the cities of Charlottesville and Bristol, 1915. Percentages defective of those examined.

DEFECTS AND DISEASES	Counties			Cities		
	White	Colored	Total	White	Colored	Total
Defects of the eyes	23.7	23.0	23.0	14.0	8.0	11.0
Defects of the ears	4.6	2.3	3.4	1.5	.8	1.1
Defects of the teeth	66.5	56.5	62.5	63.0	62.5	62.7
Defects of the glands	33.5	47.0	40.0	67.5	73.0	70.0
Defects of the thyroid	10.0	15.0	12.5	8.7	10.5	9.5
Defects of the tonsils	46.3	53.0	50.0	70.0	60.0	65.0
Adenoids	33.5	42.0	37.5	44.5	41.5	43.0
Malnutrition	15.0	14.5	15.0	5.5	7.0	6.3
Having had whooping cough ..	65.0	49.5	58.0	74.5	60.5	67.5
Having had measles	48.0	33.0	41.0	74.5	45.0	59.7
Having had chicken-pox	36.0	24.0	30.0	58.5	39.0	48.5
Having had mumps	37.0	24.0	31.0	71.5	34.0	52.5

Total number of children examined, white, 14,803; colored, 4,728; total, 19,531.

Standard of defect in eyes—inability to read the twenty-foot line on the Snellen's Eye Testing Card at a distance of twenty feet.

Standard of defect in ears—apparent inability to hear the whispered voice, testing the ears separately, at a distance of twenty feet.

Standard of defect in teeth—cavities only considered.

(From Virginia Public Schools: Part One. Copyright, 1920, by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.)

Hookworm is a very prevalent disease of the Southern states. In some of the counties as many as two-

thirds of the children were found to be infected with it. Children infected with this disease are unable to learn as fast as healthy children, and they are often mistaken for dull or mentally defective by their teachers. A competent physician can easily diagnose this disease, and its treatment is easy and the cure is almost certain.

TABLE 17

Showing the percentages of non-city school buildings receiving various ratings for different characteristics. Number of non-city white schools considered 407, number of non-city colored schools considered 167

RATINGS GIVEN	White Schools (407)					Colored Schools (167)				
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
Adequacy of window space.	49.6	8.6	19.2	6.1	19.2	16.8	3.6	25.8	4.8	49.0
Arrangement of windows	12.2	28.0	25.1	23.6	11.1	1.2	12.6	9.0	40.7	36.5
Arrangement of seats	16.0	24.6	32.4	18.9	8.1	2.0	12.2	30.4	25.0	30.4
Window shades.	8.1	15.0	17.5	21.1	38.3	1.2	7.8	12.0	20.4	58.6
Heating	12.8	20.6	38.1	27.8	.7	9.6	4.2	23.9	55.7	6.6
Ventilation	7.4	15.7	29.2	31.2	16.5	1.8	1.8	15.0	54.5	26.9
Water Supply ..	14.5	25.1	35.4	19.4	5.6	5.4	19.8	30.5	29.9	5.4
Toilet facilities .	8.9	28.2	30.2	22.1	10.6	6.0	14.4	27.5	26.9	25.2
Condition of toilets	3.4	21.6	28.0	29.0	18.0	1.8	12.6	29.9	23.9	31.8

In general the ratings employed may be interpreted loosely as follows:

- A—Meeting standard requirements in every essential particular;
- B—Falling below standards somewhat but still distinctly above merely acceptable conditions;
- C—Below standard but still acceptable;
- D—Seriously defective conditions approaching the intolerable;
- E—Totally unacceptable and intolerable.

(From Virginia Public Schools: Part One. Copyright, 1920, by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.)

One could go on giving data to show the appalling present physical condition of the rural child—a condition which has come about largely through our ignorance and neglect and which is almost within our con-

trol. Sufficient evidence has been presented to challenge our attention, and to stimulate us to act on this most vital of all school problems.

Some Causes of These Defects.—Many of these defects are inherent in the physical condition of the school. Poor ventilation, improper seating, heating, and lighting produce physical defects and increase sus-

TABLE 18

Showing the percentages of one-room school buildings receiving various ratings for different characteristics. Number of white school buildings, 162, number of colored school buildings, 112.

RATINGS GIVEN	White Schools (162)					Colored Schools (112)				
	A	B	C	D	E	A	B	C	D	E
Adequacy of window space.	24.1	5.0	26.5	8.0	36.4	9.8	3.6	25.9	13.4	47.3
Arrangement of windows	11.7	10.5	13.0	43.2	21.6	.9	4.5	4.5	42.8	47.3
Arrangement of seats	12.3	14.2	34.0	25.3	14.2	2.0	8.0	31.0	23.0	36.0
Window Shades.	3.1	9.9	7.4	16.6	63.0	.0	4.5	10.8	15.2	69.5
Heating	5.0	14.2	35.2	45.0	.6	8.9	3.6	21.4	62.5	3.6
Ventilation6	8.6	21.6	45.7	23.5	.9	.0	9.8	61.6	27.7
Water supply	2.5	19.1	48.8	20.4	9.2	4.5	16.1	34.8	38.4	6.2
Toilet facilities	6.2	27.2	30.3	19.1	17.2	7.2	11.5	22.3	29.5	29.5
Condition of toilets	1.8	21.0	31.5	23.5	22.2	.9	13.4	27.7	25.0	33.0

See note to Table 91.

(From Virginia Public Schools: Part One. Copyright, 1920, by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.)

ceptibility to disease. The water supply is often a source of contagion. Unsanitary toilets are sources of physical and moral contagion. Lack of playground equipment undoubtedly is a direct contributing cause to physical ill-being. And so, many other factors about the school plant, which are entirely within our control, are often sources of illness and defect.

Referring again to the Virginia Survey Tables 17 and 18, we find that one-fourth of all non-city white schools and more than one-half of all non-city colored schools have insufficient window space, so that the eyes of the children are seriously endangered. More than two-fifths of the one-room white, and more than three-fifths of one-room colored schools have dangerously insufficient lighting.

The arrangement of windows violates recognized principles seriously in nearly three-fourths of one-room white, and nine-tenths of one-room colored schools. The defects are increased by (1) faulty seating arrangement, (2) absence of window shades, and (3) lack of artificial lighting.

Heating arrangements were found to be seriously defective in more than one-fourth of non-city white schools, three-fourths of non-city colored schools, 45 percent. of one-room white, and in nearly three-fourths of one-room colored schools.

The simplest heating and ventilation for one-room schools is, of course, provided by the jacketed stove. This seems to be missing still in many of our one-room rural schools.

Means for ventilation were either lacking or were defective in nearly half of all non-city white schools, four-fifths of all non-city colored schools, two-thirds of one-room white schools, and nine-tenths of one-room colored schools. Over half of all non-city schools were found to be without proper means of ventilation.

Provision for supplying drinking water was very unsatisfactory in three-tenths of one-room white

schools, and in two-fifths of one-room colored schools.

The care and management of toilets is one of the most difficult problems in rural schools. Lacking the facilities for installing the modern "flush" toilets, the rural school must resort to the various types of dry toilets available. At its best, the dry toilet is very hard to keep clean and sanitary. But the difficulty of the problem is no excuse for laxity in the matter.

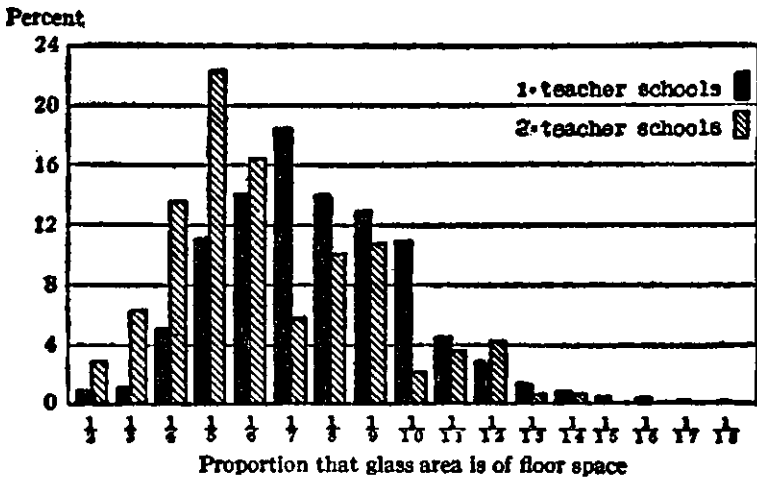


FIGURE 16

PROPORTION THAT GLASS AREA IS OF FLOOR SPACE IN ONE- AND TWO-TEACHER SCHOOLS. THE STANDARD IS AT LEAST 1-5

(From Rural School Survey of New York. G. A. Works)

Most every state department of education issues bulletins describing the various types of approved toilets and also give directions for their construction and sanitary up-keep. Toilets, in order to provide sanitary and moral conditions, must meet the following criteria:⁵ (1) cleanliness, (2) control of the spread of diseases through flies, (3) facilities that do not permit

⁵ Rural School Survey of New York State, p. 137.

weather conditions to become a deterrent to the full use of those facilities, (4) freedom from defacement, (5) easy control by the teacher, (6) complete seclusion, (7) sufficient ventilation, and (8) sufficient light.

In Virginia facilities were seriously defective or markedly unsanitary in about 40 percent. of the one-room white schools and in about 60 percent. of the one-room colored schools.

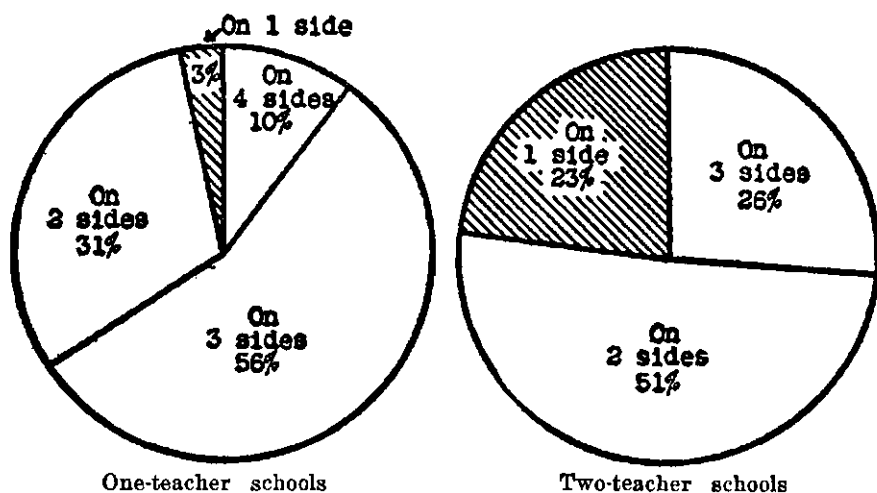


FIGURE 17

WINDOW PLACEMENT IN ONE- AND TWO-TEACHER SCHOOLS. LIGHT FROM ONE SIDE IS THE STANDARD
(After Works)

Conditions in New York State.—In the New York Rural School Survey conditions similar to those in Virginia were found. Only 19 out of 100 one-room rural schools in the state meet the standards for proper lighting. (See Figure 16.) Improper window shades were found in 86 percent. of the schools, while only 3 percent. of the one-room schools and 23 percent. of the two-room schools met the standard for light

from one side. Figure 18 tells the story of the types of heating apparatus in one and two teacher schools.

The proper adjustment of seats and desks is a very important matter for the growing child. Many physical deformities and improper posture habits may be traced directly to the neglect of proper seat adjustment. In the majority of one- and two-teacher schools of New York, this matter is not attended to (Figure 19.)

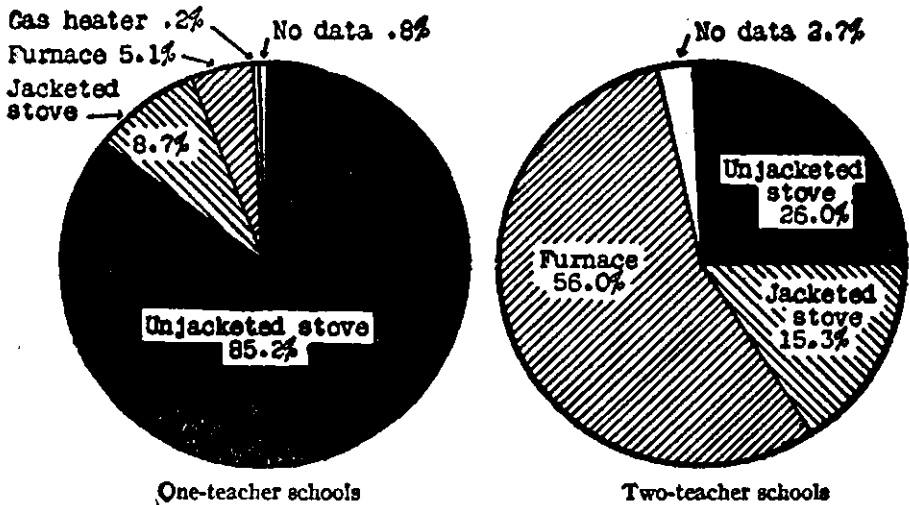


FIGURE 18

TYPES OF HEATING APPARATUS IN ONE- AND TWO-TEACHER SCHOOLS
(After Works)

Of the rural school toilets 35 percent. were of the chemical type and 64 percent. were outdoor toilets. The surveyors found that the criteria for proper toilets mentioned above are much more easily met by the "sanitary" or chemical type than by the outdoor type. Figure 20 shows that the outdoor type is the prevailing one for one-room schools.

How Can These Physical Conditions be Improved?— Before any improvement can be brought about in these physical conditions, it is necessary to awaken rural communities to the realization of the importance of

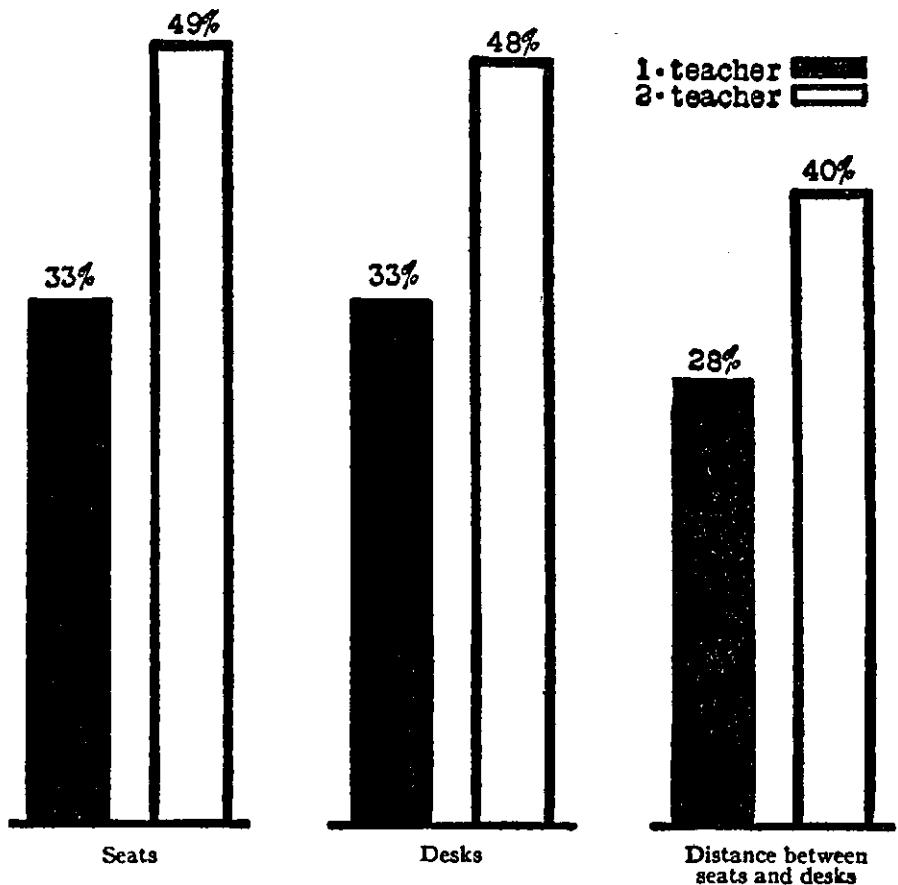


FIGURE 19

PERCENTAGE OF ONE- AND TWO-TEACHER SCHOOLS HAVING PROPER ADJUSTMENT OF SEATS, DESKS, AND DISTANCE BETWEEN SEATS AND DESKS
(After Works)

school hygiene and sanitation. The matter should be discussed at community meetings, community improvement leagues, parent-teachers' associations, and other

organizations that have the betterment of the community at heart.

Teachers must be trained to understand the problems involved. They must know the effects of various school conditions on the children and they must be able to suggest improvements to school committees or boards.

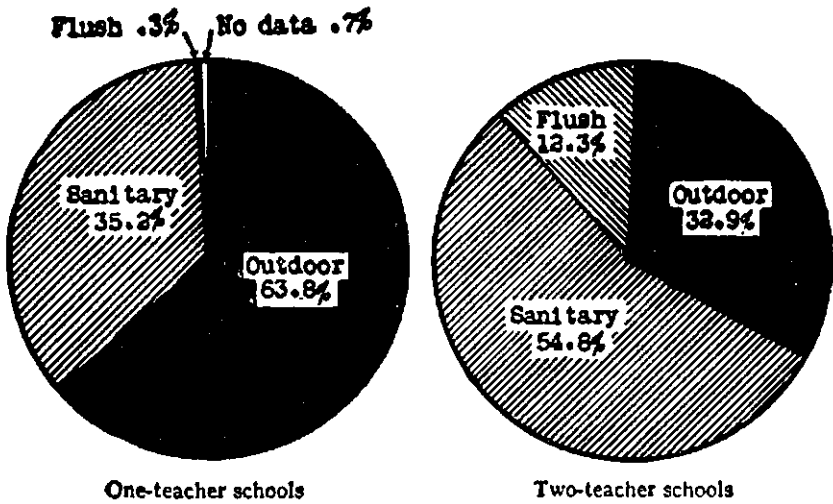


FIGURE 20

KINDS OF TOILETS IN ONE- AND TWO-TEACHER SCHOOLS
(After Works)

Adequate provision must be made for supervision of health, including medical inspection and remedial measures.

The teacher can do much to bring about proper physical conditions in and around her school, but she can do little to diagnose and remedy physical defects which the child may have. This field properly belongs to the medical expert. The teacher can do much in

co-operating with the medical expert, and in bringing about co-operation between the home and the medical expert.

What Should a Health Program Include?—Any health program, no matter how comprehensive it may be, must first of all be a program of education or enlightenment. The members of a community must first of all be stimulated to become interested in a knowledge of health, the factors leading to it, and the dangers in the way of it. Definite standards as to what constitutes health must be established in the minds of all, and then ways of attaining these standards must be offered.

Definite health habits must be inculcated, and this can only be done through an understanding of the factors upon which health is dependent.

The community must be educated to the need of having better teachers and supervisors of health, better health laws, better playgrounds, and more physical exercise of a specialized nature, for it is upon these factors that good health is largely dependent.

Secondly, a health program must include some sort of regulation. The work of the medical experts includes a thorough physical examination of all school children, weighing and measuring of pupils, prescribing developmental work, advising on the correction of defects, and in giving medical care. Much of this work can be done by the school nurse, although the actual correction of defects should be left to the physician or specialist. The school nurse can do much in providing better sanitary conditions in the school, in

inculcating better health habits in the children and in following up recommendations made by the physician to see that they are carried out.

Applying Remedial Measures.—The first step in any remedial program is the detection of the defect in the child. This is done by means of physical examination. This work should be done by a physician, and it should be paid for out of public funds. Many schools employ full-time school physicians, and there is no reason why each county should not provide a full-time county health officer, whose duty it should be to supervise the health of the school children and to conduct the physical examination and suggest remedial measures.

There should be provision for "follow-up" of these remedial suggestions. Experience has shown that unless there is this provision, many parents will not take action. The logical person to do this "follow-up" work is the school nurse or the county public health nurse. Every county should have a public health nurse. She is one of the best health investments the county can make.

The Traveling Clinic.—No matter how good the "follow-up" work may be or how anxious parents may be to do all they can for their children's health and welfare, there are always a number who cannot afford the expense of surgical treatment, especially when this means a long trip to the city with the additional expense accompanying it. Most rural communities do not have the services of surgeons, oculists, and many do not have dentists, so that a trip to the city is imperative. This problem has been successfully solved in several states. Minnesota sends out

traveling clinics; North Carolina has a comprehensive scheme for the health of its rural children.

The North Carolina Plan.—North Carolina has inaugurated a plan of free dental clinics. The work is done by dentists who travel by automobile into rural communities and give free dental treatment to children between the ages of six and thirteen. These dentists are employed by the state board of health and have their itineraries arranged by the county health authorities. The clinic is financed by public funds.

The North Carolina tonsil and adenoid clinics are carried on on the pay basis. Surgeons of established reputation in their communities are selected and they are permanently retained in a given section. The surgeon is paid for his service, and for each child a fee of \$12.50 is charged. The expenses of the clinic are met on this basis. The state board of health provides nurses and an assisting physician to aid during the operations and to care for the patients. A temporary hospital is established at the school or at some other suitable building, and the children are kept in bed there until at least the following day, under the care of a trained nurse.

This traveling clinic method can be employed for any special defect, and it makes possible expert medical and surgical treatment for all children. North Carolina reports that tonsil and adenoid clinics have been conducted in forty-eight counties, operating on 3,595 children, most of whom would otherwise never have had a chance for treatment.

Preventive Measures.—The chief aim of the county nurse is to prevent disease and defect. She can do

much to achieve this aim by spreading a knowledge of sanitation and personal hygiene, and by inculcating proper health habits and proper food habits. She should take every opportunity to inform children and adults of the fundamental principles of sanitation: the need of a safe water supply; the disposal of excreta; screening against flies and mosquitoes; the spread of diseases through carelessness, etc.

In the matter of forming good health habits, the nurse can emphasize to the children, parents, and teachers the need and value of brushing teeth, taking baths, going to bed early, regularity in bodily needs, etc. In establishing proper food habits and proper diet for children, the school nurse will have to work through the parents especially, for it is a question of getting parents to provide the proper food for children. She should work in co-operation with home economics extension workers, county home bureaus, Red Cross, and any other possible agencies, for the question of proper food for children is a very vital one in any child health program.

An Effective Rural School Health Service.—The traveling clinic is, perhaps, the best solution of the rural health problem in the typical rural sections today. By this is meant those rural sections not having easy access to hospital facilities and the services of specialists. These can usually be found only in fairly large cities. But, for those rural sections that do have fairly easy access to the health services of the city, arrangements ought to be made so that they may avail themselves thereof. As an illustration of what can be done for the health of rural children living near a city

having hospital facilities, the plan in use in Schenectady County, New York, is presented.⁶

The compulsory medical inspection law for New York went into effect in August, 1913. The mandatory provisions of this law related to the discovery of defects. Little emphasis was laid on their correction. The trustees were required to employ a doctor who made physical examinations and recorded the results yearly. The law required that trustees of two or more districts could combine and form one district for medical purposes, but this was not usually done. For the first two and a half years little correction was done and much money was spent. Then, the trustees of several districts of the county called for a meeting to consider employing a registered nurse to devote full time to the health interests of the children. Eight districts combined and formed an associated district for this purpose and drew up a contract as follows:

“We, the undersigned trustees of schools in Schenectady County, agree to associate and co-operate for our several school districts in the employment of a physician and nurse, and in carrying out any other work considered necessary in promoting the health of the children of our schools. We mutually contract to pay the expense of this service in proportion to the assessed valuation of property in our districts. Payments are to be made 25 percent. on October 15, and the remainder not later than January first, next.”

The work the first five months was so successful that eleven districts joined the next year. In 1917 the districts also combined to employ a doctor. Further re-

⁶ Turnball, in *National Education Association Proceedings*, Vol. 60, p. 634.

sults were gratifying and many corrections were made.

The three essential factors in an efficient system of health work are: (1) the doctor who examines children and discovers defects; (2) the nurse who teaches health habits, secures co-operation of parents and teachers, and secures and devises ways and means whereby defects may be treated; (3) facilities for doing corrective work with children.

In the Schenectady County district—or associated districts—there are no facilities for hospital or clinic service, so the co-operation of the city of Schenectady was enlisted. Access was secured to the dental clinic and to the day nursery, where children of parents unable or unwilling to pay might be sent. Access was also secured to the eye and ear, orthopedic, and the general clinics, and the use of the operating room with a registered nurse in charge.

The day nursery is in charge of capable physicians. The eye and ear clinics are in charge of specialists. The treatment is free to those who are unable to pay. The medicine is also free. The funds for paying the expenses are raised by the combined school boards of the associated districts.

Dental clinics are held for rural school children every Saturday morning. A charge of sixty-five cents a visit is made, which is paid by the associated districts. Arrangements are made for the removal of tonsils at a hospital. The nurse accompanies each case and gives her services.

As a result of this efficient plan of rural health service, which was developed because of the efforts of a

few men with a vision, many children have been helped to overcome their physical defects. Nearly all schools have weighing scales, and classroom weight records are kept in all rooms. All of the children are weighed in the fall, and those requiring special attention are weighed every month. Many children are undernourished, not because of poverty, but because of ignorance of food values. Diets are outlined for poorly nourished children, and homes are visited and mothers are helped. In many schools hot lunches are served.

This efficient rural school health service covers thirteen school districts, all within a radius of eight miles of Schenectady. It includes, one-, two-, and four-room schools. It is worthy of emulation by all similarly situated rural communities in the country.

Other Examples of Rural Health Service.—Kent County, Michigan, is carrying on a program of intensified nursing. The important features of the program are traveling dental health clinics; health league with the motto, "Perfect Health for Every Child"; and an anti-tuberculosis campaign. The traveling dental clinics carry their own equipment, and stay at a rural school for several days, or as long as needed. In 1922 twenty-two clinics were held and fourteen townships were served. This included forty-two schools, where one hundred and fifty-four cases were treated. The nurse inspected 7,047 cases, of these 1,898 had defective teeth.

Grant County, Utah, maintains free clinics for the removal of tonsils and adenoids. In Washington a dozen visiting nurses travel throughout the state all the time. These nurses try to meet parent-

teachers' associations and to confer with parents.

Other noteworthy instances might be cited of this encouraging trend in rural education to protect and correct the health of rural children, but the important thing to note is that these are but sporadic examples when the country as a whole is considered. It is hoped that these outstanding examples will be a challenge to rural communities to take up the good work.

Summary of Recommendations.—The following summary of recommendations offered by the Missouri Tuberculosis Association in the Rural School Health Survey is so suggestive of a plan of attack on the rural school health problem, and is so sensible in its demands for a program of health, that it is worthy of emulation by all our counties and states.

1. Employ county health nurses, who, among their manifold duties, shall assist in school examinations and follow up children in need of treatment.

2. Employ full-time county health officers, and include in their duties, giving physical examinations to all children not already under the care of school or city physicians.

3. Establish some plan whereby children who need dental, surgical, or oculists' care can get it, even if they do not live in a large city.

4. Develop the practical bearing of school instruction in hygiene, especially along the line of sanitation and food-selection.

5. Push the Missouri School Health Crusade.

6. Back up and extend the health education work of the farm bureaus, the home bureaus, and the Red Cross chapters.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. In what ways have rural health conditions markedly improved in recent years? What have been the chief factors in bringing about this improvement?
2. What is the present status of rural health work in your state? In your county?
3. Why has the movement to provide medical inspection in rural schools met with so much opposition among rural patrons?
4. Outline what you believe to be the functions and duties of the county school nurse.
5. One of the important aims of education is that of developing strong healthy citizens. Show how the rural school has neglected this aim in many respects.
6. Discuss the importance of good teeth as a factor in normal child development and in success in school work.
7. Discuss the importance of proper lighting in schools.
8. What are the advantages of the jacketed stove over the old-fashioned box stove? Explain how the jacketed stove provides ventilation in rural schools.
9. What are the advantages of the consolidated school over the one-room school so far as the health of rural children is concerned?
10. Why should the teacher keep a record of the weight of each child from month to month?
11. What are some of the common health habits that children should acquire? How would you teach these habits?
12. Many rural children are undernourished. How can they be brought up to normal?
13. Many rural communities are without medical and dental care. How may this important service be secured for rural school children?
14. Tell how you would go about creating a community interest in securing this service.
15. Discuss the importance of including physical training in the rural school curriculum.
16. Show why it is not enough merely to study physiology to insure healthful living.

17. What is meant by mental hygiene? Can the rural teacher make use of it?
18. How does the hot noon lunch improve the health of rural children?
19. How is physical and mental health affected by play?
20. What effect has the teacher's health upon that of her pupils?

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. The effect of enlarged tonsils and adenoids on school progress.
2. Sanitary rural school toilets.
3. The present status of medical inspection in rural schools.
4. Plans for providing expert medical, dental, and oculist treatment for rural school children.
5. Various organizations interested in the rural health problem, and the work they are doing.
6. The county nurse movement.
7. The standard or model rural school as compared to the typical rural school in matters pertaining to health.
8. How the consolidated school takes care of the health of its pupils.

References

- Andress, J. M., *Health Education in Rural Schools*.
- Betts, G. M., and Hall, O. E., *Better Rural Schools*, Chapters XV, XVI.
- Carney, Mabel, *Country Life and the Country School*, p. 221 ff.
- Dresslar, F. B., *School Hygiene*, Chapters XV-XVIII.
- Foght, H. W., *The American Rural School*, Chapter XIV.
- Moore, Elizabeth, *Rural School Health Survey*, Missouri Tuberculosis Association, St. Louis, 1922.
- Rapeer, L. W., *Educational Hygiene*, Chapters VII-XIII.
- Showalter, N. D., *Hand Book for Rural School Officers*, Chapter XX.
- Terman, L. M., *Hygiene of the School Child*.
- Wilkinson, W. A., *Rural School Management*, Chapters III-V.

CHAPTER X

MODEL RURAL SCHOOLS

In many sections of our country the one-room school will long remain the only solution of the rural education problem. Consolidation can not be effected advantageously in very sparsely populated areas nor in very mountainous regions. Then, again, in many sections consolidation must wait for road improvement, and in others it must overcome public opposition and inertia. In such sections the best solution for rural education can be found in improving the present one-room school. This chapter will be devoted to one means of such improvement.

Need for Modern Rural Schools.—When one considers the poverty-stricken conditions of most of our one-room schools, one wonders what the ultimate effect must be upon the plastic minds of boys and girls who are required to attend them. The little schoolhouse, of ancient vintage, stands by the side of the road portraying, as it were, a past civilization. Nothing about it reflects our present standard of public undertaking. Imagine a building of box-car design, as bleak within as it is without; a teacher's desk; non-adjustable desks for the children; a stove, perhaps a jacketed one, if the law requires it; a very few books; a globe; black boards; and a few old maps, and you have a picture of

the little rural school that is so dear to the hearts of its patrons. It has become hallowed by age!

Nothing about it presents *life* in any of its phases. The grounds are devoid of trees and shrubs, and what is equally pathetic, playground apparatus. We have already discussed the teacher, who "keeps school" in this veritable desert for inspiration and normal growth.

Not All One-Teacher Schools are Bad.—In spite of this environment one can point to numerous examples of outstanding success in rural schools. A natural-born teacher, full of the urge of her calling, bubbling over with energy, filled with love for her children, ingenious in inventing devices, and endowed with the qualities of leadership that will make even the unwilling want to follow, can teach a successful school in an empty barn. But, we are agreed that such teachers are rare. The rank and file of our children will be under the tutelage of an average teacher. This teacher of average ability will not be able to do average teaching in a below average environment, and many of our one-room schools, it must be admitted, are of this class. But this same average teacher will be much more likely to do average or above average teaching, if she has an average or above average school, meaning in this case the building and equipment.

Changing Conceptions of Education Bring New Needs.—The early district school with its limited equipment has rendered a valuable service to America and rendered it well. In the olden days education consisted of learning to read, write, and figure; and that

to a very limited extent. Little equipment was needed for that. Life was comparatively simple, so that it was not so necessary to be "schooled" to get along as is the case in our modern competitive age. Little attention was given to the recreational and social side of life, and the problems of health and sanitation were undreamed of. Life was chiefly centered around the work of the home and farm, and little time was left for developing the artistic temperament.

Today education means something vastly different. Ability to read, write and figure are only a small part of an educated person's necessary equipment. But everybody must be able to do these or he is termed "illiterate"—a stigma today, but not so yesterday. An educated person today must be able to carry on a vocation. While our rural school may not prepare directly for a vocation, yet it must lay the broad foundations upon which a future vocation can be built. The fundamentals of knowledge must be firmly laid, and besides that, certain manual skills and aptitudes must be developed. In the olden day the boy could follow his father's vocation without much of any outside preparation. Today, to be successful he needs to study and learn much more than the informal home training can give: The shops today are full of human beings doing mechanical work—which can hardly be dignified with the name vocation—because they lack the training or ability to take up a vocation.

Because of the monotony of such work it becomes necessary to compensate by reducing the hours of labor and providing more time for recreation. This produces a third problem for education, namely, edu-

cating for the proper use of this leisure time. In the rural schools this is as great a problem as in the cities. Country people need to play as well as city people do. The trouble is, they do not know how to play. Our schools must teach them how. This problem will be fully treated in the chapter on the school, the social center of the community (Chapter XVI).

Another modern function of education is to develop in people a love and appreciation of the beautiful. Certainly our old-fashioned rural school has been anything but a worthy example of the beautiful, in type of architecture, surroundings, decorations, etc. The modern rural school must in every way be such that it will attract our attention and win our admiration and appreciation. The interior decorations should be such as to set a standard of the artistic for the pupils.

How to prepare people to lead a healthful, happy life by keeping physically fit is a fifth aim of our modern school. The rural school of today must be clean and sanitary, and the children must be taught habits of health and cleanliness. This subject was discussed in the preceding chapter.

Educating boys and girls to become worthy members of their community, state, and nation is a very important function of modern education. With the intricacies and complexities of modern civic life, the ability to get along in the community and yet assist in the welfare of it, is a problem in itself, not quite so simple as it was in the day when the rural school was in its acme.

Add to these various functions of modern education the problems of the modern home, making it a happy

family undertaking, rather than a mere place in which to eat and sleep, and we have a fair outline of the modern conception of what education means. Try to fit into this conception the old country school and see how many of the objectives of modern education it can adequately fulfill. Then contrast with it the modern one-room rural school as described below, and as actually exists in some states today, but which should exist wherever the one-room school must exist.

Demonstration Rural School, North Dakota State Normal and Industrial School.¹—This school was erected on the campus of the North Dakota Normal and Industrial School, at Ellendale, North Dakota, in the fall of 1917, as a model rural school, in which to train teachers for rural service. The students in the normal school received training in agriculture, home economics, manual training, and social leadership, with rural needs in view, but they had to do their practice teaching in city schools, where conditions are ideal as compared to most rural schools. The result was that they failed to make the proper applications to rural conditions and needs when they got into their schools, and many became discouraged with rural teaching, and determined to leave or avoid it.

The Ellendale school consists of only rural children who daily return to their homes. The regular state course of study is followed in all the grades. The building is planned for carrying on the newer activities of school life. The kitchen is well enough equipped for small cooking classes as well as affording adequate

¹ Combellick and Marsh, Bulletin 14, No. 1 State Normal and Industrial School, Ellendale, N. D.

means of preparing the hot noon lunch. The boys' workroom has sufficient equipment to do woodwork on a small scale as well as any other form of construction.

Among the other activities carried on in this school are: the school garden, boys' and girls' clubs, community gatherings, and supervised play.

The Building.—The building is of frame construction, thirty-six feet square with a basement, main floor, and attic storage room. The floor plans show clearly the arrangement of the rooms.

Basement.—The basement provides a furnace and fuel room, indoor toilets, and a large playroom. The latter is one of the attractive features of the building. It is large enough to be used for many kinds of indoor ball, as well as other indoor games. The toilets are conveniently located in the basement. City water and drainage are used. Dry toilets could, however, be installed in the open country where running water and drainage cannot be had. But, if sufficient water for operating can be gotten from a well or cistern, the water flush system could still be used by the aid of a pressure tank or elevated reservoir, and a septic tank constructed outside to receive the drainage.

For the small community that may not care for the basement, most of the main plan can still be used even if inside toilets are desired. By a change of opening the book-room could be made a second coat-room, and within the two coat-rooms divisions could be made for toilets. This would greatly reduce the cost and still retain the essential features of the plan.

Floor Plan.—The main room is twenty-three feet

square and has a lawful seating capacity of thirty-five pupils. It is well lighted and ventilated. Provision is made for a boys' and girls' workroom. This is a

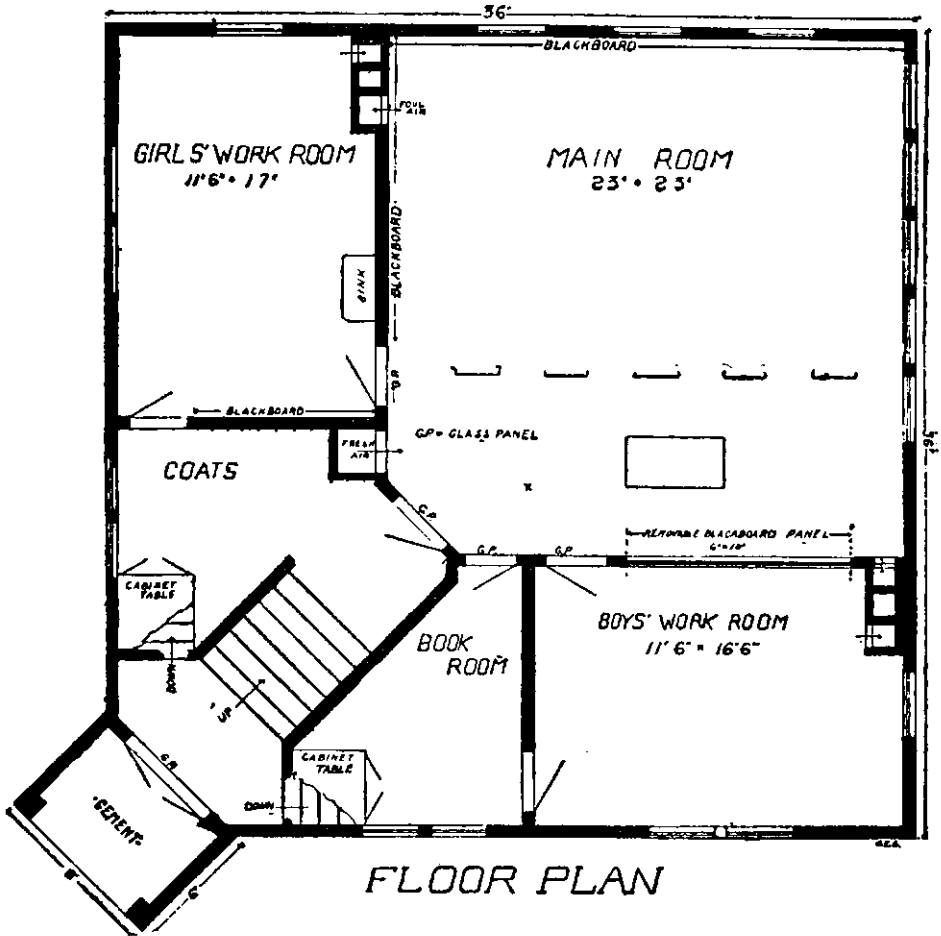


FIGURE 21

DEMONSTRATION RURAL-SCHOOL STATE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL, ELLENDALE, NORTH DAKOTA

very essential feature of a modern rural school. The building is superior in arrangement for supervision. The teacher standing near the point marked X in the floor plan can see into the girls' room, the cloakroom,

the book-room, and the boys' workroom. This makes it possible for work to be going on in all three rooms at the same time and yet be under the eye of the teacher.

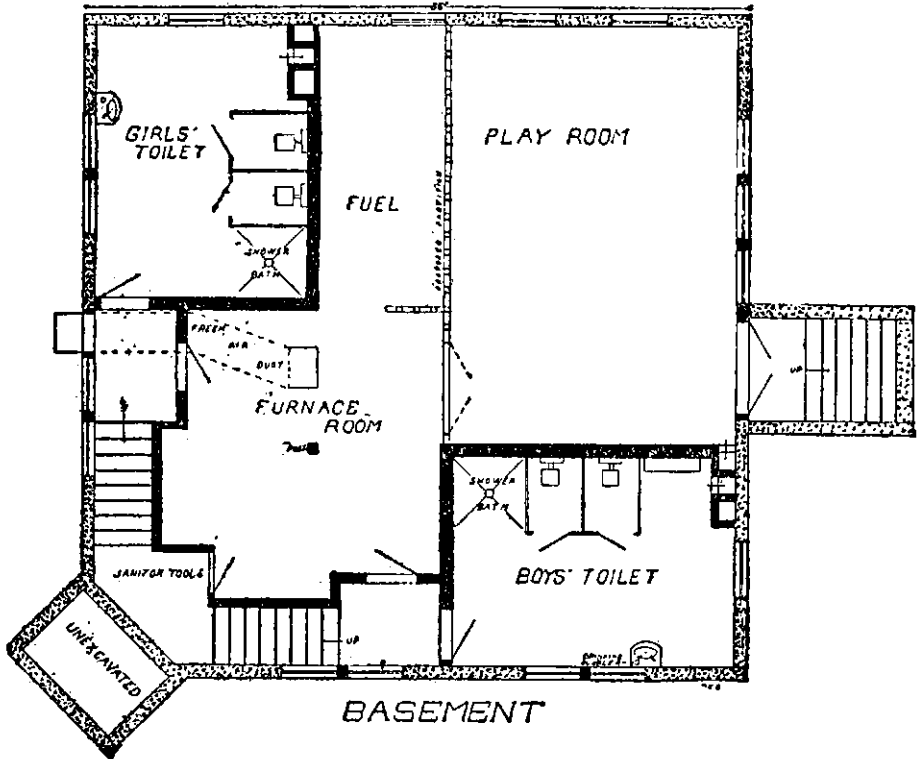


FIGURE 22

DEMONSTRATION RURAL-SCHOOL STATE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL
SCHOOL, ELLENDALE, NORTH DAKOTA

In planning this building the social needs of the community were also borne in mind. The schoolhouse should be not only the educational center, but also the social center of the community. The old-fashioned schoolroom with its stationary seats and desks, is about as undesirable and inconvenient as could be im-

aged for a social gathering of young people. With the movable chair-desk this room can easily be cleared, thus giving ample room for social activities, such as games and dancing. The panel between the main room and the boys' work-room is removable; thus it is possible to make the two into one large room. For musical and literary programs the boys' room can be used as a platform for those appearing on the program, while the entire main room can be occupied by the audience. The book-room serves as a dressing room when the entertainment is in the nature of a play requiring costuming.

The convenient location and equipment of the home economics room make it possible to serve refreshments at social gatherings. The building is also well adapted for religious services on Sunday. In many communities, the rural school is used for religious purposes, the several rooms make it easier to conduct Sunday School classes.

Cost.—The cost of labor and materials in 1917 was, perhaps, as high as it has been at any time since that date, but this excellent community building, modern in every respect, did not cost more money than many a farm home that accommodates but a single family.

The total cost, including labor, material, plumbing, heating and ventilating, furniture, and books, and supplies, was less than \$5,500. What better investment could a community make than this?

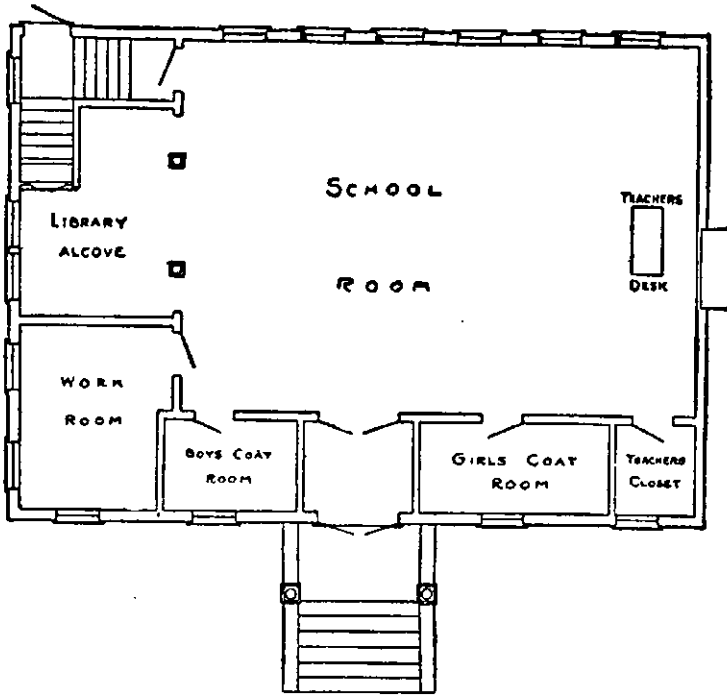
Model School at Kirksville, Missouri.—The model rural school on the campus of the State Normal School at Kirksville, Missouri, has become classic in the literature of rural education. This is, perhaps, the best

example of modern one-room school house planning and construction that we have. The basement, first floor, and attic are all utilized in carrying on the modern educational activities. For a complete description of this school the reader is referred to Cubberley's *Rural Life and Education*, Revised Edition, Chapter XIV.

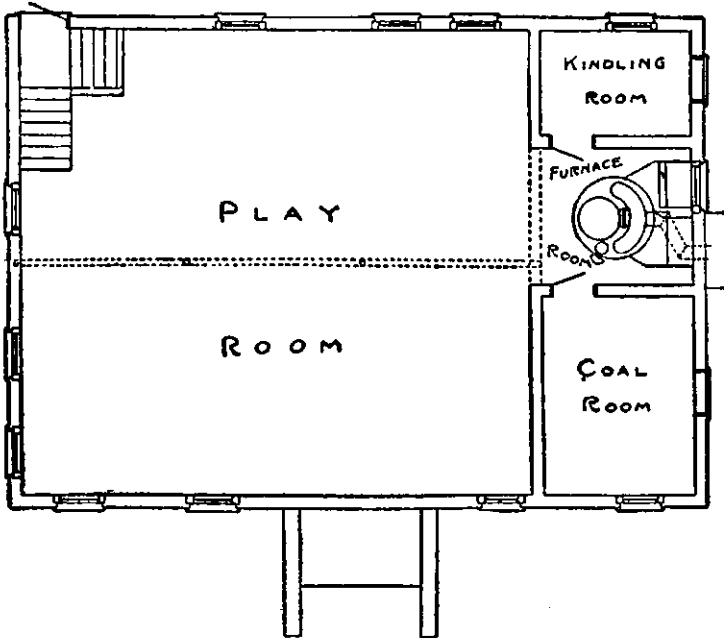
While the chief purpose of these model schools is to provide facilities for observation and practice teaching for prospective rural teachers, yet they serve an almost equally important function in presenting examples of modern rural schoolhouse construction. The model schools described above—and many other state normal schools have similar ones—have been copied in more or less modified form, by many school authorities in several states. Many rural communities would be willing to break away from the old traditional school, if they knew exactly what the new school should be. The model school is rendering a valuable service to such communities.

The model schools we have just been considering are models in schoolhouse construction, equipment, teaching facilities, etc., and provide experience for student teachers. Let us now consider a second type of model school that has recently developed in some progressive states, which aims to provide not primarily model building facilities and equipment but rather model classroom organization and instruction, for teachers already in service.

Rural Model Schools in Connecticut.—Among the plans for training teachers in service in Connecticut is the use of the model school. This school is chosen



Floor Plan, Constant School



Basement Plan, Constant School,
FIGURE 23

FLOOR PLANS OF A MODEL ONE-ROOM RURAL SCHOOL
(Courtesy F. G. Blair, State Superintendent of Public In-
struction, Illinois)

the superintendents. Their work is to teach for observation and to visit and help other teachers in problems of organization, methods, and management. Some visit schools one or more days a week, others remain in their own schools teaching for observation and helping teachers who are sent to them by the superintendent. The regular salary of these helping teachers is supplemented by a bonus of 25 percent. by the state.

A Bright Day Ahead for the Rural School.—These are some of the efforts that are being put forth in the interest of better rural schools, better equipment, and better teaching methods. With such good examples to follow and with an awakened consciousness of the new needs of the rural school, the day cannot be far distant when every country child will have a fair chance with the city child.

The country school needs the same equipment and the same facilities that the city school now has. A good library, reference books, supplementary readers, a set of encyclopedias, dictionaries, pictures, and illustrative materials; good maps, globes, charts, construction material, colored crayons, facilities for manual activities, sewing, cooking, etc., are all essential to a modern rural school, if it is to provide good elementary education of the same sort that the city school now offers.

The country school has an unlimited opportunity to teach nature study and agriculture to its children. To this end a school garden is most valuable. Then the modern country school must provide better facilities for play, both for the children in school and for the

grown-ups in the country. With these ideals of the model school in mind, a modern rural community can transcend any city school which is hampered by its congestion, its lack of playground facility, its noisy environment, and above all its remoteness from nature as it is found in the great open country.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Compare the rural school which you attended with the model schools described in this chapter, especially with reference to the building and equipment.
2. How does the average rural school compare with the city school?
3. Enumerate what you consider to be necessary equipment for a rural school.
4. The ideal rural school is one that not only ministers to the needs of the children, but also serves as a community center for all the members of the community. What type of school will best suit this purpose?
5. What is the effect of a modern well kept and well equipped building, and a beautiful school site, with a well planned and well equipped playground, upon the æsthetic and moral development of the children?
6. Compare the modern progressive farmer's home and its sanitary conveniences with the average country school. Suggest reasons for these apparent inconsistencies.
7. Suggest as many advantages as you can for having a basement under the one-room school. What are the disadvantages?
8. The rural school library should inspire children to want to read. Has it developed this reading habit in you? What suggestions would you make to increase its usefulness?
9. What methods can the rural teachers use to increase the number of books available for her district?
10. Can you explain, psychologically, why a farmer will provide

the best care and housing for his stock, and then fail to provide even fairly good, to say nothing of the best, care and housing for his most precious stock—his children?

11. What is the psychological effect upon a community of a fine schoolhouse and a beautiful school ground?
12. Does the architecture of the schoolhouse have any effect upon the taste of the community? Explain. Do you believe that rural school officers should employ an architect when contemplating a new building, or should the planning be left to the carpenter?
13. What are your reactions to the Connecticut plan of "model schools"?
14. What do you think of the Maine plan?
15. Do you think the procedure of selecting certain rural teachers and giving them a "free" special education is justifiable? What is your reason for believing as you do?
16. What are the values of demonstration schools? Discuss from the point of view of methods, motivation, community interest, support, etc.
17. What can the rural school teacher do to create a school spirit in her community?
18. What devices can the teacher use to increase her school equipment?
19. How would you meet the old argument that modern education requires too many "frills" and that the good teacher can keep good school without them?

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. The campus demonstration school for preparing teachers for rural schools.
2. The building of "Porter Community."
3. The model rural school as an agency in training teachers in service.
4. Plans and equipment of a modern rural community center school.
5. A model rural school library.

References

- Betts, G. H., and Hall, O. E., *Better Rural Schools*, Chapters XXIII-XXIV.
- Cubberley, E. P., *Rural Life and Education*, Chapters IX, XIV.
- Showalter, N. D., *Hand Book for Rural School Officers*, Chapters VI-IX.
- Wilkinson, W. A., *Rural School Management*, Chapter VI.
- Bulletin, North Dakota State Normal and Industrial School. 1919, Vol. 14, No. 1.
- Rural School Survey of New York State, Chapter VIII.

CHAPTER XI

STANDARDIZATION OF RURAL SCHOOLS¹

The Problem Stated.—In the preceding chapter we considered one manner by which rural schools can be and are being improved. This chapter will be devoted to another more or less universal manner of improving rural schools, namely, standardization. The fact that there are approximately 168,000 one-room schools in the United States, with the usual shortcomings attending these schools—inadequate equipment, buildings, playgrounds and apparatus, large number of classes, poorly paid teachers, poor community cooperation, and a score of others—raises the problem of how to bring about improvement in the rural situation.

No matter what our notions may be about the teacher making the school or the proverbial Mark Hopkins log, it must be conceded that even the best teacher labors under tremendous handicaps when the physical conditions of the school are inadequate. The accompanying effects upon the health and morals of the children of such inadequacies as improper lighting, seating, heating, ventilating, decorations, libraries, playgrounds, etc., cannot easily be estimated. These results accrue in spite of the good teacher.

¹ This chapter appeared in part in the *Journal of Rural Education*, Volume 3, No. 5.

Consolidation Not Always Possible.—There is hardly a state in the union that has not recognized the shortcomings of the rural school and has not taken steps toward the solution of the problem. Almost simultaneously with the thought of rural school betterment there arises in the mind of the educator the idea of "consolidation." It is true that consolidation is, perhaps, the solution of the rural school problem throughout much of the Middle West and the South, but there are many sections of this country where consolidation can never be effected.

In the sparsely settled sections, like New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, and some parts of the Prairie States, it is impossible to consolidate because of the already enormous school districts. In New Mexico the smallest rural school district is one township, while some of the larger ones embrace from thirty to forty-two townships. Consolidation under these circumstances is impracticable.

Then, again, in many sections of the country, notably the Rocky Mountain region, and also parts of the New England states and of the South, peculiar topographical conditions are presented, which make consolidation impossible. Mountains and valleys will always remain obstacles to consolidation as long as land vehicles remain the approved method of transportation. In many of these regions consolidation has been developed to the limits of practicability, but still many one-teacher schools must be maintained.

Other Obstacles to Consolidation.—The condition of the roads, too, is a very important factor in the consolidation movement. Where roads are impassable, be-

cause of snow and mud, for any extended period each year, consolidation cannot be successfully effected.

Topographical conditions, sparsity of population, barrenness of soil, condition of roads, etc., are factors which will forever operate against consolidation. In such sections the one-teacher school must remain the only means for educating the children.

Natural barriers are not the only ones that the movement for consolidation encounters. In many states the movement has made slow progress because of the opposition met within the small districts. Most states were quick to copy the "district system" from Massachusetts but, unlike her, they have been unable to rid themselves of it later. The institution has become traditional among the rural people, and most attempts at revolutionizing it are met with ill favor. The experience of New York State in attempting to bring about state-wide consolidation by means of legislation should warn us against compulsory consolidation. Evolution rather than revolution must be the guiding principle.

In the meantime, while it is waiting for the happy day when it may unite with its equally unfortunate neighbor, and have a rebirth, the little rural school goes on as it did twenty years ago, except that the building is growing older and more dilapidated each year. It is little wonder that the rural school has been humorously characterized as, "a little house on a little piece of ground, with a little equipment, where a little school teacher, for a little while at a little salary teaches little children little things," and that it is located in "a little district with a little assessed valu-

ation, where a people with little vision do little for themselves and their little children.”

The seriousness of the situation is being recognized by many states and various remedial measures are being tried. Perhaps, the method meeting with the most success generally is that of standardization.

What Is Standardization?—The term standardization as applied to schools must not be confused with the technical meaning of the term as applied to industry.

In the industrial world standardization means the production of a standard product. It is by means of standardization that large scale production is made possible. In education it is not the uniform product we desire in aiming for “Standard Schools,” but rather the raising of schools to a higher plane by means of definite standards or guides. When a school has met the minimum standards set by authorities, it is designated as a “Standard School,” meaning thereby not that it is now in a uniform class, but perhaps rather the opposite—that it has risen out of the all-too-common uniform class.

Purpose of Standardization.—The purpose of standardization is to give to communities a definite attainable aim for the betterment of their school. It is by means of the standards that a community may know what to do for its schools so that the children may have the best possible opportunity for obtaining the best education. It is difficult for people who have not made a special study of the school situation to know just what the best provisions for education are. It is

in directing and guiding the people of a community in establishing a better school that the great value of standardization is to be found.

State Superintendent Josephine Corliss Preston, of the State of Washington, says the following about standardization: "Removing the subject from the technical, and speaking in terms of human interest, a standard rural school is the center of community interest, where teachers, pupils, parents, directors, and friends meet together, becoming better acquainted and talk over the things that make the grounds more beautiful, the equipment more useful, the instruction more practical, and the association together more enjoyable and beneficial.

"All great men and women have a goal toward which they are steadily climbing and all great persons have a certain aim in life. This is the psychology of the standardization of schools. School directors, teachers, pupils, and parents, work together with the standard school as a common goal. Greater things are accomplished than ever before through this co-operation. Barren school grounds are equipped with playground apparatus, trees are planted, fences are built, school gardens are made; unsanitary school buildings are replaced by structures which are the pride and joy of the community. Hot lunch, community fairs, school libraries, and many other projects are aided by community effort."²

Incentives for Standard Schools.—States having adopted standardization as a method of improving their rural schools have found it most stimulating to

² Twenty-sixth Biennial Report, State of Washington, p. 111.

provide certain incentives to create an interest in, and a desire to meet, the standards. These incentives usually take the form of awards, such as, state aid, a diploma or certificate, or a suitable marker bearing the words "Standard School" or "Superior School." The states of Illinois and Vermont have adopted both "Standard" and "Superior" markers, the difference between the two being a higher rating on the rating card for the "Superior School." West Virginia has "first class" and "second class" standard schools. Various other states have varying schemes, but the most common incentive is that offering special financial aid to schools meeting the standardization requirements.

Rating Rural Schools.—If the best results are to be obtained by standardization, and if its real purpose is to be achieved, it is necessary that a simple intelligent guide card be used in presenting the standards to be desired. I prefer the word-guide card to score card because these imply the scoring or rating by some higher authority, of what already exists, rather than of guiding or directing toward a definite aim—which, after all, is the great purpose of standardization. If these cards are to be true guide cards, and not merely score cards, they must be placed in the hands of those people who will actually improve and who are responsible for the improvements, namely, the citizens of the community, especially the teacher and the pupils. For this reason it is desirable that the standards be printed on a card which can be posted in a conspicuous place in the schoolroom. The State of Oregon has adopted this plan. The standards are printed

on heavy paper which may be conveniently posted in the schoolroom. As soon as any one of the requirements is fulfilled it is marked with a star, and when all of the requirements are fulfilled a suitable pennant or certificate is awarded. This plan has the added advantage of stimulating interest in standardization by making it a "piecemeal" process, or a gradual process of development. Each star signifies a definite step forward. The weak points in the school are brought into relief, and so will attract the attention of the patrons of the school, so that effort may be centered where most needed.

Most score cards are constructed on the point system, allowing a certain maximum number of points in each of a given number of divisions. The following are common divisions found in most score cards: (1) buildings and grounds, (2) furnishings and supplies, (3) the teacher, (4) pupils, (5) the community. The usual maximum number of points obtainable is 100. In other words, the score cards are constructed on the basis of 100 points equal perfection or nearly so. A typical score card is presented in the Appendix.

Standardization in Illinois.—Illinois is probably the foremost state in the country in the movement for standardization of rural schools. Of the 11,000 one-room schools of Illinois 4,500 are standard schools, and forty are superior schools. A "Standard School" in Illinois is "a good school having the necessary equipment and taught in a house which is well adapted to the purpose and in a sanitary condition." When a school meets the standard requirements it is awarded

a diploma and a marker, bearing the words "Standard School." This marker is placed above the door on the outside.

A "Superior School" is "taught by a teacher of superior qualifications and with the highest efficiency, in a house that is as nearly perfect in all the essentials as possible and furnished with everything needed. The community must show the interest that the claim of such a school implies." In superior schools emphasis is laid upon the work of the teacher and pupils, and the interest of the community in school activities. The teacher must be skillful not only in imparting subject matter but also in directing the activities and life of children. It is also necessary that she be a community leader. The community must be willing to join in and take part in meetings and social gatherings at the school and have a whole-hearted spirit of co-operation.

What Standardization Does for the Rural School.—In order to show what a salutary effect the principle of standardization may have upon a school, and a community, the history of the Hawthorne Farm School in Lake County, Illinois, is chosen as an example.³

When this school was first inspected in 1908, it was found that a house was erected to ornament the landscape. The outside was well designed for this purpose. The inside was not at all suited to school purposes. It was furnished with the desks from the old house, all too large for the children. The cheapest

³ Standard Elementary Schools, Circular No. 144, Illinois Department of Education.

teacher was employed. The inspector was strongly impressed that there was something dead about this place.

Because of the good house the superintendent wanted this to become a "Standard School." He worked for, and the board secured, a better teacher. The teacher helped to reach the goal of standardization. The stove was jacketed and ventilation was provided. New desks were installed; library books were procured. The school was recognized as Standard in 1912. It was the 526th in the state so recognized.

The sanitation law went into effect in 1915. The house then did not meet the requirements of the law. The basement, which was a junk-room, was enlarged; a furnace and indoor toilets were installed; a good room was provided; the windows shaded with translucent shades; and the walls were properly tinted. The county superintendent suggested that this might become a superior school. The only thing now lacking was a superior teacher. The board requested him to recommend one. She was employed at \$800 a year, almost double what previous ones had received. She determined to make the school superior, first by teaching and conducting the school in a superior way, second, by securing the required equipment and interesting the community in the school to the degree where the people would do their part. As a result of her effort her salary was voluntarily raised to \$1000. The State inspector found everything satisfactory. The school was dedicated by the Superintendent of Public Instruction in 1919. After this the people were so pleased with the school that the teacher's salary was

voluntarily raised in the middle of the year to \$1200. This was done because they thought she *earned* it. The school is to these people the center of the community life. From it they think they are getting the thing of greatest worth for their children—a chance to grow into a satisfactory manhood and womanhood, both in knowledge and in character.

During the years the school was developing from a makeshift to a Superior School, the State inspector noted the great change in the children. It was even more noticeable than the change in the schoolhouse. Previously there had been the painful timidity, the stolid indifference, or the staring curiosity to be found in so many of the perfunctory schools in isolated communities. The school work was slouchy and stupid. Now the children meet the stranger with open eyes and the steady look, are respectful yet wide-awake, for they have confidence in themselves and in those whom they meet. In their school work they are alert, diligent, and persevering. They recite their lessons as if they know something and want to tell it. Their delightful oral reading is a great contrast to the former drawling intonation, to the ludicrousness of which they were wholly oblivious.

Parents who do not appreciate the change are a curiosity. These parents do.

Values of Standardization.—The principle of standardization tends to produce the following results in rural schools:

1. Better and more attractive buildings are erected, and old ones are kept in better repair.
2. Better sanitary conditions prevail in the stand-

ard school and more careful attention is given to hygienic conditions.

3. More supplies, books, and apparatus are bought for the school.

4. School grounds are beautified, and more attention is given to playground equipment, and play activities of children.

5. Better qualified teachers are attracted and held in Standard Schools.

6. Better school organization is found in Standard Schools because of the better teachers to be found in these schools.

7. It stimulates better attendance, and a better school spirit.

8. It stimulates community interest in the school, thus bringing about a closer relationship between the school and the home.

Conclusion.—When we consider that about 40 percent. of the children of the United States are enrolled in rural schools—and that this means approximately eleven million rural school children—the importance of any movement which aims to give the rural child more nearly the same educational advantages that the urban child has, will be recognized. And when we further consider that, perhaps, 90 percent. of the children of the rural population will receive no further education beyond the one-room school, something of the significance of the rural school problem will be felt. Standardization can do much in inculcating the desire for better schools by showing what better schools are and how they can be had. Many rural people have no conception of the possibilities of education, and without

this conception they naturally lack enthusiasm in the support of their school. The live, enthusiastic teacher and superintendent have a splendid opportunity to impress upon them the educational, æsthetic, and moral values that can be derived from a Standard or Superior School.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. What do you understand by standardization in education? Discuss this question from the standpoint of (1) buildings, grounds, equipment, etc., and (2) of instruction.
2. Can you see any dangers in the standardization movement? Discuss.
3. What is the theory underlying the principle of standardization, that is, upon what factors does it depend for bringing about improvement of rural schools?
4. Upon whom does standardization place the burden of improving the school?
5. Should state aid be given to schools meeting standard requirements?
6. Is there any danger that standardization will interfere with consolidation?
7. Compare a "Standard" or "Superior" school with an ordinary one-room country school.
8. What are the psychological effects of a Standard or Superior school upon a community?
9. What can be done about the schools that do not meet the requirements for standardization?
10. What do you think about the plan of posting the standards in the schoolroom and checking each requirement as it is met? Why?
11. Standardization helps to make rural patrons conscious of the shortcomings of their school. Why were they not conscious of these before?
13. How does standardization act as a "guide" to rural patrons?

14. Should the consolidated school be "standardized"? Is this being done?
15. Compare a "Standard" school with a consolidated school.

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. Report on the standardization movement in Illinois, Vermont, West Virginia, Oregon.
2. Report on what is being done in your state.
3. Compare two or more standard score cards with reference to the items of standardization.
4. The standard school as a community center.

References

- Betts, G. H., and Hall, O. E., *Better Rural Schools*, Chapter XXIV.
- Blair, F. G., Hoffman, U. J., and Booth, W. S., *Standard Elementary Schools of Illinois*.
- Butterworth, J. E., *Improving the School Building Facilities of One- and Two-Teacher Districts through Measurement*, Cornell Extension Bulletin 52, June, 1922.
- Ford, G. M., *Requirements and Regulations for Standard One-Teacher Schools*.
- Francis, May E., *Regulations for Standardizing the Rural Schools*, Department of Public Instruction, Iowa.
- Lathrop, Edith A., *The Improvement of Rural Schools by Standardization*. (Rural School Leaflet No. 32, 1925.)
- Rural Schools of Vermont and Their Improvement*. Bulletin No. 2, 1922, Part IV.

CHAPTER XII

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN RURAL COMMUNITIES

What Is the Junior High School?—The last decade has brought into our American educational scheme a new institution, which is sometimes called the intermediate school, but more often the junior high school. The most inclusive definition of the junior high school is that it is an institution for the education of adolescent boys and girls. Various attempts at a scientific definition of the junior high school have been made, but due to different standards and different interpretations in different parts of the country of what it should be, no single, uniform definition prevails.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1918 adopted the following definition and statement of aims:¹

The junior high school shall normally include the seventh, eighth, and ninth years of public school work. The junior high school organization and administration shall realize the following aims and purposes:

1. To continue through its instructional program the aims of public education in a democracy.
2. To reduce to the minimum the elimination of pupils by offering types of work best suited to their interests, needs, and capacities.
3. To give the pupil an opportunity under system-

¹ Quoted by Briggs, *The Junior High School*, p. 51.

atic educational guidance to discover his dominant interests, capacities, and limitations with reference to his future vocational activities or the continuance of his education in higher schools.

4. To economize time through such organization and administration of subjects and courses, both for those who will continue their education in higher schools and for those who will enter immediately into life's activities.

The New International Dictionary gives the following definition of the junior high school: "a school organization intermediate between the grammar school and the high school, formed by a union of the upper grades of the grammar school usually with one, and occasionally with two, grades of the high school, making a separate group and aiming to provide for individual differences among students and also to facilitate transfer from the grammar school to the high school, especially by allowing a limited amount of election of studies and by employing departmental teachers."

Old Organization Not Satisfactory.—The old eight-four plan, eight years in the elementary school and four years in the high school, is highly unsatisfactory for several reasons. In the first place it is a waste of time to spend eight years on the traditional elementary school curriculum. The fundamental subjects can be learned in the first six grades, thus allowing the other two years for a differentiated course including subjects that appeal to the interests and capacities of different pupils. In the second place, it reduces elimination and failure. By offering subjects that are within the capacity and interest of the child, he will

not want to drop out of school when he has reached the end of the compulsory age period. The appeal of the subjects will keep him in school; nor will he form the habit of considering himself a failure, for where interest is aroused there is no such thing as failure. The old plan requires a child to study "dry" subjects against his will. It is the most natural thing for him to dislike school under these circumstances and to wait for the time when he will be allowed to do things he likes. In the third place, the eight year elementary school has not made provision for the pupil to discover his dominant interests, capacities, and limitations. This means that in the rural sections about 90 percent. of the children are left without this educational guidance. The junior high school provides courses which will help the child to discover himself. In the fourth place, the old plan does not take into account the psychological changes that accompany adolescence. This period begins around the end of the sixth grade age, and places the pupil in a distinct group, differing greatly from that from which he has just emerged. This early adolescent period extends through the ordinary first year high school period, thus making the junior high school a distinct division corresponding to the natural development of the child. This is the period of great fluctuation of energy and interest, and it is due to these factors that so many drop out of school at this time. The junior high school is an attempt to "bridge the gap" between the elementary school and the high school. It also tends to eliminate the break which so naturally comes at the close of the compulsory age limit, or at the completion of the eighth

grade, by adding at least one more year in school to the child's life. In the fifth place, the old eight-year elementary organization is most unsatisfactory in rural schools. It is absolutely impossible for one teacher to conduct an efficient school with eight grades and an overcrowded curriculum such as we have in our present rural school organization. Various methods of overcoming this difficulty have been tried (see Chapter VIII), but to solve the problem adequately there must be a reorganization of the rural school system, either such as has been described in Chapter III or some form of junior high school organization.

Junior High Schools in Rural Communities.—How can a junior high school be organized in a rural community? The first requirement is to reorganize the curriculum. A junior high school is more than a mere division of grades at the end of the sixth, and grouping the seventh, eighth, and ninth, and perhaps, the tenth together, and calling it a junior high school. To be sure, this division is necessary but the real distinguishing factor is in the change of subjects that are taught and the manner in which they are taught.

In this new organization the traditional subjects are taught in the six-year elementary school, and foreign languages prevocational subjects (agriculture, home-making, manual activities, etc.), science, mathematics, English, commercial subjects, etc., are taught in the junior high school.

The second requirement involves a change in the buildings and additional equipment, to meet the needs of the junior high school subjects. In the smaller rural communities this does not usually mean the

erecting of a new building but a remodelling of the old, and, perhaps, building an addition to accommodate the added number of pupils retained in school because of the ninth and tenth grades.

A third requirement is that of specially prepared junior high school teachers. It is a mistake to employ the old-type seventh and eighth grade teacher, or to promote the present seventh and eighth grade teacher into the junior high school. The junior high school is a new institution, entirely different from the old traditional elementary school, both in its theory and in its practice, and it would be a mistake to bring into it the traditional notions and methods of the elementary school. This will inevitably happen, however, if teachers who have the old elementary tradition and training ingrained in them, are brought into it. Of course, it will not always be easy to get specially prepared junior high school teachers, because this field is so new, and many of our teacher-training institutions have not yet provided for this type of training in their courses of study. Our normal colleges are recognizing this need and many are providing special courses for junior high school teachers. Massachusetts, in recognizing this need, has recently provided courses in five of its normal schools which aim to prepare teachers for the junior high school field.

In the meantime, while waiting for these specially trained teachers to arrive, what is the junior high school to do? The best thing to do is to get a young teacher who has not yet become set in her notions, and who can easily make the adjustment to fit the new situation. The young normal school or college gradu-

ate who has training in the particular subjects required in the junior high school will, perhaps, be the best type of junior high school teacher. The principal should be a college graduate who has had some training in the theory of junior high school organization. The standard that a high school board should have in mind in employing junior high school teachers should be that of employing a *high school* teacher and not that of employing a seventh or eighth grade teacher.

The Question of Territory.—How large a territory will it take to support a junior high school? Is the ordinary school district large enough for this purpose? The answer to these questions again lies in “sufficient volume for business.” The junior high school arose in many communities, and will arise in thousands of others in the near future, as a direct response to the demand of rural people for high school opportunities for their children. Our democratic conception of education will not permit us to discriminate (much longer) between our children as to who shall have a high school education and who shall not. If a community cannot provide a high school education but can provide the children who want one, it should be made possible for them to get it by means of an appropriation from the public (state) treasury. Furthermore, this appropriation should not be in the form of paying tuition at a distant high school, so that home ties must be broken in that plastic period of childhood when the home and its guidance is most needed. It should be in the form of a junior high school within the community.

Briggs says, "When it is realized that over 700 per cent. more urban than rural pupils graduate from high schools, it is clear that accessibility of education is a prime factor in its continuance." It is too much, for the present at least, to expect a four-year high school in every community. We have led ourselves to believe that the cost would be prohibitive; but when we consider the insignificance of the amount spent on education at present as compared with defense activities—army, navy, etc.—and luxuries—such as tobacco, candy, cosmetics, etc.—we must conclude that we are rationalizing.²

The first step in making secondary education universal is the junior high school. In some communities, though not in many, it will be possible to organize a junior high school in the rural school district. Mrs. Harvey's school, of Porter Community fame, offers two years of high school work, although the organization there is not strictly of the junior high school type. It shows, however, the possibility of providing for high school work in so small a territory as the district. The essential factor for providing high school work is a sufficient number of pupils, so that the expenditure for equipment and instruction will be warranted. In general the one-teacher high school is not to be recommended. The smallest junior high school should be a three teacher school, so that the household arts, the industrial arts, including agriculture, and the academic subjects may each be taught by a specially trained

² A psychological term for that type of reasoning which consists of finding arguments (usually illogical) for going on believing as we already do.

teacher. This means, of course, that the territory must be larger than the district. Several districts may combine and form a union junior high school district, somewhat as our union high school districts are formed. The community unit described in Chapter II is especially well adapted for junior high school organization. The little children may attend the one-room school near home, while the older ones attend the junior high school, which would naturally be located in the village. Many a community, which could not support a four-year high school, will be able to support a fine junior high school.

The large consolidated district makes it possible to organize both junior and senior high schools within the same district, and this is the ideal situation. Consolidation of a few small districts and providing for a junior high school only will often eliminate the transportation problem. Local conditions will necessarily have to determine which plan is best for a given community.

Caution for Rural Junior High Schools.—Until recently our rural high school curriculum was constructed on the assumption that all who attended high school intended to go to college. As a matter of fact only a small percentage of them did so. We are in danger now, and this is especially true of the rural junior high school, of forgetting this small percentage—about ten or fifteen percent.—altogether and to provide only a narrow vocational curriculum. The educational road must ever be kept open. No “closed” or tedious “detour” signs must be permitted if our democratic conception of education is to survive.

The purely vocational aim has no place in the junior high school. That must wait until the senior high school is reached. We should not teach agriculture in the junior high school to make farmers, nor home economics to make kitchen hands, any more than we should teach algebra and Latin as college entrance subjects. We should teach these subjects to help the pupil develop his capacities so that he may find himself—find what interests him, what abilities he has, and also so that he may find what things he cannot do. There is nothing more pathetic in life than never to have “found” oneself. It is the old story of “the round peg in the square hole.” It is the aim of the junior high school to help young people to make the right adjustments early. There should be no forcing into this or that vocation, but there should be intelligent, sympathetic, guidance.

What Is Being Done.—Many states noted for their progressive tendencies in rural education have already established junior high schools in rural communities. Among these should be mentioned Vermont, New Hampshire, Maryland, New Jersey, Minnesota, and Oregon, as having established junior high schools in rural communities aside from the regular small one- and two-teacher four-year high schools. These states recommend that the junior high school supersede the weak four-year high school. In all such cases, and in fact, in all junior high school organizations in rural communities, provision should be made for attendance at a senior high school by all those graduates of junior high schools who wish to continue their education. This provision should include transportation and tui-

tion in case the senior high school is located in another district.

Rural Junior High Schools in Vermont.³—In Vermont, as in most every state, there are many communities so small that there are not sufficient children to warrant the establishment of a regular four-year high school. The regular methods, such as one-teacher, two- and four-year high schools, compulsory payment of tuition by towns, and state aid, were tried but were ineffective. The junior high school plan was tried and found to be very effective, in fact, so effective that the State Board of Education had to use its authority to prevent some school officials from making a change that was not sanctioned by the community or for which they had no adequate facilities.

The six-four-two plan is used in Vermont: that is, the seventh and eighth grades are combined with the ninth and the tenth grades to form the junior high school. The law provides for state aid to these schools and also requires the approval of the State Board of Education before any community may reorganize its schools. Three teachers—a man trained in agriculture, a woman trained in home-making, and a third—are the minimum number allowed. The work is so organized as to take care of various types of students, those who may go on to college and those who will finish their education in the junior high school. Care is taken in arranging each individual's work so that at the end of the junior high school course he will have at least eight of the fourteen and a half units required for college entrance.

³ Hillegas, *Teachers' College Record*, September, 1918.

These junior high schools are a real tie between the home and the school. The work in agriculture and home-making utilizes the rural environment and so carries over into the life of the home and community. These schools will become the real community centers in their communities.

In concluding this chapter on the rural junior high school we can offer no better summary of what the junior high school is and what it does than to quote what Dr. Hillegas said of the rural high schools of Vermont:⁴

“Our experience and observation make us subscribe most sincerely to the definition which says the junior high school is an opportunity. It is an opportunity to give ‘all the children of all the people,’ the training best suited to their needs, whether they expect to finish their courses or to drop them; an opportunity to teach pupils how to solve their present-day problems through their rich, meaningful, daily experience; an opportunity to teach pupils how to study by having both them and their teacher study together in a socialized recitation to which each pupil contributes his part, not because he is to be graded by the teacher but because he is working for the welfare of the group whose problems are his problems; an opportunity to get hold of pupils so as to retain a maximum number in school a maximum length of time; an opportunity for each child to grow and develop in the sunshine of genial teaching and loving companionship into the best, happiest, and most social personality of which he is capable.”

⁴ *Op. cit.*

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Explain the origin of our eight-year elementary school system. Is the eight-year period uniform throughout the United States?
2. What is the compulsory school age limit in your state? Does the law provide for continuation schools?
3. How does the expiration of the compulsory age limit affect school attendance? At what grade is this most noticeable?
4. Explain the theory of the junior high school.
5. How does this theory fit in with our present organization of education for rural communities?
6. High school education has been defined as education for adolescents. Explain this conception of education.
7. What are the characteristics of adolescence, physical and psychological?
8. What should the curriculum of the junior high school contain?
9. How should the junior high school be organized around this curriculum?
10. What types of teaching are best for junior high schools?
11. What peculiar advantages does the junior high school possess for the small rural community?
12. Should a community that can afford a four-year high school organize a junior high school, too?
13. Do you believe that six years is enough to teach the so-called "tool" subjects?
14. How does the junior high school "bridge the gap" between the elementary school and the high school? What is the "gap" it bridges?
15. Does the junior high school tend to keep more pupils in school longer? If it does, how does it do it?
16. What type of teacher does the junior high school call for?
17. Why is the junior high school better than the one-teacher and two-teacher two- and four-year high school?
18. Would it be better for a small rural community to establish a junior high school than to consolidate with other districts and form a four-year high school?

19. Show how the junior high school organization is adapted to the community unit organization.
20. Should the large consolidated school be organized on the junior-senior high school basis?
21. What are the social and civic advantages to be derived from the junior high school?
22. Outline the main features of a junior high school, *i. e.*, its organization, administration, curriculum, etc. How many of these apply to the small rural junior high school?
23. Write a paper on "The advantages of junior high schools to rural communities."
24. What is meant by "exploratory" or "prevocational" courses?

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. The rise and spread of the junior high school.
2. Report on some particular junior high school: its organization, administration, etc.
3. Rural junior high schools in your state.
4. The effect of the junior high school on the attendance and elimination of pupils.
5. Vocational guidance in junior high schools.

References

- Bennett, G. V., *The Junior High School*.
- Briggs, T. H., *The Junior High School*.
- Hillegas, M. B., *Junior High School in Small Communities*.
- Koos, L., *The Junior High School*.
- Van Denburg, J. K., *The Junior High School in Smaller Communities*.
- Van Denburg, J. K., *The Junior High School Idea*.

CHAPTER XIII

THE TEACHER'S HOME

Need for the Teacher's Home.—One of the most noteworthy present trends in rural education is that of providing homes for rural and village school teachers. Undoubtedly, one of the most important factors in the rapid turnover of rural teachers is the difficulty experienced in finding a suitable boarding place. Occasionally, a family may be found who will take in the teacher, but usually the conditions are such that it is all but impossible for the teacher to tolerate them. She is not provided with a heated room where she can do her studying and reading, but is forced to live with the family, because often the kitchen is the only heated room in the house.

Her working hours do not correspond with the farmer's, but she is obliged to adjust herself to his hours, and to his mode of living. The farmer's meals are often coarse and heavy—they must necessarily be so because of the heavy nature of his work—and do not agree with the teacher's needs and tastes.

Under these circumstances it is little wonder that teachers cannot be prevailed upon to accept country school positions beyond where they can commute with the city; or if they can be encouraged to accept such a position, it is only as a temporary expedient—a step-

ping stone—to a position in the city. Such “tramp” teachers cannot put their heart and soul into their work. They cannot enter into the life of the community and encourage community projects and undertakings. They must first become a part of the community themselves, and the only way of doing this is by taking up their abode in the community. The solution to this problem is the teacher’s home.

Brief History and Present Status of the Teacher’s Home.—The first teacher’s home to be built by a school district was, perhaps, that of district No. 1 in Hall County, Nebraska, which was constructed in 1894 at a cost of \$1000. It is a frame structure 22 by 28 feet and has seven living rooms, two halls, a screened porch, and a cellar. Since that date the number of teachers’ homes has developed rapidly until now there are over 3,000 of them in the United States. The state of Texas, with 567, leads in the number of teachers’ homes. Texas, Oklohoma, California, Colorado, Mississippi, Washington, Idaho, North Dakota, Louisiana, and Montana have approximately three-fourths of all the teachers’ homes in the country.

The twenty-fifth report of the state of Washington for the biennium ending June, 1920, placed the number of teacherages at 221 and later estimates place it at over 330. The state superintendent states in this report: “The value of the teacher’s home in solving a serious community problem cannot be estimated. The proper and adequate housing of teachers is absolutely necessary in securing efficiency in our public school system, especially in our rural communities.”

It is interesting to see how the movement for teach-

crages was started in the State of Washington. The first one was built in Walla Walla County in 1905. A teacher, humiliated, discouraged, and grieved, came to the county superintendent of Walla Walla County in that year (1905), on the Saturday night before the school was to open. She said no one in the neighborhood where she was to teach wanted to board her. The district was one of the wealthiest in the county; there were many good comfortable homes with spare bedrooms. The family that usually had boarded the teacher had moved to town, so that their children might attend high school. No door was open to the teacher.

In a farm yard across the road from the schoolhouse was a portable cook house or wagon. It was used during the harvest to accommodate the threshing crew. The teacher requested the use of this cook house, and asked that it be placed in the school yard, where she would live in it. The roof was of canvas, the door and upper half of the walls were of screen, and the screen covered with canvas. The walls were covered with boards. The first rain proved very disastrous for the teacher, but she purchased some waterproof roofing, which solved the roof problem. Still the rain would persist in coming through the cracks in the sides. During the summer the district built on the school ground a comfortable and permanent cottage. It was ready for use by the new teacher and her mother in September, 1905. This teacher remained in the district for three years, which was a long time for a teacher in a rural school to remain.

The home in this district, which was at first consid-

ered a "fad," was such a success that public sentiment changed greatly in favor of it. The school districts in adjoining counties followed the good example, and the movement has grown until today, not more than two or three counties in the state of Washington are without at least one home for the teacher.

In Foreign Countries.—Many European countries are in advance of us in providing homes for teachers. Denmark, Germany, Norway, Sweden, and England have for many years built homes and furnished them free of charge to their teachers. In England the teacher's cottage has been standardized. In Denmark 82 percent. of the rural teachers are men, who live with their families at the school all the year round. They usually have a few acres of ground by means of which they supplement their income. Contrasting these conditions with our own, we see how meager our rural educational conditions are. These teachers are real members of the community and as such stimulate community interests. The school here becomes a real social center.

Advantages of Having a Teacher's Home.—First of all, it attracts better teachers to the country. Superintendent Preston says that those communities with teachers' homes have a choice of the best teachers the State of Washington affords. This is largely true because of the difficulty otherwise experienced in finding good boarding places, and other impossible conditions to which teachers must often submit themselves.

Second, the tenure of the teacher is lengthened. With a comfortable home and a fair salary the teacher is content to remain longer in the same place. In fact

there is no incentive to leave. This is very advantageous to the children and to the whole community. The teacher will not only inaugurate new policies but will remain to see them bear fruit. The outstanding example of this is Porter Community School, which was built through the efforts of Mrs. Harvey and the co-operation of the community which she commanded.

Third, it gives the teacher privacy and leisure for her work, and makes her an independent member of the community. Under the old system neither of these could be had satisfactorily. If teaching is to be raised to the dignity of a profession the teacher must have a place to read, study, and write, so as to develop her own powers and capacities; and she needs a place where she can lead an independent and dignified life. The teacher's home lends this respectability to the profession.

Fourth, it helps to make the school a social center. It provides a place where the teacher can entertain parents and friends without a feeling of obligation to anyone. The teacher will spend her full-time in the country rather than merely serving time five days a week. This will allow week-ends for social gatherings for both young and old. In this way real social contacts will be formed. Much of the success in teaching is dependent upon these social contacts. Rural communities often lack social comradeship because there is no leader in the community. The teacher is the logical leader, and if she is a permanent member of the community, her interests cannot help being identified with those of the community. This will give her a splendid opportunity to show what she is capable of doing

outside of the school room. Many opportunities will afford themselves to develop her talents while she is helping others. The teacher that might be but mediocre in a city, where she is but a cog in a wheel, may become a leader and promoter in a rural community where she has unlimited freedom for development.

Fifth, it provides for full-year service. This is especially valuable in consolidated districts where home projects are carried on. These projects must extend through the summer and it is very desirable that the teacher be employed all year round.

In connection with this advantage, it might be stated that it will attract and hold married men more; especially will this be the case in consolidated rural schools. An attractive home, with a few acres of ground to raise vegetables during the summer, will be a good attraction to a man with a family. This is especially true of districts that are unable to pay liberal salaries. The home and the garden plot will help greatly to augment small salaries and to keep a good teacher.

Sixth, it is in the nature of an example to the community. A sort of model home, much the same as we now have experimental and demonstration farms, and experimental stations in all parts of the United States. The home should be a model in construction and architecture for the community. It should be used by classes in home economics and for demonstration purposes.

Objections to the Teacher's Home.—Several objections have been raised against the teacher's home. The first and most valid of these is that a young

woman cannot live alone near an isolated schoolhouse. This is true. But, several remedies suggest themselves. The first of these is consolidation. This is really not a remedy but an alternative for the isolated school. The second is to have someone live with her, either a relative or some pupil in the district. There usually are some families who live some distance from the school and who would be glad to have their child stay near the school, at least part of the year. A third remedy is the portable house, pitched in a patron's yard. Some teachers own their own portable houses and move them along when they move.

A second objection to the teacher's home is that it will delay consolidation. The answer here is to get consolidation first; but unless that is clearly in sight, it would be unwise to wait and let bad conditions alone.

A third objection raised against the teacher's home is that teachers should not be required to clean, wash, scrub, etc., after working hard all day. This is more or less of a theoretical objection that is not borne out by teachers who have tried it. In fact, all of these objections are being met as more and more teachers' homes are being erected.

In many small towns and villages the problem of finding suitable boarding places for the teachers is very acute. The solution of this problem is a teacher's home that is large enough to accommodate all the teachers. In many places this is the principal's home, in others a separate home is erected and is known as the "Faculty Club."

Superintendent J. P. Vaughn of Chisholm, Minne-

sota, has summerized the advantages of this type of teacher's home as follows:

1. Assurance of a place to live at a **minimum** cost and **maximum** comfort.

2. A comfortable, cheerful home, with good wholesome food.

3. Independence, with no feeling of intrusion.

4. Congenial surroundings, good fellowship, a friendly bond of common interest uniting all into one big family in work and social life.

5. Privacy without loneliness.

6. A social center of unlimited possibilities.

7. Necessities and privileges provided economically without friction between landlady and roomers, e. g., hot water, laundering, pressing, sufficient heat and light, entertaining guests without intruding on the privacy of the home with proper places for entertaining.

Methods of Securing the Teacher's Home.—The following are some of the ways by which teachers' homes may be secured:

1. An active campaign by the county superintendent in which the needs and advantages of the teacher's home are explained. This method is most successful if the district has the available money to spend for this purpose.

2. When the district realizes the need for the teacher's home, but is not financially able to build one, a stock company may be formed which will erect the home and charge a reasonable rental fee which will pay the interest, and by creating a sinking fund, will

also pay the principal within a reasonable length of time. Thus, the building will become the property of the district within a short time at practically no cost.

3. Some good community organization such as the parent-teachers' association, may, by creating sufficient public sentiment in favor of a teacher's home, receive sufficient donations from public spirited citizens, which, together with other money received at programs, etc., may be sufficient to erect one.

4. When planning a bond issue for a new consolidated school the question of building a teacher's home should be included.

5. Often abandoned one-room schools can be remodelled into a teacher's home.

Plans, Location, and Equipment.—It has been stated that the teacher's home should be a model for the community. Therefore, it is difficult to set down definite plans that will suit every community. A good plan for one region might be a poor one for another. In general the architecture should set a definite standard for the local community and should be adapted strictly to local needs. The following general standard suggested by United States Bureau of Education apply to almost every teacher's home:¹

1. It should be beautiful, and as far as possible should harmonize with the general architectural treatment of the school building, if the latter is a modern type. An architect should be employed and the beautification of the useful be insisted on.

2. It should include a living room, a bathroom, a kitchen, a dining room, and a sleeping porch. The

¹ United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin 12.

number of bedrooms will probably not exceed two, and these should connect with the sleeping porch. The plan for the kitchen should receive a great deal of care, especially with reference to modern conveniences.

3. The sleeping porches should be models for the neighborhood. They should be carefully screened against flies and mosquitoes, and should open from small dressing rooms, capable of being used as bedrooms when necessary.

It may be added that the rooms should not be too small, otherwise that there will not be sufficient room for social gatherings of the community.

The teacher's home should not be so near the schoolhouse that it will interfere with the playgrounds. The latter would also interfere with the privacy of the teacher's home. It should generally be back of the schoolhouse and to one side. It should have a fair sized yard and garden. The small district should provide at least five acres of land for the school farm, including the teacher's garden, playgrounds, etc., while the consolidated school should have at least ten acres.

As a general rule the district should provide all the equipment, except the bed linen and towels. Teachers as a rule are careful about the district's property and leave it in as good a shape as they find it, excepting necessary wear and tear.

Fuel, light, water, and telephone service should generally be supplied by the district. All these items will, of course, be considered in arriving at the annual salary, and they will be a great incentive in securing,

and retaining for a longer period of time, the better and more desirable type of teacher.

Conclusion.—The teacher's home has already made a place for itself in rural education. The best consolidated schools consider it an indispensable part of the school plant. All proposed consolidations should seriously consider it in their plans. While it may be too optimistic to expect large numbers of one-room rural schools to establish teachers' homes, yet the experiences of those that have done so indicate that it is a desirable thing to do. The examples of those foreign countries which have successfully solved their rural education problems are worth considering. It is significant that the teacher's home plays a large part in their rural educational programs.

The small town and village school district offers a very fertile field for the development of this new movement in American education. In these communities the problem of providing desirable rooms and board for the teachers is often very acute, and failure to provide them often results in the loss of desirable teachers. The situation in the rural community has been discussed in this chapter.

It is in response to this very direct and urgent need that the teacher's home has come to be included in all progressive rural education programs. School boards, superintendents, parent-teachers' associations, and all those having the welfare of the rural school at heart are urged to consider seriously the proposition of providing a home for their teachers. Conclusions should be arrived at on the basis of the service that such a home will render to the community.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Prepare a debate on the following question: "Resolved that every rural school should provide a teacher's home."
2. What can be said in favor of the portable teacher's home?
3. Do you believe that the teacher's home will prevent the large teacher turnover in rural schools? Compare this turnover with that of city schools.
4. How would you go about getting the community interested in providing a teacher's home?
5. In what ways will the teacher's home contribute to the efficiency of the teacher?
6. How much would it cost to build and equip a modern home for teachers in your district? How would this affect the school tax, if the cost were extended over a period of ten years?
7. What are the advantages possessed by the consolidated district over the small district in providing a teacher's home?
8. Do you think that more married men would remain in rural schools if a home and a few acres of land were provided for them?
9. Why has Denmark so many men teachers in her rural schools, who are content to remain and become real members of the community?
10. How will the teacher's home affect the social life of the community?
11. The argument is sometimes advanced that if teachers in a consolidated school live in a teacher's home they will not "mix" with the people of the community. What is your reaction to this argument?
12. Some teachers object to living in a teacher's home because they feel that it is enough to be associated with their fellow teachers all day, and that it is desirable to be separated from each other in their home life. What can be said for and against this notion?
13. Is the teacher's home a real necessity in small rural communities or are there enough desirable homes where the teacher is welcome to room and board? Speak for your own community?

14. How can the teacher's home be made of practical use to the classes in domestic science and home-making?
15. Do you think that a model teacher's home will help to raise the standard of homes in the community? How?

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. Teachers' homes in foreign countries.
2. The development of the movement for teachers' homes in a particular state, as for instance, Washington or Texas.
3. The effect of the teacher's home in securing and retaining better teachers for rural schools.
4. The teacher's home in consolidated schools.
5. The teacher's home in villages.

References

Cubberley, E. P., *Rural Life and Education*.

Rapeer, L. W., and Others, *The Consolidated Rural School*.

Showalter, N. D., *A Hand Book for Rural School Officers*.

Bulletin, No. 16, The Teacher's Home, United States Bureau of Education, 1922.

See Reader's Guide, etc., for articles on this problem.

CHAPTER XIV

THE HOT LUNCH IN RURAL SCHOOLS

A recent and noteworthy trend in rural schools is the provision for hot lunches for those children who must eat their noonday lunch at school. The writer well remembers his own childhood days when he tripped along the country road to the little country school, carrying his strap of books and a little lunch pail. He also remembers what a time his mother had in preparing that lunch. She aimed to please, as mothers always do, but in so doing the lunch invariably became a jelly sandwich, cake, pie, a few apples, and a little jar of preserves. The apples and, perchance, the cake were eaten at recess, thus leaving the sandwiches, the pie and the preserves for dinner. Often he was not hungry for the sandwich, because there was no incentive to eat. His appetite for real food had been spoiled. Then, too, the children were all anxious to get out to play. The meager lunches were hurriedly eaten and out to play they ran. Such meals certainly did not suit the needs of a growing boy. Yet, today, there are hundreds and thousands of growing boys and girls who are passing through the same experiences that we passed through when we were school children. The fact that we survived and are strong and healthy today is not an argument for the cold lunch.

Under-nutrition of School Children.—Thousands of children in the United States are seriously underweight. It is considered that being 10 percent. or more underweight is a serious condition in childhood. Under-nourishment in the country seems to be more serious than in the cities. This in spite of the theoretical abundance of food in the country. Of 10,000 Iowa school children, 20 percent. of those living in the city and 30 percent. of those living in the country, were found seriously underweight. In one Iowa rural school the county nurse found twenty-three out of twenty-nine of the pupils more than 10 percent. underweight, and in another rural school all were found 10 percent. or more below standard. In New York one-third of the public school children were found below the normal standard of growth. The country children were no more physically fit than the city children.

Causes of Under-nutrition.—There are various causes of under-nutrition. Among these are: infections, diseased teeth and tonsils, enlarged adenoids, faulty home and school hygiene, etc.; but the most important one is wrong food. Sometimes there is too little but more often it is not the right kind for the growing body. Under-nourishment is not restricted to the poorer class, in fact in cities it has been found to be more common among the well-to-do.

Results of Under-nourishment.—The under-nourished child is subject to colds and other communicable diseases much more than the well-nourished child because his body does not have the resisting power and so cannot combat them successfully.

The under-nourished child is usually nervous and

irritable; he cannot apply himself to his studies and he cannot think clearly. This leads to poor class work, poor reports, and a general dislike for school and studies.

Food That Children Must Have.—First, there are those foods which provide material for building and repairing all the different parts of the body. These are the proteins, which form the basis of all the tissues, and the mineral matters, such as iron, lime, phosphorus, etc.

Second, there are those foods which furnish energy or fuel for the work of the body. These are the starchy foods, sugar, and fat.

Third, there are those foods that furnish materials to regulate the intricate chemical changes on which health and growth depends. These include some of the mineral matters and the vitamins. Lack of vitamins may lead to under-development, or to such diseases as rickets and scurvy.

The growing child should have plenty of milk to drink. It provides the tissue-building protein, lime and vitamins. One quart a day per child is about a right amount. Besides milk, the child should have good bread, butter, vegetables, and fruit. Perhaps, the worst diet that could be devised for a child is one consisting chiefly of bread and sweets.

Problems in Preparing Children's Lunches.—It is difficult to plan children's lunches in order to provide for the proper kind and amount of food and yet not have sameness. Many proper and valuable foods cannot be carried in a lunch basket. It is hard to put up a basket lunch so that it will remain fresh and ap-

petizing. It is difficult to carry milk or other liquid foods and keep them fresh and sweet.

These difficulties lead to the stereotyped dry sandwich lunch, which is so common in our rural schools today. It is because of this general situation that the movement to provide hot lunches in schools has come about.

Extent of the Movement.—The movement to provide hot lunches in schools began in Europe the latter part of the eighteenth century. The custom now prevails in Belgium, Denmark, Holland, Norway, Sweden, Spain, and the United States. In America the work began in Massachusetts and from there it spread to nearly every state in the Union.

Lottie Milam of the Montana State College collected data on the status of the hot lunch in rural schools, and the type of supervision used in directing the work. Table 19 presents the latest available data on the hot lunch situation in the United States.

How to Introduce the Hot Lunch into Rural Schools.—There are various ways of introducing the hot lunch into the rural schools, but the prerequisite to all of them is the creating of an interest for it in the parents. In creating this no stone should be left unturned. Parents will not be taken up with the hot lunch idea immediately. They will need to be shown and convinced that it is not merely a fad or a teacher's whim and that real good will come from it. Country folks are inclined to "let well enough alone" especially when it may mean a little more work and expense on their part. So it will be necessary to go about carefully creating an interest in the hot lunch, stressing

the need for it, and the value to be derived from it.

The teacher who is interested in the hot lunch herself can do much to interest parents by enlisting the co-operation of the children. Get the children to see how the plan can be worked and the advantages that can be derived from having a hot dish. Often a personal talk with the more influential men and women will do much to spread the gospel in the district. The teacher should make it a point to visit all the people

TABLE 19

State	Type of Supervision	Serve Hot Lunch	State	Type of Supervision	Serve Hot Lunch
Arkansas	C	Nebraska . . .	O	33 % under 1 director
California	O	10-15 %	Nevada	C	35 % under another
Colorado	O	New Jersey . .	O	Few towns
Delaware	—	1 Co. 33½ %	New Mexico . .	B	25 %
Florida	C	12 schools	New York . . .	A	High %
Georgia	C	2 %	Ohio	A
Illinois	A	575 schools	Oklahoma . . .	—	50 %
Indiana	C	25 %	Oregon	C
Iowa	C	33½ % Consol. 11 % 1-room R.	Penna.	AB
Kansas	A	Rhode I. . . .	D	2 %
Maryland	C	167 schools	S. Dakota . . .	—	20 %
Massachusetts	A. C	Tennessee . .	C	many
Michigan	C	Virginia . . .	A	2 counties
Mississippi	D	all consol.	Washington . .	C
Missouri	C	50 % 1 R.	W. Virginia . .	C
Montana		all consol. 50 % 1 R. R.	Wisconsin . . .	C	28 %
			Wyoming. . . .	O	10 %

Type of Supervision:

- A.—by separate specialists who direct the work.
- B.—by the department of Education alone, or in co-operation of Department of Public Health
- C.—By extension service in states having specialists who devote their entire time to this work.
- D.—By extension service in cooperation with the department of education or with the vocational Home Economics Club.

in the district and explain the hot lunch idea. If the community is organized into a parent-teachers' association, the task will be all the easier, for then the hot lunch can be made a topic for discussion at some of the meetings. The county superintendent, county agent, county nurse, or some other person may be

asked to speak to the gathering. It might even be possible to have a demonstration of how to put on a hot lunch at one of these community gatherings.

Another very effective way of showing the need for better nutrition for school children is to have the county nurse weigh and measure the children, and compare their weight and size with the standards. (See standard height and weight chart in Appendix.) Many children will be found to be under-weight and under-nourished. This will be a very effective argument for introducing the hot lunch.

Parents can often be convinced of the necessity for a hot lunch at school by calling to their minds the way the child actually lives. In winter he often gets up at the last minute and must hurriedly eat his breakfast, which often consists of remnants left by the adults of the family. This unappetizing breakfast results in the child's eating less than he should. Then, at noon the family has its main meal while the child has his cold lunch. This lunch is again hurriedly eaten, often under unsanitary conditions. It often does not contain the proper foods for a growing body. At night supper often consists of left-overs from dinner. The meal is planned for working adults, which is often not the proper food for growing children. The result of this cycle is that the child is under-nourished, although there may be plenty of food to eat. Children need proper food for growing bodies, appetizingly prepared, and served in a sanitary environment. This the school lunch can help to bring about. Grown-ups will not eat cold meals at noon if they can help it. Children enjoy them no more. Many farmers are very solicit-

ous about providing warm water and warm feed for their cattle and chickens, because they realize that they thrive much better on such fare—why not the children?

Other points that will serve to interest parents in the hot school lunch will be deferred to the paragraph on the advantages of the hot lunch.

How to Start the Hot Lunch.—The teacher who is planning to start a hot lunch in her school should plan definitely what equipment she will need and the type of lunches she will serve. Very little equipment will be needed to start in, and usually it is best to plan for only one hot dish to supplement the basket lunch brought from home. The simplest equipment includes, a large kettle suitable for use on the stove or heater, measuring cups, and spoons, paring knives, mixing spoon, dish pans and towels. A table and shelves may be made from dry goods boxes. Each pupil can bring his plate, cup, and spoon. More equipment may be added as it is found necessary. This equipment may be secured in various ways: it may be loaned by parents; or the board may appropriate money to buy it; or money may be raised through entertainments; or the children may be willing to tax themselves to raise the money; or a shower may be planned.

In similar manner the supplies may be obtained. A very common plan is to have the children bring supplies in turn. It will be necessary to keep a careful record of the supplies brought by each child so that all will share equally. It is well to keep a small supply of staples in the school cupboard such as, flour, sugar, soda, salt, rice, soap, cocoa, crackers, macaroni, canned foods, dried fruits, etc.

What to Serve.—In the rural school it is best to plan for but one hot dish, usually of a milk base, such as beverages, soups, etc. Vegetable soups are also recommended, because they take little time to prepare and they help to balance the meal since the basket lunch consists mostly of starchy foods and sweets.

The following four-week program is recommended as offering a variety of dishes so that monotony is avoided. Other dishes may, of course, be substituted, provided they have been previously tested.¹

Week	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
I.	cocoa	cream of bean soup	scotch broth	cream of celery soup	scalloped corn
II.	cream potato soup	scalloped rice and cheese	scalloped potato	vegetable soup	fish chowder
III.	cream corn soup	cream of chicken soup	cocoa	creamed spinach	corn meal or rice, or hominy with milk
IV.	creamed tomato soup	delmonico potatoes	creamed pea soup	salmon soup	corn chowder

Division of Work.—The teacher should so plan the work that it will soon be reduced to a routine procedure. After that she will need only to exercise general supervision over the pupils in charge of the lunch. A good plan is to divide the school into groups of two, each group to serve one week at a given task. For instance, the first week group A will plan and prepare the daily lunch; the second week, this group will set the desks, serve the lunch and wash the dishes; and

¹ *American City*, Vol. 27, pp. 43-47.

the third week it will keep records and attend to money transactions. Thus the group will rotate in succession and all will have a chance to learn every stage in the preparation and management of the school lunch.

Serving the Lunch.—In most rural schools it will be impracticable to have tables to eat from, so the desks must be used. The hot dish should be prepared a few minutes before the noon dismissal so that it will be ready immediately after dismissal. The group in charge of preparing the hot dish should have every thing ready so that no disturbance is caused during preparation. Immediately after dismissal the room is aired and the children wash their hands, while group two is setting the desks. The conduct of the children, while they are waiting to be served should be that found in a good home. Here is a splendid opportunity to teach good table manners. The teacher should be served first and all should begin eating at the same time. All ordinary rules of table etiquette should be observed. Here is one of the great values of the school lunch. Too often country children do not receive the proper training in table manners in the home. During the meal the children should be encouraged to carry on a cheerful conversation. The teacher will need to lead and direct this conversation at first, so that it will not become loud and boisterous.

Children should be encouraged to eat the various foods that are prepared from day to day. Often children do not like foods that they are not accustomed to having at home. They should be urged to learn to eat them, for one of the marks of good breeding is to

eat things prepared by your hostess. Then, we often learn to like certain foods after we have eaten them at various times; hence, it is wise to encourage children to eat a variety of foods.

Advantages of the Hot Lunch.—Wherever the hot lunch has been tried in school it has met with universal favor. Parents and children alike are pleased with it, and teachers have found it a great help in their school work. Children are more alert and receptive to teaching. They are less irritable and annoying. Mothers are not perplexed so much in the preparation of the basket lunch.

The school lunch offers a splendid opportunity to teach practical home economics and practical hygiene. In short, the opportunities it offers for training children are innumerable. Some of these advantages have been summarized as follows:²

1. Children improve in health and scholarship.
2. They learn to work with others, to make and carry out plans.
3. They learn something of food values and sanitation.
4. They take more interest in school.
5. They learn to eat more slowly and in a more orderly way.
6. They learn to practice table courtesies—so easily neglected.
7. They learn to express themselves freely in conversation, and the subjects of conversation are better.
8. They learn to eat a greater variety of foods.

² *The Hot Lunch at School*, Kansas State Agricultural College, Extension Division.

9. Attendance is improved.

10. Teachers get more co-operation from pupils and parents.

11. Teacher's own health improves; children are less trying.

12. Mothers find it easier to pack school lunch boxes. Pie and cake are not necessary.

The following letter explains how one teacher introduced the hot lunch into her school and the advantages she derived from it:³

"I have been serving the hot lunch to my children since January first, and feel that no little of my success has been due to getting hold of the children and parents through this line of work.

"We have no kitchen here, but we improvised one in one of my cloak rooms by putting in some shelves and covering with oil cloth and having curtains to cover them. One of my good patrons gave us a nice little table, which we use for dining upon, and though it is small, we enjoy sitting round it together.

"We bought two dishpans, one large cooking kettle, a paring pan and knife, a long-handled spoon, one dozen spoons, a half dozen cups and saucers and a few other little fixtures. The children brought what other things we needed and we began. Of course, we have no stove, but our heater has a large, flat, top and we use it for heating our water and doing our cooking.

"I usually assign the work to one of the eighth grade girls, who has as her helper one of the small boys. We find it takes little or none of our time as I place

³ Letters from Parents and Teachers. Hot Noon Lunch and Social Center Work, State Normal School, Cheney, Washington. Quoted by Andress, *Health Education and Rural Schools*, p. 285.

the plan on the board and all copy it into their note books and we sometimes discuss it with the whole school, using it as the topic for language. I find so far that it has afforded the following advantages to my school:

1. More useful, busy-work for the little ones.
2. Language work for the entire school.
3. Opportunity for teaching table manners.
4. Practical lessons for domestic science.
5. An orderly noon hour.
6. A better lunch pail from home.
7. More interest on the part of the patrons in our school.
8. "A more palatable dinner for all of us."

To show even more clearly what can be done in little rural schools, the concrete experience of Kathryn Mahan, one of the writer's students, is told in her own words:

How I Solved the Noon Lunch Problem in My Rural School.—"My first school was situated in a small community where farming was the chief occupation. There were twenty-two children—sixteen of whom were obliged to ride from two to four miles daily to and from school. Consequently, this necessitated a cold noon lunch. These children had to leave home at an early hour in the morning and at a very busy time for the farmer's wife. On account of this fact, their luncheon consisted of fried food left over from breakfast, or anything that was easy to find or prepare, but which was not healthful or nutritious. I saw the need of something warm at noon. From observation I noticed two or three children always suffered from in-

digestion or drowsiness after each mid-day meal. I resolved to note the content of their lunch boxes. This is what I saw: one frail, little girl had a large piece of mince pie; another pupil had a cold sausage, and still another had cold pancakes for his lunch. Then, I decided upon immediate action.

“I talked over my plan with my superintendent and we decided that we must start a warm lunch project at once. To do this, first we invited the parents to an ‘English Afternoon Program.’ After our exercises, my superintendent addressed the parents on this problem. As a result, all parents were in favor of something hot for the noon hour. We had figured the cost would be about two or three cents a day. The parents talked among themselves about a minute or two and decided to minimize the cost by sending in all the needed provisions daily in their turn, except the cocoa. It was my project and I wanted to ‘put it over,’ so I promised to supply all the cocoa needed. This was unwise, perhaps, but it was my first year of teaching and I did want this project to be successful. They also agreed to give me one dollar apiece to buy dishes, and to send in any crockery or glass dishes needed.

“Next, I took an inventory of supplies on hand. I found we had a very good tight-jacketed stove, a new bench, an old paper closet, which could be used easily for a dish closet, a new porcelain sink, and children eager to work and to please. I needed a table and some chairs, dish towels, holders, and dishes.

“The boys were only too eager to make a table at which eighteen could be seated. They started right away to do this. The chairs came to us in the rough

state. They had to be sandpapered and varnished, which the boys were glad to do.

“While the boys were doing their share, the girls cleaned out the old paper closet and obtained some heavy white paper from a nearby mill for the shelves. The ordinary shelf-paper was too fragile for school-room uses. They placed eighteen hooks in this closet, between the shelves, for the cups. They also made six dish towels, three dish cloths, and two holders.

“When the table was completed, they took measurements and bought oilcloth for it. With the money given me by parents, I bought the necessary dishes to start the project. That is, I bought a double boiler, a tea kettle, two quart milk cans, a dish pan, a dish drainer, a saucepan, a potato masher, an egg beater, and a ladle for serving cocoa. The superintendent was able to obtain cups, saucers, plates, knives, forks, and spoons at a nearby store, so that each child paid only thirty-five cents for his set.

“I had set the date for our first hot luncheon the Monday after Thanksgiving. The children were ready before that time so they asked me if they could not have a Thanksgiving Feast. I was delighted. We had a very enjoyable time with a table well loaded with nutritious food. I knew then that my project had not failed.

“Each child was assigned a place at the table. When the children came to school in the morning, they placed their lunch box on the chair at their place. The third grade pupils went out to play at 11 A. M. Before going it was their duty to clean the oilcloth, set the table, and fill the kettle.

“At twelve o’clock, the children filed up to the sink in a single row, washed their hands, dried them with paper toweling, placed this in the waste basket, and then stood behind their chair at the table. The last one filled the tea kettle and put it on the stove. The water would be hot for dishes at the close of the meal. Then, I went to the table and sat down. The children did likewise.

“We had to remain at the table twenty minutes. We had jolly, good times. Each tried to out-do his neighbor with a good story; poems were recited and jokes were told. At twenty minutes past twelve, I arose and then all the children were excused. The helpers, who were volunteers for a week, performed their duties, such as clearing the table, brushing up crumbs, washing and drying the dishes.

“A boy of a very wealthy family at first wanted to bolt down his food and leave the table. I had to be quite firm with him, but soon he enjoyed the meal as much as the others, and, best of all, his mother told me that his table manners had greatly improved.

“The results of this project were many but there were four important ones;—

1. Improvement in health.
2. Improvement in scholarship.
3. Training in manners and morals.
4. Increase of happiness.”

The Hot Lunch in Nebraska.—Nebraska is one of the states that makes provision for hot lunch clubs, organized on the same principle that corn, pig, etc., clubs are organized. Pupils between the ages of ten and eighteen years are eligible to active club member-

ship. Those below ten may be associate members. Active members assume all responsibility of the hot lunch, with the teacher acting as leader. The club is divided into groups so that all may get the opportunity to serve in the capacity of house-keeper, cook, and book-keeper.

Each month a set of problems is sent to each active club member and one to the teacher, by the State Extension Division. These problems are in the nature of recipes for foods that can easily be prepared for hot noon lunches; food values; the packing of the lunch box; table courtesies; dish washing and sanitation, etc. Six problems constitute the first year club work. The club charter is obtained from Washington, D. C. If all requirements are fulfilled each member receives a certificate of achievement, and when the club has completed its work an Achievement Seal is placed on the charter.

Duties of Club Members.—Each club member must complete at least six weeks of work; two as house-keeper; two as cook; and two as book-keeper. He must keep an accurate record of the time spent on each of these duties; he must assist the club in meeting the "Standard Club" requirements, and he must give a final report of the work at the completion of the work and tell of "My Experience as a Member of Our Hot Lunch Club."

Standard Club Requirements.⁴—The following are the requirements of a standard club:

1. At least five members working on the same project.

⁴ Extension Circular, 0-24-2, University of Nebraska.

2. A local leader in charge during the club year.
3. Club organization with officials in charge. Secretary keeps a record of these meetings, also the progress of each member.
4. Definite program of work for the year.
5. At least six regular meetings during the club year.
6. A demonstration team must give at least one public demonstration in the community.
7. A local exhibit held annually.
8. A judging contest held in the club year.
9. Annual Achievement day.
10. At least 60 percent. of the members must complete the project. (A charter is earned by completing 1, 2, 3, and 4. An achievement seal is earned by completing all.)

Second Year Club.—Provision is made for a second year club, and an additional seal for the charter and certificate for the members, is earned by completing five additional problems. The organization is the same as for the first year club.

Hot Lunch without Club.—In schools where it seems inadvisable to form a hot lunch club, the teacher may receive the regular helps from the Extension Division but no reports are required. The teacher does most of the work herself with the aid of the pupils. The regular problems and recipes are sent to the teacher who carries on the work as she sees fit.

Conclusion.—The hot lunch has come to stay. Wherever it has been tried it has demonstrated its value thoroughly. Many of its advantages have been enumerated. But, there still are many rural schools

that are not serving a hot dish at noon. It is not necessary that an elaborate equipment be purchased to start a hot lunch. Any rural school, no matter how poor, will, with the help of interested parents and an enthusiastic teacher, find it possible to provide at least one hot dish for the noon lunch.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. What are the beneficial effects of a hot noon lunch upon the physical and mental condition of the child?
2. "The teacher who has aspiration for her pupils, will welcome the serving of the noon lunch as an opportunity for constructive thinking by means of which children become genuinely socialized." Showalter. Explain how what this statement says is brought about by the hot lunch.
3. Enumerate some important habits that the hot noon lunch and its serving inculcate.
4. How would you go about interesting your community to make provision for a hot noon lunch at school?
5. What value does the hot noon lunch possess from the standpoint of training in cooking and home management?
6. Of what value is the "fireless" cooker in providing a hot lunch in rural schools?
7. Is the thermos bottle a desirable substitute for the hot dish at school? Explain.
8. Why is it desirable to have the work of preparing and serving the hot noon lunch so planned that it will soon become a routine matter? Plan a program showing how you would divide the work so that all would share it equally but, so that it would become a routine matter.
9. What part should the teacher play in the hot lunch after it is established in the school?
10. Why is it usually not desirable to try to serve more than one hot dish at the noon lunch?

11. How do you explain the inconsistency of farmers in providing warm feed for their stock but not for their children?
12. Why is it advantageous to place the hot noon lunch on the club basis?
13. The hot noon lunch has been objected to on the basis that the school was trying to teach cooking, which should be taught at home. Discuss the various aspects of this statement.
14. What is meant by a well-balanced ration?
15. What are the general causes of under-nourishment? What are its effects upon children?
16. The success of the hot noon lunch is chiefly dependent upon the keeping of accurate records and reports. Show clearly how this is true.

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. Look up the matter of minimum equipment for serving a hot lunch in rural schools. Determine the approximate cost of this equipment.
2. Prepare, or find prepared, a four week program of hot dishes, so that sameness will be avoided.
3. Report on various kinds of vitamins, and name the foods in which each is most abundantly found.
4. Find out how to construct a home-made fireless cooker.
5. Look up the calorie equivalents of the common elements of food, and from it make out a good diet for a child.

References

- Andress, J. M., *Health Education in Rural Schools*, Chapter XV.
- Brokaw, W. H., *Hot Lunch Demonstration*, Nebraska Extension Bulletin.
- Hale, F. M., *The Noon Hour and the Noon Luncheon*, Main Department of Education Bulletin, 1922.
- Hunt, C. L., and Longworthy, C. F., *School Lunches*, Farmers' Bulletin No. 712, United States Department of Agriculture.

Showalter, N. D., *Hand Book for Rural School Officers*, Chapter XIX.

Wilkinson, W. A., *Rural School Management*, pp. 105-111.

Warm Lunches for Rural Schools, University of Minnesota, Department of Agriculture Extension Division.

CHAPTER XV

PLAY AND PLAYGROUND EQUIPMENT

Importance of Play.—Much has been written about the importance of play in the physical and mental development of the individual. Perhaps, there is a direct relation between the importance of a subject and the amount written about it; but, be this as it may, play is one of the most effective agencies in bringing about a healthy well-developed body, and a keen, alert, and well-ordered mind. Play releases energy which cannot be reached under ordinary situations of life, by stimulating glandular secretions which would ordinarily lie dormant. Hence, play is one of the greatest dispellers of fatigue and creators of interest. Have we not all observed how unceasingly we can apply ourselves to tasks that are in the nature of play to us? Why did Tom Sawyer succeed in inducing the boys to white-wash his fence when the task in itself was such a bore to them all? Why does Edison spend sixteen hours of the day in his laboratory and workshop, and yet not suffer physical or mental ill effect? Why do teachers who are “thoroughly in love with their work” spend so much extra time in the preparation of their lessons—preparing special devices, collecting illustrative material, preparing dramatizations, planning field trips, etc.—when they might fulfill their contract by

leaving at four o'clock and forget about school until nine the next morning?

The answer to these questions is to be found in *play*. The differences between play and work (or drudgery) is one of attitude, a purely psychological phenomenon. Require a child to play a game against his will and it becomes work. On the other hand, say to a child "This is too difficult a piece of work for you," and he will perform the task, provided it is within his power to do it, with all the zest and enjoyment that ordinarily accompanies play.

Play develops self-confidence, self-restraint, respect for rules, honesty, loyalty, a sense of justice, and cooperation; it develops quickness and fineness of response, it overcomes awkwardness, and develops ability to correlate mental and bodily action; it develops strength and endurance and thus increases resistance to disease. In short, play is a great builder of habits—physical, mental, and moral.

Old and New Notion of Play.—The old notion was, and there are many people of middle age who still firmly believe in it, that the way to develop manly qualities in a boy is by work. In rural sections, especially, it was held that all that was needed to develop the body was exercise, and surely every farm boy and girl had plenty of that. It is true that the regular farm work develops certain large muscles of the body, in fact, it over-develops them, but it leaves numerous small muscles and muscular co-ordinations undeveloped. Ordinarily farm work does not call for fine muscular co-ordination but rather for gross muscular control; hence, the farm lad can not help but be

awkward and clumsy. He has never had the opportunity to develop the finer muscular and nervous connections and interconnections between them. True, it is only through exercise that these connections can be developed, but we must widen the meaning of the word exercise beyond the old limits of mere muscular work. It must be widened to include both mental and physical activity, with sufficient variation of each so that the individual will develop symmetrically, physically, mentally, and morally. Our Puritan forefathers tabooed play. "Children are to be seen, not heard," was more than a mere figure of speech to the children of Puritan days. To them life was a grim reality, and anything that encouraged physical activity and playfulness was frowned upon by their elders.

The early district school was an institution planned for the purpose of giving instruction in the three R's, and if we are to believe our poets, this was done largely, "to the tune of the hickory stick," rather than to an appeal to the inner nature of the child.

Today, we have not only changed the emphasis of our training from the three R's to the three H's—head, heart, and hands—but we have also (with plenty of exceptions, I fear, however) changed the method from external compulsion, to internal impulsion (play and allied native tendencies of childhood).

Early Conditions Did Not Require So Much Play.—We must not be too severe with rural school patrons, if they fail to see the value and the necessity of play. They see the world through their own past experiences. And what has their school and play life been? In general we may say that the average middle-aged

rural inhabitant attended school during the late fall, winter, and early spring months only, making a total of about four months in the year. During this brief period the days were short and the weather often inclement, thus allowing little time for play.

The necessity for play and its importance was not felt so keenly then as now. It took the war to show us that we were neglecting our bodies. About one-third of the men between twenty-one and thirty-one were physically unfit for military service, and at least half of these could have been fit if they had received proper physical training during their youth.

Then again, the early farm life, because of the lack of modern facilities, gave a great variety of experiences to the boy on the farm. There was more opportunity for hunting and fishing and trapping, and exploring and conquering for the boy then, while now he is confronted by barriers on all sides, the greatest of which, perhaps—to him at least—is that of being compelled to attend school for eight or ten months in the year. So with this experience to look back upon and with his inherent nature to revere the traditional, it is little wonder that the rural patron is slow to see the importance of play for his children.

Rural School Playground Facilities.—With this early attitude toward play, and with this traditional outlook toward it, it is little wonder that meager or no playground facilities exist in many rural schools. The site seems often to have been chosen with the avowed purpose of restricting the play area. This was not true of the rural school the author attended, but judging from the sites of the two rural schools in which he

taught—one located so near a marsh, that a large area of the playground was usually too wet to use; the other although located in a fine, prosperous, farming section, was too small to meet the requirements of the most common group games—and hundreds of others he has seen throughout the Middle West, and East, and South, seem to bear witness to such a purpose. (Of course, the foremost reason, perhaps, is just a lack of understanding of the value and necessity of play, and another reason is penuriousness.)

Besides, the two types of inadequate playgrounds mentioned above, one finds the following: (a) The school is built on the side of a hill, thus, while providing shelter against winter winds, it robs the children of playground space. A level playground is needed for practically all games. (b) The buildings on the grounds are poorly arranged. Often the total school ground area is large enough, but because of poor planning, the buildings are so arranged that no one part of the ground is large enough for the ordinary ball games. (c) Obstruction, such as trees, shrubs, stones, etc., often spoil the grounds for organized play. This type of undesirable playground can be corrected with a little community effort.

The question naturally arises as to the best size and arrangement of the playground. The modern tendency is to have playgrounds that are large enough to meet the requirements of the various kinds of ball games and athletic events. Already some states have provided for an annual district field meet where all the schools in the district meet for "Field Day" events. Prizes are awarded to the winning schools.

The purpose of these events is to stimulate an interest in physical exercise. In order to have enough room to provide for these athletic events each school should have a playground of about four acres. The consolidated school should have a ten-acre plot of land. Part of this will be used for demonstration work in agriculture and the rest for playgrounds.

These acres will, of course, seem excessive to many conservative country people, who themselves were accustomed to playing ball in the road or in a neighbor's field.

While it is next to impossible even to approximate this playground ideal in most city schools, because of the value of city property, the value of a few acres of country ground should not operate against the rural child's right to play. The city is compensating for its lack of playground area by providing expert supervision of playgrounds so that all there is, will be used most economically, and also by providing various other kinds of recreational advantages, such as a community center, boys' and girls' clubs, swimming pools, public parks, etc.

No matter what the size of the playground may be, the layout should be carefully planned so that all types of games and players may be accommodated. In the small rural school this means that a certain part of the playground should be planned for baseball games, another part for the games of the little ones, and another for the various pieces of play equipment which every playground should have.

In the larger consolidated schools it will be necessary to multiply the areas set aside for certain games,

so that all children will have an opportunity to play at the same time. The diagram of a field of approximately five acres, as shown in Figure 24, is submitted by the Bureau of Education for the general direction and help of those who have a play space of similar type. This is a purely diagrammatic layout. In many instances the location of the school building will necessitate a division of the play field. Each individual school ground will, of course, offer its own problem. The football and soccer fields can readily be converted into straightaway tracks for dashes, etc. The space on the diagram marked out for dodge-ball might easily be used for folk dances and general games. Let us now consider a second physical aspect of play in rural schools, namely, playground equipment and apparatus.

Playground Equipment and Apparatus.—Rural school playgrounds everywhere are conspicuous, first, for their limited playground area, and second, for the absence of playground equipment and apparatus. Of the hundreds of rural school grounds that I have seen and visited—and this includes a large number of consolidated schools—the factor of providing adequate facilities for play has been sadly neglected. Occasionally, however, the unusual spectacle of a large well-planned and well-equipped playground meets one's eye, and fills one's heart with joy to know that here is a community that prizes its children sufficiently to provide for them the opportunity for a healthy normal development through play. These are veritable oases in the desert of rural school playgrounds.

There are several factors to be considered in choosing playground equipment and apparatus for rural

FIVE-ACRE FIELD.

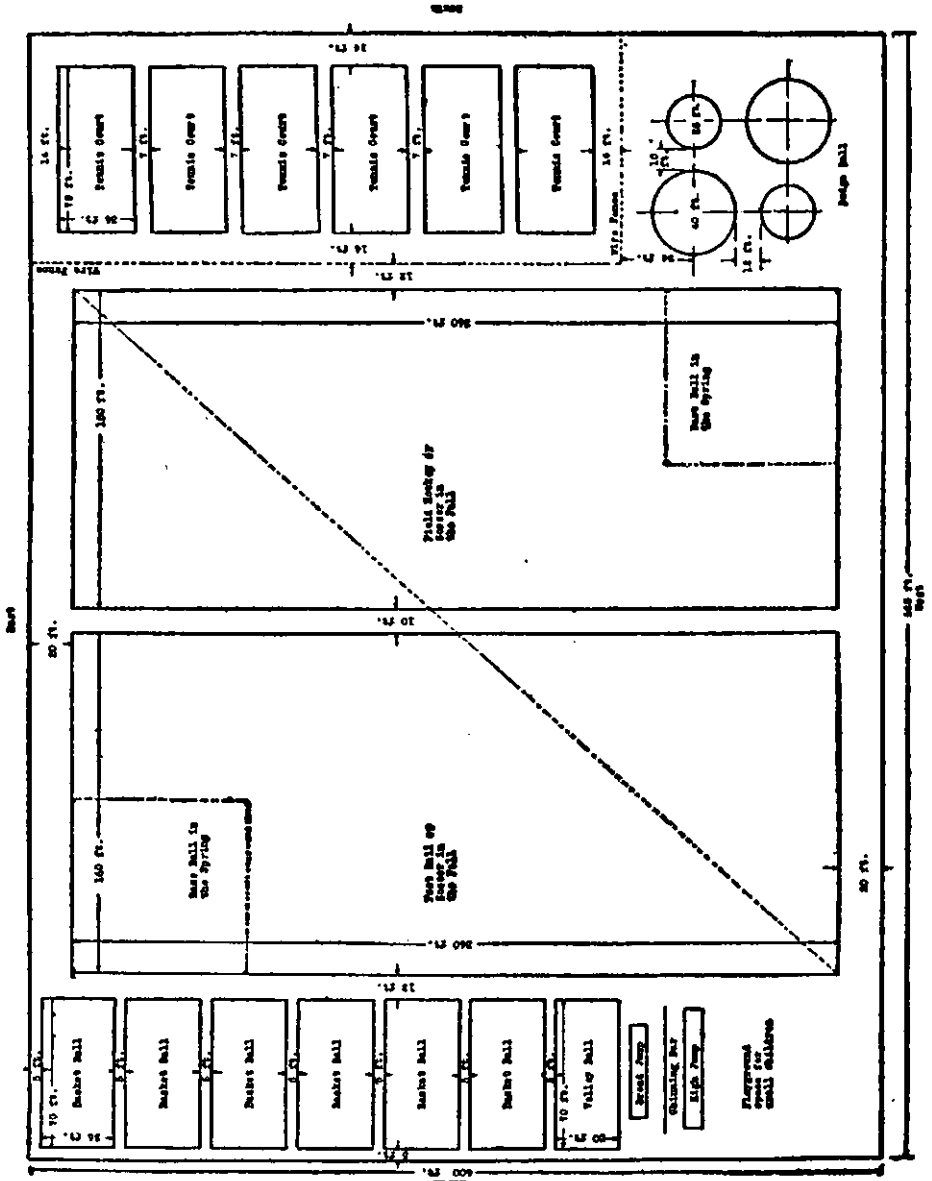


FIGURE 24

(Courtesy U. S. Bureau of Education)

schools. The most important of these factors are: the enrollment of the school, the wide diversity of ages attending rural schools, and the cost of equipment. Let us briefly consider these factors in order.

The average enrollment of our one-room schools is probably in the neighborhood of fourteen pupils. It is obvious that with so small an enrollment certain kinds of apparatus would not be so suitable, in proportion to the number of pupils that could use it, as others. Take for example outdoor basketball equipment. In a small rural school there would not be enough pupils of similar ages to make the game of lasting interest. The thing to do then, in these schools, is to provide apparatus that will appeal to the various stages of child development, where there are enough in the group to use it successfully.

The question of the diversity of ages in the rural school enters into the selection of apparatus and equipment for the playground in two ways. First, such apparatus should be selected as can be used and enjoyed by all ages and stages of development. Second, provide some apparatus that appeals to specific ages and stages of development. As an illustration of apparatus that appeals to all ages might be mentioned the swing, the giant stride, and volley-ball equipment; of that which appeals to specific ages might be mentioned the slide, and see-saw for primary children, and the outdoor gymnasium for the upper grades.

The third factor, that of cost, is a real one to be reckoned with in most rural schools. Playground equipment and apparatus are expensive when purchased ready-made. Most school boards are conserva-

tive and purchase all-too-little school equipment—books, maps, globes, desks, construction work, etc.—to say nothing of purchasing “play things.” But, we have now arrived at the stage where we know that physical education is of as much importance as intellectual training. School boards should vote a certain sum of money annually for the specific purpose of buying playground equipment. Some progressive communities have already taxed themselves for this purpose. In others, the wide-awake teacher has stirred up the community interest and has secured home-made apparatus. In still others the teacher has raised money by means of entertainments, socials, sales, etc., and has purchased playground equipment with it. In one small community in which the author has taught, a woman’s organization became interested in the playground problem and took it upon itself to provide several hundred dollars worth of playground apparatus and equipment for the school.

In general, the problem of providing playground equipment should not be placed upon the teacher or upon community organizations, but it should be a part of the regular yearly budget voted at the school meeting. If the need for play is clearly shown so that all will understand that “exercise” does not take the place of “play,” then rural patrons will be willing to tax themselves and not before. The teacher’s problem is one of enlightening the community regarding the value and need of play, rather than of earning the money for apparatus herself.

Kinds of Apparatus and Equipment for Rural Schools.—There are a number of firms that devote

themselves to making playground apparatus, and it will be well for the teacher to send for catalogues, so that she may know what can be had and for which ages the apparatus is most suited. Factory-made apparatus is expensive, but it is much more durable and it is safer than home-made apparatus. Besides, it presents a much better appearance because it is a finished factory product. But all these advantages, if the cost is too heavy for the rural school, are of little avail, and the alternative of home-made apparatus should by all means be chosen. If good wood is selected and care is exercised in the construction and finish of the apparatus, most of the advantages of factory-made apparatus may be derived. In schools where manual training is being taught most of the important pieces of apparatus can be made by the older pupils. This will reduce the expense to the bare minimum of cost of materials. If manual training is not being taught in the school, the school board should employ a carpenter to do the work.

Every one-room school should possess at least the following playground apparatus and equipment: (1) swings, (2) see-saws, (3) a sand pile, (4) one slide, (5) turning or horizontal bar, (6) volley ball equipment, (7) playground baseball equipment, (8) six bean bags, (9) books explaining different group games. (See references at end of chapter.)

All of the apparatus mentioned in this list can be home-made. The materials, of course, must be bought, and money for this purpose should be appropriated at the annual meeting. The teacher should present an itemized list of the equipment, together with the cost

of each item, to the school board (after of course, having "sold" the idea to at least one of the members) so that there will be a definite amount of money to be raised. If some of the influential members of the community can be urged to support the cause at the school meeting, the more likely is it to meet with favorable decision. If the community is unwilling to tax itself for this purpose, then the teacher should avail herself of the other methods outlined above, and should purchase as much of the list as her funds will permit, and add to it as more funds are raised.

In the graded and consolidated schools more apparatus and equipment should be added to the list outlined for one-room schools. The giant stride is very popular with all ages of children. The outdoor gymnasium, which contains swings, flying rings, trapeze, horizontal bar, ladders, etc., is a very desirable and all-around piece of playground apparatus which appeals to all ages of children. Tether-ball and tennis are games that older children enjoy, and provision should be made for playing them. Baseballs, bats, and gloves, should also be provided in the larger schools. The day when the string ball and the bat were brought from home is gone, just as is the day when one farmer borrowed his neighbor's mowing machine. We are now in the age of co-operative undertaking—or, at least we are entering that age, although the American farmer has much to learn in this respect from the Danish farmers (all of whom work for a common good), rather than being parasites one on another. So in providing play equipment, we must all help for

the good of the children, rather than having some children be parasites on others.

Care of Apparatus and Equipment.—It is hardly necessary in a book of this nature to speak of the care and protection of playground apparatus and equipment. The life of apparatus, especially if it is made of wood, is greatly lengthened, and the appearance is much improved, if given an occasional coat of paint or varnish. Loose screws and bolts should be tightened, and any broken parts should be repaired immediately. Children should be taught not to abuse playground apparatus and equipment. The balls, bats, nets, etc., should never be left outside overnight, nor is it a good thing to use them when they are wet. An appropriate case or box should be provided for equipment, and children should be taught the habit of placing things away in an orderly manner.

What Constitutes a Good Game.—Thus far, our discussion has been directed largely to the physical aspects of play. Let us now consider play in its social aspect, namely, games. Those who are at all familiar with rural schools know how small the rural child's repertoire of games is. The inevitable result of this lack of variety of games is that children tire of the few they know, and hence "don't know what to do." They spend their play time just "fooling" or playing pranks on one another, or in teasing and bullying smaller children. Too often the rural teacher herself is at a loss to suggest new and interesting games.

What are the criteria for judging whether or not a game is good for rural communities? Mr. E. G. Linde-

man, in a report on "Recreation and Rural Health" made to the second national country life conference, suggests seven such criteria. First, the game must be safe to health. Games which can be played with safety in the city where gymnasium and bathing facilities are available might be positively dangerous in the country. A strenuous game of basket-ball or foot-ball on a cold fall day without being followed by a shower bath might be dangerous to health. Our best country consolidated schools today provide gymnasium and bath facilities, so that this danger is eliminated. Second, a good game for the country is one in which small numbers, as well as large numbers, can participate. Teachers in small rural schools are continually faced by the problem of providing games suitable for a small number of pupils. Furthermore, if these children are to learn group games at all, so that they will be able and willing to participate in such games later at adult community meetings, picnics, festivals, etc., they must be taught the games at school. Then, again country children have the same right to play and enjoy group games that city children have. Third, a good game in the country is one that can be played by both young and old. This is particularly true in rural schools where there is a great diversity of ages. In order to play group games at all, it is necessary to choose such games as all can play and enjoy. Baseball as a rule is not adapted to both old and young children. The older ones find that it is too easy to put the little ones "out" at bat, and that the little ones cannot catch nor throw the ball well. Playground baseball, however, is more adapted to both old and

young pupils. This game is also particularly well adapted to be played at mixed community gatherings. Fourth, a good game for country communities is one that can be played by both sexes. Again, because of the small enrollment of rural schools, it is necessary that both sexes, as well as various ages of children, be drawn into the group game. In other community gatherings such games should be played as can be enjoyed by both boys and girls and men and women. The girls and women need development that comes through play fully as much as the boys and men do. Fifth, a good game for the country is one that requires little equipment. This is an important criterion, for the obvious reason that the country cannot build and maintain an elaborate gymnasium and provide elaborate equipment for the playground. Besides this reason there is another that is worth considering, namely, the psychological value of non-equipment games. With the diminished use of equipment and increased use of the body, the mind is brought into action proportionally, thus developing both muscular and nervous control. This should not be construed as an argument against playground apparatus and equipment, however, for these are necessary to bring variety into play and to give the young children who have not reached the age of social play an opportunity to play "with something." Then, of course, many of the highly organized group games are dependent upon a certain amount of equipment, e. g., baseball, tennis, tether-ball, etc. Sixth, a good game for the open country emphasizes the instinct of co-operation. Rural people are too individualistic in their ordinary busi-

ness and social life. They have not learned to work together and to co-operate in their enterprises. In short, they do not possess the "team spirit." Here and there farmers are beginning to co-operate in business ways, but the lack of co-operative enterprise generally shows that as a class they lack the "team spirit"; they do not trust one another enough to "pool" their interests. This co-operative spirit must be developed in our schools, and group games is one of the best means of bringing this about. Children who learn to "pull together" on the playground will get the habit of "pulling" together later in their community relationships. Just as the battle of Waterloo is said to have been won on the foot-ball fields of Eton, so the problem of co-operation among farmers must be solved on the playgrounds of our American rural schools.

Games for Rural Schools.—It is not the purpose of this chapter to go into a complete description of how to play various games and how to organize and supervise playground activities. This has already been done so well by various specialists in this field that it would be futile for me to attempt it here. Suffice it to say, that every rural teacher should possess one or more of the standard textbooks on plays and games so that she may introduce a variety of games.

Various writers have listed certain games that are most suited to and enjoyed by certain ages of childhood. Thus, the games most popular with primary children are:¹ Cat and Mouse, Jack and Rachel, Slap Jack, Whip Tag, Hide and Seek, Puss in the Corner,

¹ Curtis, *Play and Recreation*, Chapter VI.

The Miller, Farmer in the Dell, Bean Bag, London Bridge, The Needle's Eye, One Old Cat. Games that are popular with children a little older, and which require no apparatus are: Blind Man's Buff, Drop the Handkerchief, Duck on the Rock, Three Deep, Last Couple Out, Bull in the Ring, Fox and Geese (in winter), Pom Pom Pull Away, Prisoner's Base, Captain Ball, Dodge Ball, Catch Ball, Battle Ball. Some of the most popular games for the older children are: Volley-Ball, Tether-Ball, Tennis, Playground Baseball, Long Ball, Basket-Ball, Croquet, Field Hockey, and the various field and track events.

Every rural teacher should familiarize herself with these games so that she may teach and direct children in their use, or, better still, play with the children.

Thirty Selected Games.—The following list of games are recommended by the committee on recreation and rural health, of the Second National Country Life Conference² as being particularly adapted to rural community gatherings. Wide experience in rural recreation has found them almost universally successful. They all meet from three to six of the criteria for a good game in the open country outlined before: namely, (1) safe to health, (2) adaptable to small as well as large numbers (ten is regarded as the minimum number of players), (3) adaptable to young as well as old; (4) adaptable to both sexes; (5) requiring minimum equipment; (6) requiring co-operative activity.

The numerals following the name of each game indicate the requirements met by the game. The refer-

² Teachers' Leaflet No. 7, April, 1920, Bureau of Education Bulletin.

ences for directions refer to the pages in Bancroft's *Games for the Playground, Home, School, and Gymnasium.*"

Name of Game	Requirements met	Reference
1. Head and Tail Tag (black and white) ..	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	p. 52
2. Straddle Ball		
(a) Line formation	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	p. 407
(b) Circle formation	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	p. 358
3. Three Deep	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	p. 196
4. Squirrel in Trees	1, 3, 4, 5	p. 185
5. Numbers Change	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	p. 139
6. Dodge Ball	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	p. 363
7. Circle Dodge Ball (Progressive)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	p. 364
8. Circle Relay (Spoke Relay)	1, 3, 4, 5, 6	p. 70
9. Circle Relay (with zig-zag or leap frog variations)	1, 3, 4, 5, 6	
10. Japanese Crab Race (man, monkey, crab variations)	1, 3, 5, 6	p. 115
11. Pinco-O	1, 3, 5	p. 146
12. Overhead Relay	1, 3, 4, 5, 6	p. 424
13. Over and Under Relay	1, 3, 5, 6	p. 392
14. Shuttle Relay	1, 3, 4, 5, 6	p. 173
15. Zig Zag Relay	1, 3, 4, 5, 6	
16. All Up Relay	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	p. 46
17. Volley Ball	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	p. 413
18. Hill Dill	1, 3, 4, 5	p. 105
19. "I Say Stoop" (O'Grady Says)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	p. 113
20. "Looby Loo" (folk dance)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	p. 280
21. Farmer in the Dell (folk dance)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5	p. 265
22. Partner Tag	1, 3, 4, 5	
23. Triple Tag	1, 3, 4, 5	
24. Oyster Cracker Relay (indoors)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
25. Water Glass Relay (indoors)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
26. Apple Basket Relay	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
27. Potato Relay	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
28. Potato Paring Contest (teams)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
29. Corn Stringing Contest (teams)	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	
30. Skip the Rope Relay	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Why is it just as important for rural children to play as it is for urban children?
2. What is the real purpose of play? Look up several theories of play, e. g., Hall, Groos, Schiller-Spencer, etc.

3. It is said that young men from the farms were much slower in responding to play activities in the army training camps than those from the cities. How do you account for this?
4. How does play quicken the physical and mental alertness of children? What other characteristics does it develop?
5. How much importance should a rural school place upon playground apparatus and equipment? What do you consider to be an adequate playground equipment for a small rural school? for a consolidated school?
6. How many of the pieces could be home-made? What would be the approximate cost of these home-made pieces? Find out the cost, if factory-made.
7. Make out a list of talking points or arguments to present to the school board or to the parent's club, on the importance and value of play, which will lead to the point of asking for an appropriation to purchase playground apparatus and equipment.
8. What are the values of organized games? What kinds of organized games does the small rural school demand? Name several such games.
9. Is the annual Field Day a good thing? What takes place on these Field Days? Are there any disadvantages connected with it?
10. What are the advantages of supervised play? Should the rural school teacher play with her children?
11. Do you think that competitive athletics between schools is a good thing?
12. Since the draft disclosures most states have placed compulsory physical training laws on their statute books. How effective is this law in your state?
13. Show how properly regulated play and field events will give all classes of children proper physical training.
14. What is meant by "setting up exercises"? When should these be given, and how should they be given to be most valuable?
15. The teacher is the natural play leader of the community. As such, what should be her preparation and knowledge regarding plays and games?
16. Do grown-ups like to play? What type of games? Are they

- interested in organized games such as appeal to boys and girls?
17. What is meant by the statement that play releases energy which cannot be reached under the ordinary situations of life? What effect does this have upon the physiological processes of the body?
 18. Why has play found such an important place in our modern educational scheme? Just what is this place?
 19. Explain why "exercise" and "play" are not synonymous terms.
 20. What are the advantages of using the school as the social center of the community?

Topics for Special Investigation and Report

1. How to conduct a community festival.
2. How to plan and carry out a Field Meet.
3. Plans for an ideal one-room rural school ground.
4. Plans for a consolidated school.
5. Games to be played at an evening gathering of young people.
6. Indoor games for cold and rainy days.

References

- Andress, J. M., *Health Education in Rural Schools*, Chapter XI.
- Averill, L. A., *Psychology for Normal Schools*, Chapters XI-XII.
- Bancroft, Jessie, *Games for the Playground, Home, School, and Gymnasium*.
- Betts, G. H., and Hall, O. E., *Better Rural Schools*, Chapter XXVII.
- Curtis, H S., *Play and Recreation*.
- Lee, J., *Play in Education*.
- Norsworthy, N., and Whitley, M. T., *Psychology of Childhood*, Chapter XII.
- Wilkinson, W. A., *Rural School Management*, Chapter VII.

CHAPTER XVI

THE RURAL COMMUNITY CENTER

Definition, Aim, and Scope of the Community Center.—What is a rural community center? The community center may be defined as the unit of democracy, or that smallest working division in which democracy manifests itself, just as the cell is the unit of the body, and the atom or electron the unit of matter. The names social center, community association, neighborhood club, etc., are often used in place of community center. Community association, and neighborhood club are, perhaps, more nearly true names of the organization than community center, since the latter connotes the meeting place—the center—rather than the community organization itself. Originally, the schoolhouse, the church, or some other building designated for the purpose of holding community meetings, was called the center, and gradually the name was broadened to include the people of a given community coming to the center for educational, political, and recreational purposes. Hence, we have the name community center, or social center, meaning the people of a community organized for the good of the community rather than being restricted to the place of meeting.

The chief aim of the community center movement “is to deepen the content and broaden the scope of the term ‘education’ and to extend the activities of the

public schools so that they may evolve into people's universities."

Instead of considering that one's education is finished when one stops regular school work, the community center is founded on the idea that education is an ever-continuing process, and that it is much wider than what is ordinarily included in the school curriculum, and within the covers of books. Education, as has been stated elsewhere in this book, is a process of growth; growth, not merely along intellectual lines, but also along vocational, social, recreational, and civic lines. When we consider that only 10 percent. of our adult population has had a high school education, and that only 50 percent. has completed the grammar grades, it becomes apparent that some means is necessary to continue this process of growth which has been prematurely arrested. It is in answer to this need that the community center has arisen. The scope of the community center has been indicated in the discussion of its aims in the preceding paragraph. Anything that is vital and tends to solidify the life of a community is food for the community center meetings. The term educational, vocational, recreational, and civic are broad names for the activities that come within its scope. There is no place for narrow partisan and sectarian division in the community center program, for these are forces which divide rather than unite communities.

Community Center Idea Essential to Democracy.—Democracy, or the rule of the people, requires that people meet to discuss problems of government and community welfare, and choose officers from among

their number to carry out their will. The best illustration of this democracy is the New England town meeting. Here the inhabitants of a town (township) meet at the town hall to discuss problems of local government and to elect their officers. When a community becomes too complex for all its members to meet at a common meeting house, such as our states and the United States have grown to be, the people in local communities elect one or more of their number to represent them at the state or national meeting. We call this representative democracy as distinguished from "pure" democracy of the New England town meeting type.

Our democratic form of government is not made up of one democracy but of a large number of democracies, of which the two extremes are the National government at Washington, and the local community government. Between these two extremes are many means, such as, the county and state in the national scheme, and the precinct, ward, etc., in the municipal scheme.

The only opportunity for the average citizen to participate directly in the discussion of community and national problems is in the pure type of democracy, which is represented by the immediate local unit. Unfortunately, the tendency has been away from these "little democracies," so that the only expression now left to him is in the indirect method of the ballot. Incidentally, may we not look here, perhaps, for the reason for so many "stay-at-home" voters, as well as for much of the corruptness in politics? There is nothing to stimulate the average citizen to take an active in-

terest in community, state, and national problems.

The community center aims to re-establish something of the old-time democracy in American communities, such as our forefathers established in New England, and which existed at different periods in various countries.

Early Self-Governing Communities.—The ancient democracies of Greece were local self-government organizations. These democracies were in cities that were not much larger than our villages of today. The people met in the market place to discuss problems of state and to elect officers for the year. Public questions were discussed from time to time in the agora or forum, and matters of public welfare were here debated. A little later in history we have the Teutonic “mark,” the Russian “mir” and the Swiss cantonal assembly. The functioning of the latter is vividly described in the drama *William Tell*.

It is significant that these self-governing communities have played a part in so many parts of the world. It seems to indicate that human welfare is dependent upon them to a considerable degree. They are avenues for the great mass of people to express themselves. They are the safety valves of democracy. With this device taken away, or poorly developed, public opinion cannot express itself; suspicion and corruption will creep in; individualism will be overdeveloped; and the ultimate results must be narrowness, selfishness, and class rule. The community center gives promise of restoring somewhat the feeling of democracy in American communities, both urban and rural.

The Meeting Place.—The question naturally arises as to the best meeting place for the community center. Local conditions and facilities must determine this question, for what would be a good place in one community might be inadvisable in another. Some communities find the church a splendid community meeting place, but in general our rural communities have not yet reached the point where religious preferences can be subordinated to community interests, and so the church fails in being a truly democratic meeting place. The grange hall is found in some communities to answer the purpose well. In others the town hall does it, and in still others a separate community building is erected. Many communities do not possess suitable halls or churches, and find it too expensive to erect separate community houses, but all communities do have schools. The school is usually the best community meeting place.

The School the Community Center.—There is a general tendency throughout the country to make of the school “a house of the people.” With approximately a billion and a half dollars invested in school equipment it seems criminal to restrict its use to a few hours a day, five days a week for only a few months in the year. It is poor economics and imbecilic business sense.

The public school, by its very nature of being “public”—built, equipped, maintained, and run from public funds, and open to all regardless of nationality, creed, or political affiliation—is the one place where all can meet on equal footing and feel equal to every one else. This, then, is the natural community “center” and

should be considered the "capital" of the community center democracy.

The consolidated rural school is an ideal community center. Communities should, when planning the consolidated school building, keep in mind this wider community use of the school plant, so that adequate provision may be made to fill community needs.

The One-Room School as A Community Center.—It is too much to expect that every one-room school should be a community center, for these are seldom large enough to provide "sufficient volume for business." The plan of several school districts combining to form a community center is a good one. The school that is best adapted to the needs of community center work is chosen for the meetings, or, a scheme of rotation to include all schools in the combination is good.

Where school districts are planning new buildings it is well that they make plans for community center meetings. The desks should be movable, so that they can be replaced by chairs for adults. Provision for elementary cooking, and handwork should be made; there should be a library or reading-room; a place for putting on home talent plays and entertainments; a playroom in the basement, etc. The model schools described in Chapter X make provision for rural community center work.

Activities of the Community Center.—The Community center, or social center, has, I fear, in the past been associated almost entirely with the social life and entertainment of the community. To organize a community center meant, practically, to provide for the

“play” life of the community. This is altogether too restricted a view of the function of a community center. The old community centers, the post office, the corner store, the blacksmith shop, the saloon, etc., were not primarily places where one went for entertainment, but to air one’s views, to discuss the problems of the day, to get the gossip of the community. True, the element of entertainment was present also, in the form of singing, telling stories, “cracking” jokes, sociable drinking and smoking, etc., but, nevertheless, the purpose of talking things over, to learn something new, was a dominant note of the community center. It should be a community forum, a place where the citizens of the community meet for the courteous and orderly discussion of all things that pertain to the community’s welfare. The qualities of open-mindedness, co-operation, tolerance, careful weighing of evidence on both sides, mutual understanding, ability to differ in opinion without differing in feeling, restraint from hasty action, ability to get up and express one’s conviction clearly and forcefully, etc., are fostered and developed in the community forum. The lack of many of these qualities in many rural communities is shown by the numerous prejudices and feuds that are harbored there. The annual district school meeting in many rural districts today, often ends in factional disputes and bitter feeling, thus bearing witness to the lack of the quality of “mental hospitality” among people.

The community center offers an opportunity for furnishing the education of its members. Classes in various subjects that attract sufficient numbers should be

organized. Classes in agriculture, domestic economy, music, handicrafts, literature, mathematics, etc., taken at different times, will attract various members of the community. Lecture courses should be arranged on topics of general interest and value. Debates should be held on problems of current interest; these problems may be either of local or national interest. This is one of the best means of enlightening a community on general problems and it affords practice in analysis and in logical presentation of facts and arguments. The element of rivalry that enters into debates adds materially to the interest and moral support that is given them by the audience. Something of the spirit of the old spelling match is to be found in the debate.

The community center should take an interest in the schools of the community. Often there already exists a parent-teachers' association which has the welfare of the schools at heart. In such places the community center should not aim to supersede the parent-teachers' association—as, indeed, it should never supersede any other clubs or organizations that already exist in the community—but rather to supplement and co-operate with them. The parent-teachers' association is usually made up of a few of the parents who are really interested in the present school situation because they have children in school now, while the community center is made up of all members of the community whose interest in and support of the school is essential.

It should not be inferred from what has been said so far that the social activities of the community center are to be accorded a minor place beside the other activities mentioned. It is highly important that a

community provide legitimate means for the recreation of all its members. The pool hall, the dance, "auto-parties," "movies," etc., will continue as chief sources of "recreation" until we substitute something more attractive, or at least as attractive as these. These recreational devices in themselves are not bad. They become bad only when they degrade rather than uplift young people. Properly conducted pool halls, dance halls, auto-parties, movies, etc., are splendid means of recreation and are to be commended. The community center can do much to provide them in proper form.

Nor is the community center merely to provide for the recreation of youth. It must also provide recreation for children and adults. For the former this means providing playrooms and play-equipment. A gymnasium is the best possible solution here. For the latter it means reading-rooms, music, provision for playing the ordinary social games that adults enjoy in the home.

Local conditions will determine other activities that the community center may engage in, such as, co-operative buying and marketing, community banking, etc.

It will have occurred to the reader that an organization such as we contemplate for the community center cannot run without definite organization and leadership. It has been said that nothing runs itself unless it is running down hill, and so it is with the community center. It requires organization and leadership. Let us now consider this phase of the community center.

Organization of the Community Center.—The com-

munity center should be organized much along the same lines that any business enterprise is organized, namely, a controlling head or leader, various department heads, and as many committees as are deemed necessary. A simple constitution should be adopted. A great deal of publicity is necessary in a community where community spirit is low or non-existent, and those attempting to create a community center will need to guard against becoming discouraged, for it often takes a long time to get an organization started. It takes more than just setting up the form to create community spirit. Often a small interested group will get the thing started, and once it is started a capable leader can keep it running.

This leader or community secretary should be the ablest person to be found in the community. In addition to his intellectual power and large store of general information he should possess the following virtues:¹ patience, unselfishness, a sense of humor, a balanced judgment, the ability to differ in opinion without differing in feeling, respect for the personality of people, and faith in the good intentions of the average man.

The principal of the school will, perhaps, be the best community secretary for he already is in close contact with the people of the community. Of course, where the principal lives in the community only a fraction of the year it is necessary to secure a secretary who is a permanent resident of the community. In this case it should be a man or woman who is heartily in accord with the principal and teachers.

¹ Jackson, U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 11.

This is an argument for the all-year-round teacher in rural communities.

In the small rural school the teacher will be the logical person for community secretary, but here again absence during the summer months makes it imperative that some permanent resident be placed in the responsible position.

The various departments of the community center organization, such as the educational, the social, the recreational, and the civic, should each have a director, who in turn appoints the committees that he deems necessary to carry on the work of his department. There is too much to be done and looked after to be entirely left in the hands of one person, the secretary. If the various functions of the community center are to be adequately provided for, it will be necessary to have departmental organization, such as we have in our business enterprises.

Financial Support.—How is the community center to be financed? The general answer to this question is, out of the public funds. The community has already taxed itself for the school and its equipment; all that is now needed is a little additional taxation for heat, light, etc., and for the salary of the secretary. No community should expect this leader to donate his services. Ordinarily, however, a few hundred dollars will be considered sufficient compensation, for the secretary will not be required to devote full time to the office. A little extra compensation will often keep the principal or the rural teacher in the community on an all-year basis. If the community center can do this it will be rendering an inestimable service to its members.

In case the necessary funds cannot be raised by taxation, as is often the case in rural communities, it will be necessary to rely on other means. In general membership dues are to be avoided. This is to be a "community center," and this implies membership to all. There will be many who will be excluded if membership dues are exacted. Popular subscription is a legitimate means of raising funds, as is also admission to entertainment, "sales" of various kinds, and the like. It is best to go slowly at first and to do those things that cost the least. (For an outline of a suggestive constitution, see Appendix.)

Examples of Community Center Work.—The state of Washington is one of the outstanding states in rural community center work. The plan here is to group school districts around natural neighborhood centers, or natural town centers with the surrounding rural districts, or consolidated districts, into a community center. The purpose of these community centers as outlined by Superintendent Preston are: "to utilize the intelligence that exists in every community; to bring that intelligence to a focus in the common gatherings in the school house; and to direct the attention of the men and women in the community to their needs, and the needs of the school, and by this interchange of ideas to discover the means of meeting these needs. It is this stimulating and directing through thought in communities that social progress will be initiated."²

The state is divided into 608 natural neighborhoods or community centers, as follows:

1. 140 independent centers,

² Twenty-sixth Biennial Report, State of Washington, pp. 46; 47, 54-55.

2. 171 rural district group centers with no town included.

3. 275 centers including a town and adjacent districts.

4. 22 districts, so isolated that they cannot be included within any community center, are given special attention by means of bulletins and suggestive material on community and school work.

As a suggestion to superintendents and rural teachers, who may feel at a loss as to how to make a start in rural community center work, the following report of one of the Washington rural community center leaders is offered:

Report of Community Center Activities at Synarep, Washington.—When given the assignment as community center leader for districts 5, 58 and 75 the writer was at a loss as to how to get the three districts, with far different views and in some respects different ideas and interests together but at a conference of all three teachers, held while on the way to institute, it was decided to start the ball rolling with an athletic meet at Synarep as that was the centrally located school and easy of access for the other two districts. It was found to be very desirable to have a community dinner at the same time as it would be very unjust to ask people to come long distances without providing something for the inner man. After meeting in the forenoon and spending some time in athletic contests, including running and jumping for the different ages in the schools and also providing separate lists for boys and girls we adjourned to the school house where a sumptuous dinner with hot cof-

fee was waiting. After dinner was over we came to order and discussed plans for further meets. The house by a vigorous vote called for a meeting on the first Friday of each month and the directors of No. 5 voted to give us the use of the Synarep school property for a meeting place on this day of the month. It was also voted that the teachers be instructed to prepare a literary program for the next meeting. The next meeting was at Synarep as was also the community Christmas tree. At this meeting there were over one hundred eighty-six people in attendance. At the other meetings no attempt was made to keep track of the number in attendance but the crowd was about all that the building would hold. We held two meetings at the school house in district No. 75 and one at the school house in district No. 58. Some of these meetings were literary and some of them athletic contests accordingly as the weather was fit.

There was also a call for meetings to take care of several matters outside of the affairs of the school and two meetings were held on Saturdays to reorganize a telephone company and get telephone service for the valley. This was satisfactorily accomplished and then two more meetings were called to reorganize the good roads club.

The stockmen of the valley were not organized and had no say on the forest grazing lands, so two meetings were called to get this matter in shape. Representatives of the forest office were called in and a very satisfactory adjustment of the matter was reached.

The taxpayers league also called for two meetings

and some lively discussions were indulged in. These furnished a great amount of enlightenment to some and were well worth while.

Whenever any one was sent outside as a representative to any public meeting, a meeting was called on their return to listen to a report of what was done and to discuss the policies which the delegates had to report on. These were of more educational value to the community than any number of literary meetings as they are universally called.

To sum up briefly the writer would suggest that at every community meeting there be provided a good dinner as this is not only a big drawing card but it provides a common center of attack on which no two will disagree; also the meetings will not be a success unless matters of importance outside of the school are taken into consideration.

The teachers of the two districts outside of Synarep were always ready to co-operate and to this we can attribute our success.

(Signed) G. W. OWENS,

Teacher Dist. No. 5, Okanogan County, Synarep, Wash.

The Consolidated School as a Community Center.—The consolidated school is the ideal rural community center. The buildings and the grounds of most of these schools have been prepared with this wider community use in mind, and many of them have created their community center in their own creation. The value of the consolidated school as a community center is well shown by Professor C. G. Sargent, of the Colorado State Agricultural College, one of the out-

standing authorities on consolidation, in a recent pamphlet on the consolidated schools of Weld County, Colorado.³ He says:

Community Activities.—These schools are fast coming to be real community schools. Most of them have sites of ample size, carefully planned for use, and well equipped with all the most common appliances for play activities. They have basket-ball courts, baseball diamonds, football fields, and many have good gymnasiums. Play activities and the literary, musical, and social activities of the larger and stronger schools are well organized. Some publish school papers, and most of them have lyceum courses. All of these things make frequent opportunities to invite the parents and patrons to attend these school and community functions. This community life was anticipated and is amply provided for. The fine school and community auditoriums, in nearly all the schools, afford a common meeting place for both young and old.

These schools have begun to react favorably upon the homes in the communities. Habits of industry encouraged by the school, ability to read, understand and appreciate good books, the study of current events and practical civics, lead to the reading of books, daily papers, and good magazines in many homes. Musical talent developed at school enriches life in the farm home. All these and other things like them afford opportunities for the profitable use of leisure time, time that in former years was largely wasted.

The agricultural classes train the boys in the latest, best, and most approved methods of farming. The

³ Rural School Leaflet, No. 13.

supervised projects carried out on the home farm have already borne fruit in better seed selection, better rotation of crops, better marketing, and in a still more noticeable way, in the raising of pure-bred live stock.

The country girls learn valuable lessons in personal hygiene, sanitation, first aid, and home nursing; in care, repair, and making of their own clothing; in the canning, preserving, and storing of food products, house decoration, house management, labor-saving devices, and a variety of other things that they may put in actual practice as they participate more and more in the regular household duties, in co-operation with their mothers. In response to the influence coming from the vocational classes, many homes have been improved. People have been made happier and better in these consolidated districts, and the social life of the communities has been greatly enriched.

All these things, while somewhat intangible, still have a cash value. The ranch property in these districts has increased in value as a direct result of the good schools and the helpful influences that emanate from them more than the new school plants cost. The good schools have proved to be a paying proposition. In these 25 communities in Weld County the people are to be congratulated upon the degree of success they have attained in reorganizing their schools. They have accomplished it by the harmonious co-operative effort of a large majority of the people in each community.

Conclusion.—The community center or neighborhood club is an established institution in many cities. The most common, and of course, the most natural meet-

ing place is the school. Here the people of the community meet at regular intervals to further their social, educational, and political life.

Many rural communities have realized the importance of cultivating this community spirit and have made provision for its expression. This chapter tells how this can be done, and it gives examples of the excellent manner in which it is being done in some progressive rural communities.

The consolidated school is the natural rural community center. In many consolidated districts the community itself must be created. In planning the new consolidated school building, community center activities should be anticipated, and the building should be planned to meet these various activities. Rural communities cannot afford to neglect this important phase of their social life. Isolation and individualism have too long characterized the American farmer. Lack of social intercourse and contact with others has developed in him a sort of "inferiority complex," which operates against him in his social and business relations. The way to overcome this feeling of inferiority is to mix with others. This is the only way to develop self-confidence. The community center provides an opportunity for a normal self-expression. It not only gives an opportunity for widening the scope of vision, but it also gives the individual an opportunity to discover his latent powers and capacities.

Every rural community should feel responsible for the complete development of all its members. The school takes care of this through the period of child-

hood, and from there the community center should continue the work. "Each for all and all for each" is a very significant motto for the community center.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Outline what you believe to be the functions of the rural community center.
2. State how you would go about creating a community center in an unorganized rural community.
3. Is the community center idea essential to happy living in the country? in the city?
4. Is there anything that the community center organization can do that could not be done by some other organization, such as the parent-teachers' association? Explain.
5. Why is the rural school district usually too small to form a community center? What is the solution to this problem?
6. Why is it necessary that regular business organization and routine be followed if the community center is to be successful? What is this organization?
7. What are the qualifications of a good community secretary?
8. Who is the logical person in the community for this office? Why should he be paid for his services?
9. Explain how the consolidated district often created the community center when it was created itself?
10. What advantages has the consolidated school over the isolated one- and two-teacher schools in forming the community center?
11. Is the village the logical community center for the nearby rural sections?
12. How many of the legitimate functions of a community center can the rural community center perform?
13. Should evening and extension courses be offered in village and consolidated schools? How can they be financed if they are offered?
14. Do you think the community center will have any effect in staying the away-from-the-farm movement?
15. Should the rural community center consider the problems of

co-operative marketing and buying or do such problems lie outside the realm of such an organization?

16. Is the school the proper place to discuss political matters?
17. What is meant by the statement that the school should be the community center "capital"?
18. What are the values to be derived from public gatherings such as the New England town meeting?
19. How does the community center help to develop a better citizenship?
20. Describe a good community center building. How should school buildings be planned with this wider use in mind?

Special Topics for Investigation and Report

1. The origin and development of the community center.
2. The community center in the city.
3. The consolidated school as a community center.
4. Model community centers.
5. Model program for community center gatherings.
6. Plays and games suitable for community center gatherings.

References

- Blair, F. G., *Programs and Suggestions for Rural Schools and Community Meetings*, Circular 111 Department of Education, Illinois.
- Carney, Mabel, *Country Life and the Country School*, Chapter XIV.
- Cubberley, E. P., *Rural Life and Education*, pp. 251-255, Chapter XIV.
- Hanifan, L. J., *The Community Center*.
- Hayes, A. W., *Rural Community Organization*, University of Chicago Press, 1922.
- Hines, L. N., *The School as the Center of Community Life*, Department of Education, State of Indiana.
- Jackson, H. E., *A Community Center*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 11, 1918.
- Nason, W. C., *Rural Community Buildings in the United States*,

Farmer's Bulletin No. 825, 1919, U. S. Department of Agriculture.
Wilkinson, W. A., *Rural School Management*, Chapter XV.

Plans of Rural Community Buildings, Farmer's Bulletin No. 1173,
1921.

The Rural School as a Community Center, Tenth Yearbook, Part
II, of the National Society for the Study of Education, Univer-
sity of Chicago Press, 1911.

CHAPTER XVII

BOYS' AND GIRLS' CLUBS

Meaning and Purposes of Boys' and Girls' Clubs.—The boys' and girls' club movement is rapidly becoming a definite part of our rural education program. In its narrower sense boys' and girls' club work means the home project method applied to the teaching of agriculture and home economics, but in its wider and more significant sense, it means the training of a future citizenship by means of the resources afforded by the farm, the home, and the community.

Club work aims to bring about a closer relationship between the work of the school and the work of the home, by bringing the latest and best practices in agriculture and home economics into the communities through the boys and girls. These approved practices, when actually demonstrated in the home, will be heartily accepted both by pupils and parents, while when merely learned at school, they are often rejected as theory, or mere book knowledge. Club work aims to teach co-operation and to demonstrate the value thereof. Boys and girls must learn to co-operate—to work together—in order to complete a group project successfully. This training will be of great importance in their future life. The value of co-operation and of co-operative enterprise to the farmer cannot be

too strongly emphasized. The farmer, instead of being the most independent business man as he loves to consider himself, is today the most dependent because of his inability or unwillingness to co-operate and to form co-operative enterprises with his fellow farmers.

Club work also aims to stimulate a healthy community spirit. When the boys and girls of a community are organized into a group or club, it is easier to promote social and recreational activities. The regular meetings of the club bring the young people together frequently, making it possible to have literary, musical, or social programs.

Club work is a very important factor in staying the "away-from-the-farm" movement. By creating a wholesome interest in agriculture and by showing them how the tediousness of farm life can be overcome, boys and girls will choose to stay on the farm. It is not the aim of club work to make farmers and farmers' wives, but rather to open up the possibilities of living on the farm to the growing boy and girl. Unless we can develop a genuine interest in farm life, we cannot hope to stay the exodus from the farm. Educating the head alone will not do it. It is extremely important that the heart be educated also.

The national motto for club members is not without significance. It is called the four H brand of achievement. The emblem is a four-leaved clover with an H in each leaf representing the head, the heart, the hand, and health—all significant factors in an educated person.

Early Beginnings of Club Work.—Club work originated in the South. Seaman A. Knapp was the first

man to advocate the teaching of agriculture and home economics by means of demonstrations by the children. The early work was loosely organized and bore little relation to the work of the school. In the North the work was taken up by two county superintendents in Iowa, Oscar H. Benson, and Jessie Field. This early club work consisted in enlisting boys and girls to grow an acre of corn by the latest approved methods.

The work soon spread throughout the country, and national direction of it was assumed through the United States Department of Agriculture. From these early, loosely organized beginnings of corn clubs, has sprung up a great national movement, embracing a score or more different types of clubs, enrolling approximately a half million rural boys and girls, and including about three-fourths of the counties of the nation.

Boys' and girls' clubs are recognized under the Smith-Lever Law as "Junior Extension Work." This makes it an integral part of the Agricultural and Home Economics Extension movement.

Club Work and the School.—Should club work be a part of the regular school curriculum or should it be conducted on a voluntary basis? Arguments exist for both sides of the question. Those in favor of having it a part of the school curriculum say that it is essentially an educational problem and should therefore belong to the school. In many places it has become a compulsory part of the school curriculum. Those who believe in making it a voluntary organization maintain that more interest is created and better work is se-

cured when the work is organized on the community basis, and is not compulsory. This is the form that club work has taken in most states, and seems to be the most effective form. Where the work is a part of the school curriculum, it is organized on the home project method and is under the direction of the teacher.

Principles of Organization.—Experience in club work has demonstrated that several fundamental principles must be adhered to if uniform success is to be attained in the work. These principles may be briefly stated as follows:

1. The community or neighborhood is the best unit of organization for a club. The school is frequently the common center for club meetings.

2. There should be a local club leader throughout the year. This leader may be the teacher but if he does not remain in the community the entire year, arrangements should be made for a leader to take charge during the summer months.

3. There should be an advisory board for each club made up of from three to five adults of the community who will help along the interests of the club. The chief function of the advisory board is to bring about a close connection between the club and the community. The board is especially valuable in making arrangements for exhibits, fairs, picnics, demonstrations, etc. Each board member should visit club members regularly for purposes of inspection and encouragement. The advisory board makes a good recruiting ground for future club leaders.

4. Separate clubs for boys and girls should be formed, and, if possible, those of about equal ages should be grouped together. Frequent joint meetings of clubs should be held.

5. Not less than five members should constitute a club, and all members of a club should work on the same project.

6. At least six regular club meetings should be held during the year at which the regular club officers are in charge. Regular business procedure should be followed at all meetings.

7. No club should consider its work completed until each member has carried his project through to completion and has written his story and made his report. This should be exacted even in cases where the project failed. At least 60 percent. of the club members must complete the project and file a report with the state club leader or national leader to obtain an achievement seal.

8. All club work should be judged on the basis of quality, quantity, income, story and report.

9. There should be a demonstration team, and at least one public demonstration should be given in the community.

10. A local exhibit should be held annually. This is one of the best means for keeping up interest. Competition can be stimulated within the club and between clubs by awarding prizes. The best types of prizes to offer are ribbons, pennants, emblems, cups, etc. Cash prizes should not be offered.

11. Clubs should affiliate with some county organization responsible for club work.

County Organization.—The county is the logical unit for the administration of club work, because, it is already the unit for political purposes in practically all states. The county superintendent of schools is the logical county leader of clubs. It is he more than any one else in the county who is largely responsible for the educational welfare of the young people of the county. With the help of the county agent, home demonstration agent, farmers' federation, and other community organizations, he should determine the problems of his county, and direct the efforts of club members to their solution. If dairying is the particular occupation of a county, the outstanding problems there should be those related to the development of good dairy herds, their care, and management, and the marketing of dairy products. In such a county, club work would probably consist of calf clubs, feeding and caring for one cow, raising a pure-bred bull, etc. The club program for the whole year should be worked out and the activities for each month should be outlined. There should be a club supervisor in various subdivisions of the county. The township is a good subdivision to use for this purpose. With this organization and with each local club having its leader and advisory board, successful completion of club projects is reasonably assured.

How to Organize a Club.—Before attempting to organize a club it is extremely important that community sentiment in favor of it be established. The teacher who sent a note home to the parents asking if their children might join a hot lunch club received a unanimous "No." Many people have erroneous ideas

about club work. They believe that the object is to see who can raise the most potatoes per acre, or who can raise the best calf or pig, etc. In order to dispel these notions, and to create a favorable sentiment for club work, it is necessary to conduct an educational campaign, by means of community gatherings, newspapers, schools, etc., previous to the period of organization.

Club work should be presented to the children and parents at a special meeting called for that purpose. A good plan is to have the county superintendent or some other person who is acquainted with club work explain its motives and values. The importance of the work and its past achievements should be stressed.

The third step is to get the club started, that is, enroll members, elect officers, and adopt a constitution. It is usually best to wait a day or so, after the first meeting before enrolling members, so as to guard against wholesale enrollment. It is better to allow a period of deliberation before enrollment so that the full importance and significance of the step may be realized. This will insure greater success of the club, for only those likely to stay and complete the project will enroll. Coaxing and undue pressure for enrollment should be avoided.

In the election of officers regular business procedure should be strictly followed. The leader should be ready with instructions and suggestions, but he should insist upon the proper form of procedure from the start. The first meeting often determines what the success of the work will be.

A committee may be appointed to draw up a con-

stitution. This should be as simple in form as possible.

The fourth step is to select a project. In selecting it care should be taken that it fits some community need, and also the age of the members. The project must be such that it can be brought to a successful conclusion. It would be ridiculous to attempt a tobacco project in regions where tobacco cannot mature. It is also necessary to select a project for which definite directions and instructions have been worked out.

Definite arrangements for a meeting place should be made. The schoolhouse should be the logical community center, and so will perhaps be the best meeting place for clubs. Other places, such as the grange hall, the church, or club members' homes, may, of course, be chosen.

Committees should be appointed to take care of club activities, and programs should be worked out on the basis of a year. This in general is the form of organization of club work. The details must be worked out by the local community and the local club leader. Let us now turn to some of the advantages of club work.

Advantages to Be Derived from Club Work.—The following are some of the advantages to be derived from properly conducted club work:

1. Boys and girls receive practical first-hand knowledge of agriculture, animal husbandry, and home economics, which could not be obtained and retained in any other way. They learn by doing, undoubtedly the best way to learn.

2. Club work creates a vital interest in agriculture and home-making. The training is not narrow, voca-

tional training, but it is a training for life. No matter what occupation the boy or girl may choose, club work will at least have opened the possibilities of agriculture and home economics. It is a sort of pre-vocational training so essential before and during the high school age.

3. Club work teaches the value of co-operation so essential to business success. The American farmer does not seem to realize the value of co-operative organization. The boy and girl in the club must learn the lesson of co-operation if he or she is to succeed in the club. The success of the club depends upon each individual member's success. Sometimes there is co-operative buying and selling in the club. In this way members learn broader business ideals and they learn to co-operate in community enterprises.

4. Club members learn the fundamental lessons of co-operative citizenship. At the regular club meetings the will of the majority rules, yet each individual has an opportunity to express his views. The fundamentals of business organization are also learned at these meetings.

5. Club work gives practical training in the fundamental economic processes of food production conservation, and marketing. The boy who takes pig raising as his project must learn all about proper feeding of pigs so that he may realize a profit on his undertaking. He learns about the proper marketing of pigs so as to realize the greatest profit.

6. Club work teaches thrift. Many a boy and girl has opened a savings account as a result of club work.

Table 20 shows one year's earnings of boys' and girls' clubs in Oregon. Boys and girls begin to realize the value of a dollar when they earn it themselves. They are much more loathe to part with it easily under these circumstances, than when they have it handed to them by a parent.

TABLE 20

Following is a summary of Club Projects:

	Clubs Organ- ized	Club Enroll- ment	Number Com- pleting	Value of Products	Total Costs	Total Value Above Costs
Corn	15	125	54	3453.00	967.00	2486.00
Potatoes	13	139	70	5425.00	1181.00	2444.00
Garden	69	730	397	9855.00	3020.00	6835.00
Pig	35	350	197	12966.00	6253.00	6713.00
Pig (sow and litter) ..	11	49	26	6132.00	2719.00	3414.00
Dairy Calf	14	123	89	19384.00	12268.00	7116.00
Cow and Calf	1	14	13	9871.00	5400.00	4471.00
Beef Calf	4	41	25	11315.00	6919.00	4396.00
Sheep	13	85	40	1588.00	931.00	657.00
Poultry	78	657	289	10746.00	5128.00	5618.00
Canning	35	214	181	4804.00	2155.00	2649.00
Cooking	72	722	457	4718.00	2463.00	2555.00
Sewing	202	1532	882	6255.00	4030.00	2225.00
Home-making	20	103	90	1228.00	774.00	454.00
Milch Goat	1	9	9	413.00	220.00	193.00
Rabbit	25	202	93	3425.00	1206.00	2219.00
Dairy Herd	2	17	17
Total	610	5115	2929	111584.00	55641.00	55942.00

7. Club work makes use of many instincts. This is advantageous because when learning is effected through instinctive tendencies it is much more effective and lasting. The instinct to excel, the competitive instinct, the instinct to co-operate, desire to follow a leader, etc., are utilized in club work and are given proper means of expression. It is through these instincts that club work stimulates both physical and

mental activity. Club members are eager to do and to learn.

8. Club work creates an interest in theoretical knowledge. In order to produce the best potatoes or corn, or to can fruit the best, it is necessary to know all the factors involved in the process, and this leads to a spontaneous interest in the subject. Study then becomes a pleasure—a thirst after knowledge—rather than a bore. Practical problems in mathematics, chemistry, physics, reading, etc., are solved because they are needed in the project, and not because they are assigned by the teachers.

9. Club work brings the school, home, community, and the state into closer relationship with one another. The lesson learned in the club will be carried over into later life. The spirit of the club will become the spirit of the community and also of the state.

10. Finally, club work provides recreation for the community. Many a community has been rejuvenated through the boys' and girls' clubs. The life of the community is centered in the young people of the community. If their social life is empty, the community will be lifeless, but if their social life is properly organized and provided for, the whole community will be alive and active.

Noteworthy Examples of Boys' and Girls' Clubs.—In Oregon club work is carried on under the joint direction of the State Department of Education, the Oregon Agricultural College, and the Federal Government. As an example of the work in this state, that of Clackamas County, as reported by the State

Superintendent of Public Instruction¹ is here presented:

“Clackamas is one of the outstanding counties of the state this year as the county won first honors at the state fair and held one of the best county exhibits ever held in the state. There were 477 enrolled in the work and 451 began work, with 329 filing final reports.

“Canning and stock judging contests were held at local fairs, where the teams were selected to compete in the county contest at the state fair.

“The canning team won the state championship at the state fair.

“The stock judging team made a creditable showing at the state fair, the Western Royal Livestock show at Spokane, and the Pacific International Livestock exposition.

“A corn club member from this county won first place in the state corn show, at Portland, in the class for western Oregon non-irrigated.

“A Guernsey calf club was organized, each member with a registered heifer calf, four of the members having pure-bred calves imported from the island of Guernsey. The banks of Oregon City loaned money to any of these club members wishing to borrow in order that they might purchase calves.

“A club program was given at the Gladstone Chautauqua each day during the ten days' session. This program consisted largely of demonstrations by different clubs of the county.

¹ Twenty-fourth Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, p. 28.

“The demonstration work in the poultry project, under the local club leader, was one of the most valuable features of the year’s work. This club of boys selected, graded, and packed cases of eggs which were shipped to the New York market and received the highest prices. They also packed settings of selected eggs for breeding and shipped these across the United States, and over 90 percent. of the eggs hatched. This club will be back in the work next year.

“Clackamas County has forty standard clubs where over 70 percent. of the members have filed all reports and many of these were 100 percent. clubs. The work of the county has been under the direction of the county club leader, who has organized, directed, followed up and closed up the work.

“The children of the county, besides making a profit of \$5,462.40 for the year’s work, fully understand the club work and are loyal to the wishes of their club leader. This was shown at the state fair in the canning contest, when one of the girls of the team said: ‘We must win this contest because the club leader has worked so hard for us, and she will be disappointed if we lose.’ ”

In the state of Indiana club work was conducted under the direction of the Extension service of Purdue University in co-operation with the State Department of Public Instruction. As an example of work in this state, the following is quoted from a report issued under the direction of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction: ²

“In addition to the usual display held at the state

² Educational Bulletin, No. 41, Vocational Series, No. 20.

fair a state demonstration team contest for girls was staged. Fair visitors had the privilege of watching club girls make garments, can fruits, vegetables and meats, and bake bread.

“Any description of the state fair would be incomplete without mention of the pigs exhibited by the girls and boys. They overflowed the swine pens and an entire day was given to making the awards. The Big Type Polands led in number of entries with twenty-eight trim, well fed pigs, followed by the Spotted Polands and Duroc Jersey breeds, each class having twenty-six pigs exhibited. The Berkshires and Chester White classes were smaller but full of quality. Prizes amounting to \$1400.00 were distributed to the boys and girls. A noteworthy feature of the show was that the boys showing the gilts in most instances were not the sons of established breeders. That these boys can produce pigs of quality is shown by the fact that one of the pigs won a junior championship when exhibited in the open classes and another later in the season won a blue ribbon at the International Live Stock Show. It is thought that the boys' and girls' pig clubs will always be a feature of the state fair and later arrangements will be made for classes for sheep and cattle.

“Club members were not only given a chance to exhibit their prize animals at the fair but were also given the opportunity to display their skill in judging live stock. Thirty-three county teams in addition to 152 individual contestants entered the contest. Careful preliminary work had been in progress throughout the summer months. Two hundred and ninety-five demon-

strations had been held with an average attendance of fourteen, and ninety-seven judging contests with an average attendance of eighteen.

“The club round-up at Purdue will always be the mecca for Indiana club winners, but the International Livestock and Grain Show is rapidly claiming the attention of our youthful stockmen. This year one hundred fifty-two enthusiastic youngsters made the trip to Chicago where they were banqueted and entertained during the week.”

Conclusion.—Boys' and Girls' club work is a very essential part of any progressive rural education program. It is the most important agency operating to vitalize school work and to bring it into closer connection with the home. It consciously, or unconsciously, makes country life appeal to the better type of country boy and girl. It is a strong cause in building character. Those character traits which are so admired, and which are so necessary, in young people, such as, initiative, resourcefulness, leadership, enthusiasm, co-operation, etc., are fostered and developed by it. It engenders a spirit of progressiveness and good citizenship in boys and girls by giving them the opportunity to practice and try out the most approved methods in agriculture and home economics, under social conditions such as they will meet in their regular community life later on. Habits of work and thrift are cultivated through club work which few other methods of instruction have ever cultivated. Club work makes education a real life situation. The problems are not book problems nor are they vague future situa-

tions, but the real personal problems of the boys and girls. Such problem-solving lends a reality to education, and encourages students to study because of a felt need. Under such conditions knowledge is eagerly sought and readily retained.

From the point of view of the rural community boys' and girls' club work is indispensable. It is only through a vitalization of farm activities that rural communities will hold their best blood. Club work is a very important means of bringing about this vitalization. Rural communities cannot afford to let this precious opportunity pass by. Every rural school should be a center of some kind of club work.

Questions and Topics for Discussion

1. Outline the values to be derived from club work.
2. What do you believe are the chief reasons for the universal popularity of boys' and girls' clubs?
3. What are the dangers to be avoided in organizing a club?
4. How would you go about organizing a club in your community?
5. What is the rural teacher's chief concern in club work?
6. What is the relation between the school and club work?
7. What should be the qualification of a club leader?
8. How important a place should the vocational aim have in club work?
9. In what respects do club work and home project work differ?
10. Boys' and girls' clubs bring the home and school into closer relationship. Explain how they do this.
11. Should both boys and girls be permitted to work on the same project? Explain.
12. What are the requirements to satisfactorily complete a club project? Explain the importance of strictly living up to these requirements.

13. Why is the county superintendent the logical club leader in the county? What should be his county organization? Draw a chart showing this organization.
14. How does club work stimulate interest in regular school work?
15. What is the psychological basis upon which club work is founded?
16. What are the values to be derived in having the hot noon lunch as a club project in a rural school?

Special Topics for Investigation and Report

1. The history of club work in the United States.
2. The extent of club work in your state?
3. How club work is organized and conducted in your state. In your community.
4. The county and state fair as a factor in encouraging club work.

References

- Betts, G. H., and Hall, O. E., *Better Rural Schools*, Chapter VI.
- Carney, Mabel, *Country Life and the Country School*, pp. 96-107.
- Foght, H. W., *The American Rural School*, Chapter XI.
- Hines, H. A., *Supervised Home Project and Club Work*, Educational Bulletin, No. 41, State Department of Education, Indiana.
- Kern, O. J., *Among Country Schools*, Chapter VII.
- Lindeman, E. C., *Boys' and Girls' Clubs*, Department of Education, State of Michigan. Bulletin 26, 1919.
- Wilkinson, W. A., *Rural School Management*, Chapter XVII.

CLASSROOM WEIGHT RECORD

School _____

Teacher _____

Grade _____

Room _____



	NAME	Age	Height	Normal Weight	ACTUAL WEIGHT					Age	Height	Normal Weight	ACTUAL WEIGHT							
					Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.				Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June			
1																				
2																				
3																				
4																				
5																				
6																				
7																				
8																				
9																				
10																				
11																				
12																				
13																				
14																				
15																				
16																				
17																				
18																				
19																				
20																				
21																				
22																				
23																				
24																				
25																				
26																				
27																				
28																				
29																				
30																				
31																				
32																				
33																				
34																				
35																				
36																				
37																				
38																				
39																				
40																				
41																				
42																				
43																				
44																				
45																				
46																				
47																				
48																				

WEIGHT-HEIGHT-AGE TABLE FOR BOYS

Height	5 Yrs.	6 Yrs.	7 Yrs.	8 Yrs.	9 Yrs.	10 Yrs.	11 Yrs.	12 Yrs.	13 Yrs.	14 Yrs.	15 Yrs.	16 Yrs.	17 Yrs.	18 Yrs.
38														
39														
40														
41														
42														
43														
44														
45														
46														
47														
48														
49														
50														
51														
52														
53														
54														
55														
56														
57														
58														
59														
60														
61														
62														
63														
64														
65														
66														
67														
68														
69														
70														
71														
72														
73														
74														

HOW TO USE THESE TABLES

- TAKE THE HEIGHT FIRST.** Nail on accurate measure on the wall. Two yardsticks, a new tape measure, or a drawn scale will serve. Let the child stand, without shoes, flat against the wall, with back, shoulders, and head touching the wall, and place a right-angled piece of wood (a chalk box will answer) firmly over his head and against the measuring scale.
- WHAT IS THE CHILD'S AGE?** Take the nearest birthday.
- THEN CONSULT THE CHART FOR THE PROPER WEIGHT FOR THIS CHILD'S AGE AND HEIGHT.** First find the height in the left column and follow across the chart to the appropriate age column. The figure so found is what this child should weigh.
- NOW WEIGH THE CHILD.** Have the child, in indoor clothing but without shoes, stand in the CENTER of the scale platform. Teach the child to weigh himself, but in the monthly weighings the teacher should do the weighing.
- NEXT, THE RECORD.** Enter the weight on the classroom weight record. State the monthly weight on the monthly report card. Use one record for each section of the class and pass on with the section when presented.
- SINCE THIS CHART IS CHIEFLY FOR ITS EDUCATIONAL VALUE, THE HEALTH LESSON IS THE MOST IMPORTANT PART OF THE PROCEDURE.** Emphasize the need of weight gains each month. Study heads and their relation to growth. Study health habits and their effect upon the weight curve.

These new Weight-Height-Age Tables are a revision, by Bird T. Baldwin and Thomas D. Wood, of the Wood tables formerly used. The figures represent a large group of presumably healthy children, most of whom are native born. These figures are believed to be the most accurate available.

WEIGHT-HEIGHT-AGE TABLE FOR GIRLS

Height	5 Yrs.	6 Yrs.	7 Yrs.	8 Yrs.	9 Yrs.	10 Yrs.	11 Yrs.	12 Yrs.	13 Yrs.	14 Yrs.	15 Yrs.	16 Yrs.	17 Yrs.	18 Yrs.
38														
39														
40														
41														
42														
43														
44														
45														
46														
47														
48														
49														
50														
51														
52														
53														
54														
55														
56														
57														
58														
59														
60														
61														
62														
63														
64														
65														
66														
67														
68														
69														
70														
71														

Prepared by Bird T. Baldwin, Ph.D., and Thomas D. Wood, M.D.

APPENDIX

A. CLASSROOM WEIGHT RECORD

B. A SAMPLE RATING CARD FOR RURAL SCHOOLS¹

To become standardized:

1st. Class School must have rating of 90 points.

2nd. Class School must have rating of 80 points.

70 points secures a Certificate of Merit.

X Indicates that requirements must be met for classification as either first or second class.

XX Indicates additional requirements for first class schools.

1. *Yard and Outbuildings*—20 points

X1. Ample Playground..... $\frac{1}{2}$ acre.....1
1 acre.....3

(Where impossible to locate school in other place, the lay of the land will be considered in case above acreage can not be secured.)

2. Good approaches and walks.....1

3. Convenient and serviceable fuel houses, where needed.....1

4. Trees and shrubbery1

X5. To separate and well kept toilets, with no markings and writings, built according to requirements of State Board of Education. If outdoors, must be screened.....4

X6. Bored well, convenient protected spring or filtered cistern..4

XX7. Provisions for physical education. At least two pieces of apparatus for games or exercises.....2

8. Well drained and located.....2

9. Flag staff on building or in yard with flag displayed in fair weather during school hours. Minimum flag 4 ft. x 6 ft....2

¹ This card is used in the state of West Virginia.

II. The Schoolhouse—20 points

- X1. House well built, painted and in good repair, placed on approved foundation.....5
2. Attractive interior decorations, clean floors and furniture. Walls and ceiling tinted according to regulations.....2
- X3. Suitable blackboards, according to specifications of State Board of Education.....2
- XX4. Proper cloak rooms—with cot.....2
- X5. Light from left or from left and rear; 1-6 of floor space, 1-5 floor space where exposure is obstructed or to north...3
- X6. Approved system of ventilating.....1
- XX7. Good doors, locks, keys, movable sashes and window shades..2
8. Jacketed ventilating stove or basement heater.....1
- XX9. Provision for instruction in cooking, sewing, manual training and agriculture.....2

III. Furnishings and Supplies—15 points

- X1. Approved framed pictures—2 at least.....1
- X2. Suitable desk and chair for teacher.....1
- X3. Practical book case with 50 volumes approved by State Department of Education. 3 Current Periodicals.....2
4. Modern maps and globe. (Minimum maps—World, U.S. and State. Globe—12 inches—minimum).....1
- X5. Unabridged dictionary.....1
6. Thermometer1
- X7. Suitable desks properly placed.....2
- X8. Sanitary drinking water supply.....1
- XX9. Display or bulletin board.....1
10. Piano, organ, or victrola and records.....1
- X11. Waste basket, wash basin, mirror, towels and soap.....2
12. Minimum \$5.00 equipment for primary construction work..1

IV. School Organization—15 points

- X1. School graded according to state course of study.....2
- XX2. Register well kept and prompt reports to school authorities..2

XX3. Definite programs of study and recitations posted and observed. Daily Lesson plans.....2

XX4. Pupil's reading circle and other extra activities.....2

X5. Minimum term at least.....1

6. Regular Attendance—1st Class 90 per cent.....2
2d Class 85 per cent.....1

7. Discipline, instruction, and spirit of school, good.....3

8. Hot lunches, Stamp Bank.....1

V. *The Teacher—30 points*

X1. Education:

1st Class—Standard Normal Graduate.....5
or Short course graduate.....3
or Holder of 1st Grade Certificate with 5 years' successful experience.....2

2d Class—As above, or holder of 1st grade certificate....2

X2. Ranked as good or superior by county superintendent or district supervisor.....4

X3. Must show interest and growth.....4

4. Creditable participation in reading circles, institutes, and associations; show professional spirit.....5

5. To live in community during the week and be there some Saturdays and Sundays.....4

XX6. Supervise playgrounds.....3

XX7. Participate in community activities.....3

8. Carry on Home Projects.....2

C. A SUGGESTED OUTLINE FOR A COMMUNITY CENTER CONSTITUTION

COMMUNITIES SHOULD ADAPT IT TO MEET THEIR PARTICULAR NEEDS

Article I—Name

This association shall be known as The Community Center Association of School District No....., County of....., State of....., and its headquarters shall be the..... schoolhouse.

Article II—Object

Its object shall be to foster a community spirit, to make public opinion more enlightened and effective, to promote the education of youths and adults of the community, to provide for and to promote an adequate expression of the social life of the community, and, above all, to develop a true democratic citizenship in all its members.

Article III—Members

All members of this community shall be members of this association. Any organization which is nonpartizan and nonsectarian and whose aim is public welfare may become a department of this association.

Article IV—Officers

The association shall elect not less than nine nor more than fifteen persons, who shall constitute a community board of directors. The board shall elect from its own members a president, vice president, and secretary-treasurer, who shall be the officers of the association. The chairman in charge of any department of work shall be a member of the community board of directors.

Article V—Community Secretary

The community board may employ an executive or business manager to carry on its work, who shall be paid either from public appropriations or by voluntary contributions.

Article VI—Departments

The association shall organize and conduct whatever departments of activity it deems necessary to meet present and permanent needs, such as, forum, civics, recreational, home and school, cooperative buying and marketing, etc.

Article VII—Finances

There shall be no dues for membership in the association, the dues having already been paid through public taxation. But when

necessary it may raise, through voluntary subscriptions and in other ways, the funds required to conduct its activities.

Article VIII—Meetings

The association shall hold quarterly meetings, one of which shall be the annual meeting to hear reports and elect officers. The community board shall hold regular monthly meetings, which shall be open to the public. The departments shall be free to hold as many meetings as may be necessary.

Article IX—Amendments

This constitution may be amended at any annual meeting or at any quarterly meeting if previous notice of the proposed amendment is given.

D. A MODEL CONSTITUTION FOR BOYS' AND GIRLS' CLUBS ²

Article I—Name

The name of this organization shall be.....
 (School, township, county,
Club.
 etc.)

Article II—Object

The object of this club is to increase the agricultural, educational and social advantages of.....through
 (Name of geographical unit)
 home projects, entertainments, lectures, fairs, exhibits, etc.

Article III—Members

All boys and girls living.....between the ages
 (Geographical unit)
 of ten and eighteen years of age shall be eligible for membership.

² Bulletin 26, Department of Public Instruction, State of Michigan.

Article IV—Officers

The leaders of this club shall consist of a supervisor or leader, a president, a vice president, a secretary, and a treasurer; in addition there shall be chosen three adults (men and women) who shall act as county delegates.

A majority vote shall constitute an election.

Article V—Order of Business

The order of business for all regular meetings shall be as follows:

1. Call to order.
2. Roll call.
3. Reading of minutes of last meeting.
4. Additions or corrections to the minutes. (Lectures, talks by guests, etc., may be introduced here.)
5. Reports of committees.
6. Old business.
7. New business.
8. Voting in new members.
9. Considering new names for membership.
10. Adjournment.
11. Recreation or refreshments.

Article VI—Committees

Committees for special purposes may be appointed by the president at any time.

BY-LAWS*Article I—Dues*

There shall be annual (or monthly) dues of.....to be paid by each member for the purpose of defraying cost of entertainments, exhibits, etc.

Article II—Election of Officers

The officers shall be elected by ballot at the annual election in.....of each year.

(month)

Article III—Meetings

The regular meeting of the club shall take place at.....
on the.....
 (name
 of building) (day of the month)

Article IV—Quorum

A quorum shall consist of.....of the mem-
 (usually two-thirds)
 bership of the club.

This constitution may be amended by a vote of.....
 (Two-thirds)
 of the members present at any regular meeting.

DUTIES OF THE OFFICERS

The President:

1. Calls the meeting to order.
2. Announces the order of business.
3. Puts all questions and motions.
4. Decides points of order.
5. Decides the votes.
6. Calls another member to the chair if he or she wishes to take part in the debate.

The Vice President:

1. Performs all the duties of the President in case he or she is absent.

The Secretary:

1. Keeps the minutes of all meetings.
2. Handles all correspondence.
3. Sends or posts notices for meetings.
4. Reads the minutes of the previous meeting.
5. Acts as chairman in case both President and Vice President are absent.

The Treasurer:

1. Collects all dues and moneys.
2. Keeps all accounts of all moneys collected and paid out.
3. Pays bills when ordered by the President or Secretary.

The Advisory Board:

1. Assists the club in choosing projects.
2. Secures prizes for fairs, exhibits, and contests.
3. Assists in all co-operating community affairs under club auspices.
4. Secures or acts in the capacity of judges, witnesses, etc.

The County Delegate:

1. Attends all county meetings.
2. Reports county affairs to the club.
3. Assists in arranging for county contests, fairs, exhibits, etc.

INDEX

- Achievement tests, 152-62 (see also standard tests).
- Aim of rural education, 126-9; importance of subjects in attaining, 128-9.
- Alternation, by grades, 182-3; by subjects, 183-4.
- Arithmetic, 129-31.
- Baltimore County, Maryland; county unit in, 22-4; supervision in, 91-3.
- Bensen, Oscar, 336.
- Benson, C. E., 109.
- Black Hawk County, Iowa, survey, 170-6.
- Boys' and Girls' clubs, 334 ff.; advantages of, 241-4; early beginnings in, 335-6; examples of: Clackamas County, Ore., 344-5; Indiana, 346-8; meaning and purpose of, 334-5; organization of, 337-9; relation to school, 336.
- Briggs, T. H., 253.
- Brooks, E. C., 62.
- Brooks, S. S., 165.
- Brown, George A., 61.
- Burris, Benjamin J., 15.
- Carney, Mabel, 93.
- Carter, James G., 10.
- Centralization, 48-9; dangers of, 23.
- Children, health of (see health).
- Civics, 133.
- Clackamas County, Oregon; club work of, 344-6.
- Club work (see boys' and girls' clubs).
- Community board, 42; functions of, 42.
- Community center, 313 ff.; activities of, 318, 328; aim, definition, scope, 313-5; consolidated school as, 327-8; early examples of, 316; financial support of, 323-4; organization of, 321-4; present examples of, 324-8; the school the, 317-8.
- Community secretary, 322.
- Community unit, 30 ff.; advantages of, 43-4; definition of, 31; the consolidated school an example of, 40; and high school development, 38-9; in New York, 40-2; in Washington, 40; versus the county unit, 44-5.
- Composition, 132.
- Connecticut, supervision in, 86-7.
- Consolidated district, size of, 60.
- Consolidated schools, course of study in, 66; cost of, 61; community activities in, 70-1; enrollment and attendance in, 66; per pupil cost in, 62; teachers in, 65.
- Consolidation, 48 ff.; advantages of, 73-5; complete, 49; early beginnings in, 51-4; fields for, 52-3; meaning of, 48; obstacles to, 53, 235-6; open country versus village, 58-60; partial, 50; program of: Randolph County, Indiana, 67-72; Weld County, Colorado, 64-7.
- Correlation, 184-5.
- County board, 13-15; functions of,

- in Baltimore County, 22-3; powers and responsibilities of, in Kentucky, 24-5; in Virginia, 26.
- County unit, 11; abolition of district lines, 17; advantages of, 13-14; definition of, 11; economies resulting from, 15-16; examples of: Maryland, 22-4; Montana, 19-21; feeble beginnings of, 13; types of: strong form, 12; weak form, 12.
- Course of study, 66 (see also curriculum).
- Cram, Fred D., 170.
- Cubberley, E. P., 226.
- Curriculum, 121 ff.; importance of subjects, 124-6; reorganization of, 137.
- Dakin, W. S., 82.
- Demonstration teaching (see teaching).
- Directed study, 187-92; advantages of, 190-2.
- District system, 3; abandonment of, in Massachusetts, 11; objections to, 5-8; outlived its usefulness, 3; spread of, 3.
- Dunn, Fannie W., 81.
- Economies, from larger unit, 15-17.
- Education, aim of, 126-7; as growth, 99; changing conceptions of, 218-21.
- Elementary science, 134.
- Ellendale school (see schools).
- Field, Jessie, 336.
- Fine arts, 136.
- Food, necessary kinds, 275.
- Games, factors in a good game, 305-8; for rural schools, 308-10; thirty selected, 309-10.
- Geography, 133.
- Graded school districts, in Kentucky, 25.
- Hawthorne Farm school, 241.
- Health, of rural children, 195 ff.; causes of defects, 200-3; improvement of conditions, 205-7; in Missouri, 197; in New York, 203-7; in Virginia, 197-203; present status of, 196-7; program of, 207; recommendations, 214; remedial measures, 208-15; traveling clinic, 208; Kent County, Michigan, plan, 213; North Carolina plan, 208-10; Schenectady County, New York, plan, 211-14; under-nutrition, 274.
- Heating apparatus, 204.
- Helping teachers, 87-8, 91.
- High school, rural, 38; community unit and, 38; consolidated, 71; in Illinois, 39.
- High school training courses, 112-14; in Wisconsin, 113-14; number of, 113.
- Hillegas, Milo, 257.
- History, 133.
- Hot lunch, 173 ff.; advantages of, 282-3; club, 288-9; extent of movement, 276; how introduce into schools, 276; how to serve, 281; how to start, 279; need for, 273; securing parents' cooperation, 278; supervision of, 276; what to serve, 280.
- Illinois community high schools, 39.
- Indiana, club work in, 246-8.
- Individual instruction, 187-92.
- Intelligence quotient (I. Q.), 145; classification on basis of, 144, 146-7.
- Intelligence tests, 145 ff.; group test, 145; individual test, 144-

- 5; interpreting test results, 146; uses and values of, 147-52.
- Inter-community organization, 37.
- Intermediate board, 42; functions of, 42.
- Joint Committee, on rural schools, 41-3; recommendations of, 41.
- Junior high school, 247 ff.; aim of, 255; caution for, 254-5; in consolidated districts, 254; definition of, 247; examples of, 255-7; minimum subjects of, 253; objections to 8-4 plan, 248-9; in rural communities, 250 ff.; teachers for, 251-2; territory, 252-3; in Vermont, 256-7.
- Kentucky survey, 24 ff.; defect of county unit law, 24; graded school districts in, 24; history of county unit in, 24-5; powers and responsibilities of county board, 24-5.
- Kolb, J. H., 31.
- Language, 132.
- Larger unit, tendency toward, 1 ff.; conclusions in regard to, 26.
- Law of 1647, 9.
- Lindeman, E. G., 305.
- Mann, Horace, 10.
- Maryland, county unit in, 22-4; supervision in, 90-3.
- Massachusetts, law of 1647, 9.
- Mental age, 145-7.
- Mental tests (see intelligence tests).
- Michigan, teacher training in, 116-17.
- Milam, Lottie, 276.
- Missouri, county unit law, 18.
- Missouri Tuberculosis Association, 197.
- Model rural schools (see schools).
- Monroe, W. A., 120.
- Montana, county unit law in, 19-21; objectives of, 20-1.
- Nebraska, hot lunch in, 288.
- Neighborhood, 31; factors creating and holding, 33.
- Neighborhood club (see community center).
- New Jersey, supervision in, 87.
- New York, compulsory consolidation law, 24.
- New York survey, 26; community unit, 40-4.
- Normal schools, criticized, 110; how become more efficient, 111-13; output of, 108-10.
- North Carolina, traveling clinic, 209-10.
- North Dakota, model school, 221.
- Objections to small unit, 5-8.
- One-teacher school, 179 ff.; alternation by grades, 182-3; by subjects, 183-4; a balanced schedule for, 185-6; correlation, 184-5; directed study in, 187; grade grouping, 181-2; individual instruction, 187; organization of, 180.
- Organization and administration, 3.
- Owens, G. W., 327.
- Play, 293-6; importance of, 293; old and new notion of, 294-5.
- Playground, 297 ff.; care of equipment, 305; equipment and apparatus, 299-305; factors in choosing apparatus, 299-301; inadequate facilities, 296; list for one-room school, 303; for consolidated school, 304.
- Pierce, Mary D., 94.
- Pittman, M. S., 94.

- Porter Community, 253, 264.
 Practical arts, 135.
 Practice teaching, in Iowa, 117-18;
 in Michigan, 116-17.
 Preston, Josephine Corliss, 40,
 238.
 Pupils, transportation of, 54-8.
 Reading, 131.
 Ross, E. A., 110.
 Rural patrons, fear of losing
 school, 18; participation in
 management of school, 19; un-
 willingness to accept county
 unit, 17-18.
 Rural primary group, 31 ff.; cri-
 terion of existence, 31; defini-
 tion of, 31; significance of, in
 rural organization, 33-4.
 Rural school (see one-teacher
 school).
 Rural teacher (see teacher).
 Sargent, C. G., 327.
 Schenectady County, health plan,
 211-13.
 Schools, demonstration, 221-5;
 need for modern, 217; rating,
 239-40.
 Schools, model, 217 ff.; Connecti-
 cut, 226-7, Durham County,
 North Carolina, 228-9; Ellen-
 dale, North Dakota, 221-6;
 Kirksville, Missouri, 225-6;
 Maine, 229-30.
 Schools, rural (see one-teacher
 school).
 Shaw, Jessie R., 58.
 Small unit, objections to, 5;
 remedies for, 9.
 Smith-Lever Law, 336.
 Standard school, 238 ff. (see also
 superior school).
 Standard tests, 152 ff.; advan-
 tages of, 155; definition of,
 153; individual pupil graph,
 155-6; in which subjects avail-
 able, 154; recording results,
 154-5; surveying schools by
 means of, 170-6; use in super-
 vision, 166-7; values of, 156-
 9.
 Standardization, 234 ff.; incentives
 for, 238-9; in Illinois, 240-1;
 meaning of, 237; purpose of,
 237; score cards, 240; value of,
 241-2.
 State surveys, 24-7.
 Statistical methods, 154.
 Stone, C. W., 16.
 Strong county unit states, 12.
 Superior schools, 238-41; values
 of, 243-4.
 Supervised study, 191-3 (see also
 directed study, and individual
 instruction).
 Supervising teachers, qualifica-
 tions of, 89; work of, 89.
 Supervision, 78 ff.; administra-
 tive, 78, 80; definition of, 78;
 difficulties of, 93-4; instruction-
 al, 78, 80; need for, 78-9, 108;
 status of in U. S., 78-9; stand-
 ard tests in, 166-7; values of,
 94-5.
 Supervision in, Connecticut, 86;
 consolidated districts, 90;
 Maryland, 90; New Jersey, 87;
 Utah, 90.
 Supervisor, function of, 81; quali-
 fications of, 81-2; what the
 teacher may expect from, 94.
 Supervisory unit, 82-4; plans, 84.
 Survey (see health, state).
 Taxation, rates, 6; inequality of,
 5, 8.
 Teacher, the rural, 98 ff.; qualifi-
 cation and training of, 114-16;
 situation in U. S., 100-1; in
 Pennsylvania, 101; in Ne-

- braska, 106-7; in New York, 102; in the South, 108.
- Teacher training schools, criticized, 110; high school, 112-13; output of, 109-10.
- Teachers, 78 ff.; for junior high schools, 251-2; training in: Iowa, 117-18; Michigan, 116-17; Wisconsin, 113-14; turnover of, 79.
- Teacher's home, 260 ff.; advantages of, 263-4, 267; history of, 261-3; in foreign countries, 263; methods of securing, 267-8; need for, 260; objections to, 265-6; plans, location, equipment, 268-9; present status of, 261.
- Teaching, demonstration, in Connecticut, 226-7; in North Carolina, 229; in Maine, 229-30.
- Tests and measurements, 141 ff.
- Toilets, criteria for good, 202-3.
- Towns, decentralization of, 10.
- Township unit, 9; advantages and disadvantages of, 11; states, 11.
- Transportation, 54-5, 64; in Randolph County, Indiana, 71-2; in Weld County, Colorado, 57.
- Traveling clinic, 208-9.
- Under-nutrition, 274-5; causes of, 274.
- Unorganized territory, 37; high schools in, 39.
- Utah, supervision in, 90.
- Valuation, extremes of, 7; variations in per capita, 5, 8.
- Vaughn, J. P., 266.
- Village, importance of, 35 ff.
- Virginia survey, recommendations of, 26.
- Warm lunch (see hot lunch).
- Washington, community unit in, 40; community center activities in, 325-7.
- Weak county unit states, 12.
- Weld County, Colorado, consolidated program of, 64 ff.
- Wiley, George M., 102.
- Winchester County, New Hampshire, testing program of, 165-70.
- Windes, E. E., 127.
- Wisconsin, supervision in, 88-9; county training schools, 113-14; testing program in, 162-5.
- Zone plan of supervision, 84.