

A PLAN FOR THE REORGANIZATION
OF RURAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN MISSOURI

by

ABNER JONES, A.M.

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by

Abner Jones.

VITA

I, Abner Jones, was born September 3, 1873 in Putnam County, Missouri. My father and mother, though born in Kentucky, were reared in the same county. Even as late as their marriage that section was undeveloped, large tracts of government land being still unoccupied.

The first school I attended was the district school. I attended the high school at Unionville, Missouri, during the year of 1891-1892. With the exception of four months in the normal school at Kirksville, Missouri in 1897, the remainder of my school training has been received at the University of Missouri, where I have spent five summer sessions, and the years 1902-1904 and 1914-1916. I received the degree of A.B. in 1904, the degree of B.S. in Education in the summer of 1907, and the degree of A.M. in 1915.

My undergraduate work was largely in history, economics, political science, and education. My graduate work has been entirely in education. Courses as indicated below have been taken: public school curriculum under Prof. J.L.Merriam; the psychology of learning and psychological tests (without credit) under Prof. W.H.Pyle; school administration and seminary in school administration under Prof. J.D.Elliff; theory of teaching, statistical studies in the theory of teaching; seminary in the theory of teaching under Dean W.W.Charters; history of education, principles of education, types of modern educa-

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Pages.

CHAPTER I.

CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

I. <u>National, State, and Local Government in Constitutional Law</u>	1
II. <u>State Board of Education</u>	2
<u>1. Tenure</u>	3
<u>2. Term</u>	7
<u>3. Pay</u>	8
<u>4. Number of members</u>	8
<u>5. Powers and duties of the state board of education</u>	8
III. <u>State Superintendent</u>	23
<u>1. Term</u>	23
<u>2. Salary</u>	24
<u>3. Tenure</u>	28
<u>4. Powers and duties</u>	32
IV. <u>Summary</u>	35

CHAPTER II.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

I. <u>Supervision</u>	37
<u>1. The Unit</u>	37
<u>2. Tenure of the Superintendent</u>	39
<u>3. Term of county superintendent</u>	40
<u>4. Pay of county superintendent</u>	41

	<u>Pages.</u>
II. <u>County Board</u>	42
<u>1.</u> Tenure	42
<u>2.</u> Term	43
<u>3.</u> Number of members	44
III. <u>Township Board</u>	44
<u>1.</u> Number of members	45
IV. <u>District Boards</u>	45
<u>1.</u> Powers	45
<u>2.</u> Tenure	45
<u>3.</u> Number of members	45
<u>4.</u> Term	46
V. <u>Powers and Duties of Local Boards</u>	46
<u>1.</u> Building and Equipment	47
<u>2.</u> Management and control of schools	48
<u>3.</u> Appointment of teachers	49
<u>4.</u> Course of study	51
<u>5.</u> Change of boundaries	53
VI. <u>Relation of City and Village Schools to the</u> <u>County System</u>	59
VII. <u>Summary</u>	61

CHAPTER III.

THE TEACHER 64

I. <u>Qualifications</u>	64
<u>1.</u> Certificates	64
<u>2.</u> Normal school and high school	66
<u>3.</u> Summary	69

	<u>Pages</u>
II. <u>Length of Service</u>	70
III. <u>Salaries</u>	73
<u>1. Comparison with other salaries</u>	74
<u>2. As related to economic needs</u>	77
<u>3. City and county compared</u>	83
<u>4. Summary</u>	86
<u>5. Suggestions for schedule</u>	88

CHAPTER IV

SUPPORT

	94
I. <u>Comparison of Missouri With Other States</u>	94
II. <u>Sources of Revenue</u>	97
<u>1. Permanent funds</u>	97
<u>2. State revenue</u>	97
<u>3. Local revenue</u>	101
III. <u>Apportionment of School Funds</u>	109
<u>1. Bases of Apportionment</u>	109
<u>2. Proposed system for Missouri</u>	114

CHAPTER V.

	122
I. <u>Provisions Relating to Rural Schools in</u> <u>State Constitutions</u>	122
II, <u>Proposed Education Clause</u>	125

CHAPTER VI

PROPOSED LAWS RELATING TO RURAL SCHOOL IN MIS-

	<u>SOURI</u>	127
I.	<u>State Board of Education</u>	127
II.	<u>Commissioner of Education</u>	132
III.	<u>Supervisory Districts</u>	134
IV.	<u>Annual Meeting</u>	140
V.	<u>Powers and Duties of Joint High School, Village, and Common School Districts</u>	143
VI.	<u>Apportionment of School Funds</u>	151

CHAPTER VII

APPLICATION OF THE RULES OF APPORTIONMENT TO

SOME TYPICAL DISTRICTS. 156

I.	<u>1. A Class C District</u>	157
	<u>2. A Class A District</u>	159
	<u>3. A Wealthy Class C District</u>	160
	<u>4. A Wealthy Class B District</u>	162
	<u>5. A Class A District</u>	163
	<u>6. A Poor Class A District</u>	165
	<u>7. A District Opposed to Public Schools</u>	167
	<u>8. A Poor County District</u>	168
	<u>9. A Wealthy County District</u>	169.
II.	<u>Probable Tax Rates</u>	173
III.	<u>Summary</u>	175

LIST OF TABLES.

- Table I Salaries of state superintendents, presidents of state universities, and some city superintendents.
- Table II Valuation of districts in Missouri.
- Table III Enrollment of school districts in Missouri.
- Table IV Average attendance of school districts in Missouri.
- Table V Length of term of districts in Missouri.
- Table VI Number of teachers and salary of the superintendent, etc. in some of the small cities of Missouri.
- Table VII Comparison of the training of teachers in various schools of Missouri.
- Table VIII Comparison of town and rural teachers in Missouri -- length of service.
- Table IX Present schedule of teacher's salaries in Missouri.
- Table X Salaries of policemen and firemen in certain cities.
- Table XI Percentage distribution of salaries, (a) Chicago department store workers, (b) Missouri teachers.
- Table XII Schedule of teachers salaries in some counties and cities in Missouri.
- Table XIII Training of teachers in counties and cities of Table XII.

Table XIV Schedule of teacher's salaries (a) Proposed schedule, (b) Partial Present Schedule.

Table XV Another Schedule.

A PLAN FOR THE REORGANIZATION OF RURAL
SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION IN MISSOURI.

INTRODUCTION

An increasing number of students of social conditions are coming to regard the country school as one of the most pressing problems of our national life. In building, equipment, curriculum, teaching, and results the country school is far below the standard now reached by the elementary school in the city; and no high school at all is provided for a large majority of pupils in the country.

Some of the hindrances to rural school betterment are a clumsy, inefficient organization and a lack of funds. When the resources are meagre it is difficult to procure adequate buildings and equipment and to employ skilled teachers, supervisors, and administrators. In ability to raise money for schools, the city is, as a rule, far superior to the rural community.

But the possession of money alone will not insure a high quality of these material and human agencies. There must be an organization by means of which these may be obtained and directed. And in the efficiency of its school organization, the city is more fortunate than the country. One hundred country teachers in a Missouri county are appointed by one

hundred boards of three members each; they teach in one hundred different school houses that have been planned and equipped by one hundred boards. Practically none of these three hundred men ^{has} have had any training such as would fit them ^{such} for technical duties. The supervision of these schools is confined to one or two visits a year by the county superintendent who must have been a resident of the county for at least a year before his election. The county superintendent is chosen by the voters of the county, nearly all of whom know nothing about the qualification needed to fill the office. The superintendent is responsible to no one until the end of his four years' term. When so many hands are given authority many of them are sure to be incompetent. With such a loose organization little of the work is likely to be done under the direction of experts. The schools of a city employing as many teachers as are employed in the country schools of a county offer a marked contrast. In the first place all the schools of a Missouri city are under the control of a single board. In the second place, the board employs a well-trained man for superintendent. Nearly always, because of the large salary, the city superintendent is far better equipped for the work than is the county superintendent. In the third place, the city board appoints the teachers ^{only} on the recommendation of the superintendent. In the fourth

place, he advises as to the purchase of equipment and supplies, and in general ^{the} has/actual administration of the city schools. In the fifth place, the trained superintendent is assisted in the supervision of the schools by trained principals and other supervisors; and no teacher in need ^{of}/guidance is left to struggle alone as is the teacher in the country.

The problem of this paper is to find a better plan of organization and a better means of support for the rural schools of Missouri. An organization is suggested that, it is believed, would make more certain the selection of expert leaders and teachers; that would make it possible to prevent much waste of public school funds; that would make it possible to compel unwilling communities to do more nearly their share in the maintenance of schools; and that would bring a high school within the reach of every child in the state.

A method of support is suggested that would combine the resources of the state to provide schools equally good for wealthy and poor communities.

Greater centralization of administration and a larger state tax are justified by the proposition that education is a state function, not a local one. This proposition is a part of our political theory to-day but its implications have not yet been completely embodied in practice. This theory implies an obligation on the part of the state to provide sufficient funds to equal-

ize educational burdens and opportunities throughout the state. It also implies an obligation on the part of the state to exercise its power to the end that the best possible education be provided for each child in the state. But while greater centralization is believed to be necessary, a large amount of local control also is believed to be a good practice. Consequently, it is suggested that the existing districts be retained with practically all their present powers except the power to change their boundaries. But it is also suggested that power be given to the state and county departments to compel each district to maintain certain minimum standards.

In the preparation of this paper the school laws and the constitutions of all of the states except Arkansas and New Mexico were examined to learn the practice in the various states of the union. These practices are criticised in the light of the principles of administration, and those features that seemed best adapted to conditions in Missouri are pointed out. In not every case, however, has the suggestion been confined to what some state is actually doing. For example, some of the generally approved principles of apportionment of state school funds, such as attendance, number of teachers, local rate of school tax, and inverse property valuation, underlie the practice in one

more states. But in no state are the logical implications of all of these principles a part of the law.

In this case ^a new method is pointed out which seems to be logical and workable. The desirable features of a school code for the rural schools of Missouri are summarized in the form of constitutional and legislative provisions. The final chapter undertakes to show how some of the suggestions would work if enacted into law.

CHAPTER I.

CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION.

National, State, and Local governments in constitutional law.

Government in the United States is organized on the federal plan. Governmental power is distributed between a central government, on the one hand, which deals with matters of most general interest such as war and peace, inter-state and foreign commerce, etc., and the various commonwealth governments on the other. The central government is one of delegated powers, that is, it can exercise only such powers as are delegated to it either expressly by the Constitution or by the necessary implication. The commonwealths or states, however, have residuary powers, that is, they may exercise any powers not delegated exclusively to the central government by the constitution of the United States nor prohibited by it to the states. The constitution is silent on the subject of schools and in consequence the central government has no power to maintain a school system and for the same reason each of the several states has such power. It is to the states, therefore, that we must look for maintenance of the schools, and the following discussion will be concerned only with the states. The term central government will refer not to the Federal government, but to the division of the commonwealth or state governments whose authority is coextensive with the territory of the state.

Within each state, governmental powers are distributed by a constitution and legislative acts between a central government and the various local governments. In this case, however, it is the central government that possess residuary powers and the local

governments, delegated powers. Therefore, in the absence of constitutional provisions to the contrary, the power and responsibility for maintaining schools is lodged with the central government within the state. As a matter of fact, in every state, the burden and control of the schools is divided between the central government and the various local governments. And in many states, certain limitations are placed by the constitution on both central and local governments. In Missouri, for example, the rate of tax levy for central and local governments is thus limited.

The distribution and limitation of powers vary from state to state. In some states broad powers over schools are given to the central government, and correspondingly narrow powers are left to the local units. Such systems are called centralized systems. In other states narrow power is given to the central government, leaving most of the burden and responsibility for school maintenance to the local unit. Such systems are called decentralized. Missouri belongs to the decentralized type.

State Board of Education.

The administration of the school system is commonly vested in a state board of education and a state superintendent or commissioner of education; county boards and county superintendents; city boards and city superintendents; township boards; and district boards. District boards, including city boards, usually coexist with the others, but county and township boards are seldom found in the same system. Many states have neither county or township boards, though nearly all of the states have a county or township superintendent.

Tenure.

The membership of these various boards may be ex officio; that is, their right to serve on the board exists because of their holding some other office. Or the members may hold by virtue of indirect election such as appointment by the governor or election by one branch of the legislature. Or they may be chosen directly by the voters. State boards more frequently hold ex officio or by indirect election. Local boards more frequently hold by direct election.

The most striking fact disclosed by a study of the state boards of education is the lack of uniformity among the states in the tenure and composition of the state boards. In only a few states, among which are Delaware and New Jersey, do we find the board made up in the same way. In each of these states the board is composed entirely of laymen appointed by the governor.

Another striking fact is the great number of states in which the board is composed entirely, or in part, of members ex officio. These members are of two classes: (1) Educators and (2) Administrative and executive officers of the state. In the first class are found the state superintendent, the presidents of the state university, and the president of the state normal schools, as in Arizona. The president of the state agricultural college is a member of the state board in North Dakota, as are also the assistant state superintendents. The superintendents of the schools of the three largest cities in the state are members of the board in Indiana. In the ^{class} second ~~of~~ ex officio members are the governor, attorney-general, secretary of state, all of whom serve on the board in Missouri. The lieutenant governor is a member of the board in Connecticut, the state treasurer in Florida, the

commissioner of public lands and buildings in Nebraska, the state auditor in North Carolina, and the comptroller in Texas.

Board members holding by indirect election are chosen by the governor or by the legislative branch. Those chosen by the governor are either laymen or educators. Educators are appointed by the governor in Arizona, Indiana, and some other states. These educators are men occupying such positions as city superintendencies, county superintendencies, and high school principalships. In no case do such members constitute the entire membership of the board. Laymen appointed by the governor are found on the boards of Connecticut, Delaware, and a number of other states. In only a few states do such members make up the entire board, as is the case in Delaware.

The board may be elected in whole or in part by the legislature as is done in New York where the whole board is elected on joint ballot of the two houses, or by one branch as in Virginia where a part of the board is elected by the Senate.

Michigan is the only state in which the members of the state board of education are chosen by popular vote, and in this case not the entire membership is so chosen.

In Missouri the board is entirely ex officio and is composed of the governor, attorney general, secretary of state, and the state superintendent of schools. They are each chosen by popular vote and on a partisan ticket.

There are serious objections to having members ex officio constitute the board of education, excepting the state superintendent. It is difficult for such members to look upon questions of school policy with an eye single to efficiency. State

executive and administrative officers are active in politics and have further political ambitions. Such men are usually usually/not courageous leaders in such matters as educational betterment. They fear any advanced position on their part might impede their political progress. Then their interests are not so much in questions of educational policy as, presumably, in the duties of the office which they have been elected to fill, and for the performance of whose functions they are primarily responsible. The duties connected with the state board seem comparatively trifling and insignificant and so are neglected. This has been the case in Missouri. Then there is the fact that the ex officio member is not chosen because of his known possession of those qualities and interests that would fit him to serve on the board of education, but, presumably, because of his ability to fill an office whose duties are quite different from those of the state board. The result is most likely to be that he is not a very valuable member of the board. No one would think that it would be wise to put other educational affairs, such as the state normal schools, in the hands of a board composed as is the board of education in Missouri. District boards are almost universally made up of men selected solely for the purpose of managing the local school. In American experience the only satisfactory educational board is composed of members selected to serve only on such board.

The above objections to ex officio ~~boards~~^{off} are not so serious when the other class of ex officio members is considered. Presidents of the state educational institutions and superintendents of city schools are not usually chosen from partizan considerations. They usually have no political aspirations. They are more likely to possess the qualities desirable in a member of

such boards since their chief interest is presumably education. But the usefulness of a member of this class is likely to be impaired by a onesidedness of view due to closeness to the problems of his own institution. It is not so infrequent as it should be to find rivalry, jealousy, and suspicion between the heads of various state educational institutions; and a desire on their part to promote their respective institutions often dominates other educational needs. Ex officio membership of the state board of education presents too many chances for inefficiency to make it a desirable policy.

Election by one of both branches of the legislature is not satisfactory, because sessions are short, infrequent, and crowded with business. The political atmosphere of the usual legislative session makes it likely that political considerations would play too large a role in the selection of the candidate, and considerations of his fitness too small. Then, responsibility so largely shared is felt very slightly by the single individual, so that not sufficient care is likely to be given to the selection of members of the board.

Direct election is not the wisest method. The average voter does not know the qualities needed for membership on the board; he would not have sufficiently intimate acquaintance with the candidates to judge whether they possessed those qualities; and the great number of names on the ballot makes it impossible for him to take an intellectual ^{igent} interest in all the positions to be filled. The result is that he votes for the head of the ticket and, for the rest, votes the party managers' slate.

In view of the serious objection to other methods of selecting members of the State board, appointment by the governor seems

to be the most satisfactory method. Responsibility is fixed and definite; a mistake can be corrected by removal, a thing not possible by either of the other methods. While political and other improper influences are possible in their selection, yet the definite personal responsibility resting on the governor would cause him to exercise more care than is likely to be exercised by the other methods. Such boards are already in control of the state educational institutions of Missouri and other states, and, as a rule, work well where the citizenship demands a high class board.

Term.

The term of board members is more commonly 3, 4, 5, or 6 years, and the terms of the various members expire in different years so as to prevent a complete change in membership at one time. The shortest term of the elective or appointive members is two years found in North Dakota and for some of the members in Connecticut. In some states, as in Indiana, the term is three years. In other states, as in Georgia, the term is four years. In others, as in Idaho, the term is five years. In other states, as in Maryland, the term is six years. In Delaware the term is seven years, and in New Jersey eight. In New York the term is the same as the number of members, which is three more than the number of judicial districts in the state. The number of members at present is eleven.

The term of members of the state board of education should be not less than five years, and the terms of only a fraction of the members should expire at one time. This is desirable for the well known reasons that experience on the part of the members

of each board is necessary since efficiency and continuity of policy can be secured better in this way than in any other. As long a term as eleven years, the term in New York, is probably not necessary; and more frequent appointment might better promote progress. On the whole, it seems that the present plan for the boards of control of the university and normal schools in Missouri is sound. The term is six years and one third of the terms expire every second year. This makes possible sufficient continuity of policy and, at the same time, changes are frequent enough that unnecessary conservatism may be avoided.

Pay.

The members of the state boards of education serve without pay, or with only nominal compensation, except for necessary travelling expenses while attending meetings of the board. This is a wise practice. The position is not thus made attractive to the small politician as it would if a good salary went with the appointment.

Number of Members.

The number of members of state boards varies from three in Texas and some other states to thirteen in Indiana. Seven or eight are more frequent than any other numbers. Probably five is the smallest number that should constitute the board in Missouri, where the area of the state is large, and the population varied. Any number less than five would not give that multitude of counsel in which there is wisdom. A number larger than twelve might prove unwieldy. Anywhere between the limits would probably be satisfactory.

Powers and Duties of the State Board of Education.

This section deals only with the powers and duties of the

state board as laid down by the constitution and the acts of the state legislature. This, by no means, indicates the real powers of the board, for, though many powers may be delegated to the board by the statute, the board may really have very few powers because the means of administration are lacking. For example, it might happen that the statute would give the state board power to determine minimum standards for graduation from high schools. But if the board is not enabled to employ an inspector, this power could not be exercised and so would not really exist. On the other hand, a board under strong and vigorous leadership may exercise many powers not conferred directly by the statute. For example, the Missouri Teacher Training Course Law of 1913 provides that the State Superintendent shall prescribe the conditions of admission to teacher-training classes. Because of his right to inspect and his power to give or withhold approval upon which the state aid depends, the State Superintendent has been able to fix a minimum standard not only for the teacher training course instructor, but for all the teachers in both high school and grades.

As in the constitution of the state boards, so with reference to their powers, there is great variety among the various states. In Nebraska, for example, the duties of the state board are confined to the management of the permanent state school fund. In Idaho the board appoints the commissioner of education, hears appeals from the decision of the commissioner, prepares the educational budget for the state legislature, adopts text-books and prescribes a course of study for use in the public schools of the state, prescribes rules for sanitation of school buildings and

sites, has large control over the certification of teachers, and is the board of control for the state university.

The powers of the various boards may be roughly classified as those relating to 1, text-books and course of study, 2, certification and qualification of teachers, 3, special education, 4, Finance, 5, Health, building sanitation and construction, 6, Administrative control. 1. In the first class of powers are the following possessed by the board in one or more states: a., Power to adopt a uniform series of text-books for the public schools of the states, or to prepare and print such series, or to exercise some control over the adoption of text-books; b., To prescribe a course of study for the common schools of the state, or to determine the number of credits necessary for graduation from high school or for admission to the state university; c., To prescribe minimum requirements for academic degrees binding on all higher educational institutions within the state.

2. Under class two would fall the power: a., to grant certificates to teach and to revoke certificates for certain causes; b., To prescribe qualifications for high school teachers; c., To prescribe conditions under which county superintendents may grant certificates; d., To grant certificates to superintendents of local areas; e., And to control or aid in holding teachers institutes.

3. The third class would include the following powers: a., To have charge of or supervision over the education of the deaf, dumb, and blind; b., To manage the state university, the normal schools, or some other state educational institutions; c., To promote vocational education; d., To participate in the control of certain local high schools; e., To supervise the educational

qualifications of persons entering some of the professions, such as law and medicine; f., To conduct "extension" work by means of lectures, pamphlets and circulars, circulating libraries, pictures, etc.; g., To grant or revoke charters to private educational institutions; h., To standardize the instruction in commercial schools: i., To establish, control, and support schools at eleemosinary institutions where children of school age are cared for; j., And to aid or administer libraries in the various localities of the state.

4. The financial powers of the state board include the power: a., To manage the state permanent school fund; b., To equalize educational advantages within the state; c., To apportion the state school revenues among the local administrative units of the state; d., To prepare the educational budget for each meeting of the state legislature; e., To prevent the multiplication of schools in proportion to the school funds; f., To spend \$200.00 to maintain state headquarters at the meeting of the N.E.A.; g., To administer teachers pension law.

5. Under health, sanitation, and building construction the following powers are found: a., To prepare and furnish to the schools of the state, apparatus for testing the sight, hearing, and breathing of pupils; b., To inspect school buildings; c., And to prescribe rules for the construction and sanitation of school buildings.

6. Under administrative control are classed the following powers: a., To decide questions of law and fact appealed from decisions of the county superintendent or county board; b., To appoint the state superintendent or commissioner of education:

c., To appoint deputies and assistants to the state superintendent; d., To appoint an agent to secure the enforcement of the school laws; e., To raise and keep high schools to a satisfactory standard; f., To appoint local supervisors; g., To inspect schools supported entirely or in part by public funds; h., To remove school officers for failure to perform their duties: i., To prepare and furnish blank forms for the use of school officers: j., To investigate the financial accounts of school officers; k., To construe the school law; l., To examine the scholastic attainments of pupils in the public schools; m., To approve schools receiving state aid; n., And to report at stated times on the condition of the schools to the governor or to the legislature.

It is to be noted that in no one state does the board of education possess all the powers and duties enumerated above. In most states the state superintendent is independent of the state board so far as any control is concerned. Some of the important powers above enumerated such as the inspection and classification and approval of schools are in some states vested in the superintendent who exercises this directly or through deputies appointed and ~~and~~ removable by him alone.

State control of education is justifiable and necessary because many individuals and localities are not able or not willing to maintain adequate schools for their children, and for the reason that citizens educated in one locality often perform their services in another. This makes it a matter

of state concern. An analysis of a poor school will disclose the existence of either a poor, inadequately equipped building, or a poorly trained, incompetent teacher; usually both are found. If the district is unable to remedy the situation, the state should come to its aid; if it is unwilling to do so, the state should come to the aid of the children, and compel better things. This calls for the strong hand on the part of the state. What powers should be vested in the state board of education in order that it may cope with the situation?

The state board might send out supervisors to advise and stimulate teachers, boards, and communities. In order that this method be effective it would take at least one supervisor to every fifty teachers in service—about 200 for the rural school in Missouri. Nothing approaching it is done in any state except in New Jersey, Utah, and Virginia; in these states the state board appoints the supervisors for the local areas. A more common practice is to have one or two members of the state superintendent's staff assigned to the work of inspecting the rural schools of the whole state. One is employed in Missouri. This method should prove helpful if the inspectors are properly trained and if the county or district superintendents are aggressive and able to learn.

These inspectors may be of great service in simply inspecting and classifying the schools and publishing a report of the classification. This appeal to community pride ^{has} been quite effective when applied to the high schools of the

cities and towns. However, it does not get results in every community, even in the towns, and rural communities are less sensitive to promptings of community pride than are the towns. The work of inspectors may be very valuable but that alone cannot solve the problem quick enough.

A more effective way to secure results is for the state board to have power to make or withhold grants to schools. Every state supplements the local tax by grants from the state treasury. If the state board has the power to withhold this grant if its conditions are not complied with, it may compel the district, on pain of receiving none of the public funds, to keep its building up to certain standards of sanitation and repair, to employ a teacher meeting certain minimum qualifications, etc. The board might offer a premium for improvement in plant or teaching. It might condemn unsuitable buildings. If the state board has the power to grant or withhold public funds according as a district complies or refuses to comply with certain conditions it may do much to improve the rural schools. It may do much to improve them through an efficient system of inspection.

Another important means of improvement is the power to license local supervisors. If the pay of the local supervisor is great enough to attract well trained men this may insure an efficient body of supervisors. In Massachusetts and Tennessee alone does the state board have this power; and in Tennessee the board is greatly hampered by legal requirements which probably render the power not so effect-

ive as it is in Massachusetts.

In general, reasoning by analogy, it would seem that the powers delegated to the state department should be in the hands of the state board which should be a policy determining body, just as the powers delegated to a city school district are vested in the city board of education which determines the broad lines of policy. But the actual administration should be vested in the state superintendent (or commissioner or education or secretary of the state board, as the title may be) and other experts all of whom should be appointed and their compensations fixed by the board, just as the administration of the city schools is vested in the city superintendent and other experts, all of whom are controlled as to tenure, term, and salary by the city board.

The specific powers of the state board discussed in the following paragraphs are only those that have reference to rural schools. Such powers as those over private schools, state normal schools, and the large city systems will be omitted.

1.

It does not seem desirable that the state board prescribe a uniform series of text-books for such a large and heterogeneous population as that of Missouri. It is not necessary to do so in order to secure books of good quality and reasonable price. The law may, and does, prohibit discrimination against Missouri in the matter of price; and many other states have similar statutes, so that a state

board would be unable to secure more favorable rates than could be procured by the local units. The needs of the pupils in Taney county are not the same as those in St. Louis; and it would, therefore, seem that the best text-book for Taney county would not be the best for St. Louis in every case. It is, of course, desirable that books of inferior quality be barred; but this could be accomplished by a list prepared and published by the educational experts in the state department and from which the local boards should choose text-books either for purchase or adoption. This is as far as the state board should go in the matter of text-books.

The California plan of state publication and sale of text-books has not resulted in lower cost of books. On the contrary, according to an article in the Educational Review, (1) the state has spent thousands of dollars for the compilation of books and the equipment of the printing plant. This money has been a dead loss; since the proceeds of the sale of books has ^snot been sufficient to pay only the expenses of operation without allowing for the expenses of renewal of the plant, and the books have been sold to the parents at substantially the same price as similar books published by private concerns. State publications are likely to be inferior in quality to start with, and are not

(1), R. D. Faulkner, "The California State Text-book System," Educational Review, 20:44.

likely to be revised frequently enough to keep step with educational and scientific progress. The article above referred to says that the books are poorly graded, are written in a style too difficult for the pupils, and were not revised to keep them abreast of scientific and educational progress.

State-wide absolute uniformity of course of study is of doubtful wisdom. The soil and climatic conditions of Taney County are so very different from those of Platte County that a different type of agriculture should prevail, while in St. Louis city agriculture is not carried on at all. The course of study for these different communities should be different in important respects. Of course, there should be certain common minimum essential in such subjects as reading, arithmetic, geography, civics, etc. The state board should have power to prescribe these minimum essentials, leaving the rest to be determined by the local boards.

2

The power to grant certificates to teachers should rest exclusively with the state board who should have power also to determine the qualification for certification. It will be shown in a later section that the minimum preparation of elementary teachers should be two years of normal school training above a four year high school course. It is impossible for Missouri to reach this standard at once, but it should be approached just as rapidly as facilities for training and revenues for paying salaries will permit. This

progress will be more rapid when the standard is fixed by a small, select board working under the advice of an educational expert of their own choosing, and meeting four times a year or oftener than when the standard is fixed by a bicameral legislature made up of men whose interests are not primarily in education and meeting once in two years for a short session. At present, in Missouri, the state superintendent has full power to determine the standard for such certificates as he issues. The change suggested is to extend this power to all certificates and let the formal determination be made by the state board. Under this plan certificates would be issued more and more on credentials from educational institutions and less and less on examination.

The present system of examinations for certification in Missouri, while not quite as bad as it was some years ago, is very bad. The statute requires that questions be prepared by the state superintendent who then mails them to the county superintendent. The idea of this is to secure uniformity of standards in various counties. This would secure some degree of uniformity if the papers were graded by the state superintendent; but where the papers are graded by one hundred and fourteen county superintendents, some well trained and others with little or no training, some conscientious educators and others political time servers, there will be, and are, one hundred and fourteen different standards of certification. Studies of grading demonstrate

that a marked lack of uniformity of grades exists when marks are given by different teachers, even well trained and experienced.(1). To secure uniformity of standards, the certification must be in the hands of a single authority.

The power to certificate superintendents and supervisors of rural schools should be vested in the state department in order that men lacking qualification in education and experience be kept out of the positions. County boards are not likely to be able to judge such matters so well as the state superintendent, and they do not realize so clearly the importance of training in the work of a supervisor. The high quality of rural school supervision in Massachusetts testifies to the value of this provision.

Along with the power to grant certificates should go the power to revoke them for such causes as immorality and inability or failure to perform the duties of the position. The power to revoke certificates for immorality should probably not be vested exclusively in the state board. Such cases are infrequent, but when they do arise quick and inexpensive action is desirable. This could be secured by proceeding before the county board with the right of appeal to the state board.

3

Many of the powers given to state boards over special education do not refer to rural schools. It seems wise perhaps to give the board power to conduct "extension" work by means of lectures, circulars, pictures, etc., especially

(1). Kelly, F.J. Teachers Marks, p. 51 f.

such work as will familiarize the people with the condition and needs of the schools of the state.

4

Among the financial powers of the state board should be included, as at present in nearly all the states, the control and management of the permanent state school fund. It should have power to look into the management of local funds and to correct any mismanagement found. These powers over school funds are necessary to prevent loss of the principal and interest. An unpublished study by Professor J. D. Elliff, of the University of Missouri, shows that thousands of dollars of the principal of the school funds of the various counties has been lost through the incompetent or corrupt mismanagement of the funds. It is a well-known fact that in Missouri the state funds were diverted to other uses than the support of schools.

Other financial powers that should be vested in the state board is that of apportioning to the local communities the state school revenues. Reports from the various local boards are received here and nowhere else; and it is upon facts contained in these reports that the apportionment should be based. The board should have power to prevent the needless multiplication of schools, and should have a voice in any re-arrangement of district boundaries that may be made. (1). These powers would enable the state board to stop the tendency to establish small districts with

(1). ^C Subberly, State and County Reorganization, page 55.

few pupils and meager resources. The great number of such districts is one of the most glaring defects of the rural school system in Missouri.

The administration of a teachers' pension law, when such law shall have been enacted, should be vested in the state board of education, for the reason that the purpose of the law would be to promote the efficiency of teachers and the funds contributed by the state would come from the school revenues.

If the proposed state tax and method of apportionment suggested in a later section should be adopted, the state board should determine the rate needed from year to year, and certify it to the appropriate officials for collection. This is not a matter to be handled by the legislature, after the general policy of the tax has been determined upon. It is purely an administrative matter, a matter of arithmetic, and any serious mistake could be corrected by the board. Or, if the board be inclined to make needlessly large levies, the courts could interfere by injunction, or the governor by removal. It is therefore seems safe and proper to give the state board this power.

5

The state board should specify minimum requirements for buildings, equipment, and sanitation, for the simple reason that a great many communities are negligent in the matter. They might not be so negligent if they had adequate supervision, but even with that, the strong hand would be necessary with some communities.

6.

The board or the state superintendent should have the final decision of some matters, such as questions of district boundaries, since the amount of funds contributed by the state to any community is affected by the size of the school-districts. Since certification of teachers is primarily a state function the state board should have the final decision as to the revocation of certificates appealed from the decision of the county board or county superintendent. Some questions as to the interpretation of doubtful passages in the school law should be settled by the state board or state superintendent on the request of the local school officers as is almost universally the rule. The board should have the appointment of factory inspectors and other agents to secure the enforcement of the attendance laws. In no other way can attendance be regulated by the state educational authority; this is primarily an educational matter. It should have full power to investigate the accounts of school officers having to do with finance, and to remove such officers as are mismanaging the finances. The board should have power to call for full reports from the local school authorities; they should also have power to remove such officers as refuse to make such reports or to perform other duties, or to withhold their compensation; or to withhold funds from the local unit whose officers fail or refuse to perform their duties. Some such power is necessary in order to secure full and adequate information as to the schools of the state and to secure efficient administration.

The board should prepare and publish an annual report showing the more important facts as to the schools of the state and of the activities of the board. The state board should inspect and classify the schools of the state, through inspectors nominated by the state superintendent and appointed by the board. The value of this policy is shown in the rapid progress made in the high schools of the state since a policy of inspection and accrediting was inaugurated by the state university. Finally the board should appoint the state superintendent with no restrictions as to residence, sex, or salary. This is discussed at length in a later section.

State Superintendent.

By the term state superintendent is meant the executive officer of the state with the most general educational powers and duties. The title has various forms, such as state superintendent, superintendent of public schools, superintendent of public instruction, commissioner of education, and secretary of the state board of education. In all the states the officer exists with more or less extensive functions.

Term.

In those states where the state superintendent is elected by popular vote the term is either two or four years. In the case of the appointive superintendents the terms are one year, two years, three years, four years, five years, and for an indefinite term. The term of the superintendent should be long enough to make the incumbent sure of oppor-

tunity to inaugurate and carry out a policy—at least four years. The more satisfactory practice to-day seems to be to appoint for an indefinite term with power of removal at any time. Good men accept appointment on such terms. Appointment for an indefinite term makes it less easy for the spoilsman to influence appointments than appointment for a definite term.

Salary.

The salary paid the state superintendent is an important item since it is a partial measure of the attractiveness of the office to men of ability. The following table of salaries of the state superintendents is taken from Manahn's Organization of State Departments of Education, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1915, No. 5, page 40. The salaries of university presidents is from Statistics of State Universities and Other Institutions of Higher Education Partially Supported by the State, United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1913, No. 60, and the figures for city superintendents from The Tangible Rewards of Teaching, the same series, Bulletin 1914, No. 16.

The first column of figures gives the salary of the state superintendent, the second the salary of the president of the state university or some other institution of higher learning supported in whole or in part by the state, and the third column gives the salaries of some of the city superintendents located in the state and who receive as much as the state superintendent of that state or of Missouri. This list is not complete for city superintendents.

Table I.

Salaries of state superintendent, of the president of a state institution of higher education, and of some city superintendents.

State	State Supt.	Pres. Univ.	City Superintendents.
Alabama	3000	6000	
Arizona	3000	4000	
Arkansas	3000	4000	
California	5000	12000	\$4000, 4000, 5600, 5000.
Colorado	3000	5000	6000, 3500, 3000.
Connecticut	3500	4000(1).	3800, 3000, 3600.
Delaware	2000	3000	
Florida	3600	3300	3000.
Georgia	3000	5000	3600, 3600, 4000, 3500.
Idaho	2400	5000	
Illinois	7500	12000	10000, 3000, 3250, 3600.
Indiana	5000	6000	5500, 3900, 4000, 3200.
Iowa	4000	6000	5000, 3500, 3600.
Kansas	2500	6000	3500.
Kentucky	4000	5000	5000, 3000.
Louisiana	5000	5000	5000.
Maine	4000	5000	
Maryland	3000		5000.
Massachusetts	6500	5000(1).	10000, 5000, 3500, 3300.
Michigan	4000	8500	3750, 3000, 3000, 3720.
Minnesota	4500	10000	5500, 5000, 4500.
Mississippi	2500	3500	
Missouri	3000	7500	8000, 3600, 4500, 3000.
Montana	3000	4500	
Nebraska	2000	6000	3300, 3000.
Nevada	3600	5000	
New Hampshire	4000	5000(1).	3000.
New Mexico	3000	4500(1).	
New Jersey	10000	6000(2).	7000, 3600, 5000, 4000.
New York	10000	10000	10000, 3000, 5000, 4000.
North Carolina	3000	4500(1).	
North Dakota	3000	6000	
Ohio	4000	7000	10000, 6000, 5000, 3200.
Oklahoma	2500	7500	
Oregon	3000	5000	4500.
Pennsylvania	5000	8000	9000, 5000, 3300, 4000.
Rhode Island	5000	4000	4000, 3000, 3000.
South Carolina	1900	3500	2200.
South Dakota	1800	4200	
Tennessee	3000	5200	3600, 3600.
Texas	2500	5000	3600, 4000, 3600, 3600.
Utah	3000	5000	4800, 3500.
Vermont	2500	7000	
Virginia	3500	8000	4000.
Washington	3000	6000	7500, 4000, 4000.

State	State Supt.	Pres. Univ.	City Superintendents.
West Virginia	4000	4500	
Wisconsin	5000	7000	\$6000, 3000.
Wyoming	3000	4500	
(1) Agricultural College		(2) Rutgers College.	

The table shows that there are a great many educational positions in the country as attractive as, or more attractive than, the state superintendency of Missouri from the financial point of view. These positions compete with the state superintendency of Missouri for the reason that candidates from Missouri are eligible. In fact, sons of Missouri are occupying some of those positions. This list could be much enlarged by including deans and professors in colleges and universities, city school principals and teachers, normal school principals and others, a very large number of whom are paid as much as, or more than, the superintendent in Missouri.

The lowest salary paid any state superintendent is \$1800.00, in South Dakota. The highest is \$10,000.00, in New York and New Jersey. Missouri and 15 other states, just one third of the total number, pay \$3000.00. Ten states pay less than Missouri, and twenty-two pay more.

In every state but Maryland there is one state supported institution of higher education whose president receives \$3000.00 or more. Only one institution in each state is in the table. The salary given is that of the president of the state university where there is such an institution. Where there is none, the highest salary paid the president of a state supported institution is placed in the table.

In every state except Maryland and Delaware the president of the state supported institution is paid more than the superintendent of Missouri. In Delaware the president receives \$3000.00 the same salary as is paid the superintendent in Missouri.

It is an interesting fact that in only four states does the state superintendent receive more than the president of the state supported university or college in the same state; and in only New York and Louisiana is the pay the same.

It is evident that the salary of the state superintendent in Missouri is too low in comparison with the importance of the office. The office should be the most important educational office in the state, not excepting the presidency of the university or the superintendency of any city school; and the pay should correspond. In Missouri one city superintendent gets \$8000.00 and the president of the state university \$7500.00.

In Missouri the pay of the state superintendent is less than that of the presidents of the normal schools, the deans of the university, some professors, and some city school principals. It is less than that of the petroleum oils inspector, the bank commissioner, the warehouse commissioner, or the members of the public service commission. It is the same as that of the beer inspector, highway commissioner, superintendent of insurance, clerks of the appellate and supreme courts, the supreme court reporter, and the superintendents of six state institutions for the care of insane, feeble-minded, and consumptive, superintendent of the school

for the deaf, and the warden of the state prison. (1). In most of the states and in Missouri the pay is not by any means as great as it should be when the pay of other positions of equal or less social importance is considered. In Missouri the pay of the state superintendent should certainly not be less than \$7500.00, the present salary of the president of the state university, not for the sake of his dignity but to attract the most able men to the office of state superintendent.

Tenure.

In only 15 states is the state superintendent appointed; and in ten of these cases he is appointed by the governor, leaving five cases in which he is appointed by the state board of education. In Missouri and 32 other states he is elected by popular vote on a partizan ticket.

The frequencies of these three methods of selecting the state superintendent are in inverse ratio to their merits. Election by a state board is the best method; election by popular vote is the worst. Selection by the governor may be as good or as bad as either. If there is a state sentiment that the selection should not be controlled by motives of political expediency, and that only an educator of great ability should be chosen, and if the governor is broad minded and capable, then appointment by the governor will work well. But if the superintendency is regarded as a political office, as it is in Missouri, appointment by the

(1). Official Manual of the State of Missouri 1913-14.

governor is likely to be as bad as, or worse than, popular election.

The theory of election by popular vote is based on the belief that only by this method can the citizens control the government. While the theory is sound so far as control of the policy determining branch of the government is concerned, yet experience has demonstrated that popular election of all of the administrative officers is not essential to the popular control of government.

The state superintendent should not be elected by popular vote because the vast majority of voters are not able to judge of a man's fitness for such an office. Missouri has three quarters of a million of voters, and it is safe to say that not twenty-five percent of them could say what qualities a state superintendent should have, and that not one percent know any one of the candidates for state superintendent well enough to say to what degree he is fitted for the office. Such an office requires executive ability and a high degree of training--an expert.

It is a well established practice everywhere that the expert should be selected by a small board or by a single head of a department. All the experts in the United States army and navy, and in the scientific departments of the government are so chosen. The same is true all over Europe. In the cities of the country the positions requiring special training in the fire and police departments, in the departments having to do with the public health, etc., are filled, not by popular election but by appointment. In every

school system in the country, and perhaps in the world, the superintendent and teachers are appointed. In all state educational institutions the same rule obtains.

Even in Missouri, it is recognized that this is the correct principle in most cases. All those offices mentioned above on page 27 are filled by appointment. The superiority of this method was well recognized in the case of the public utilities commission. This, an appointive commission, was created to take the place of the board of railroad and warehouse commissioners, an elective board. The old board for several years demonstrated its inability to do what it was created to do. It is not to be understood that the elective state superintendent is as inefficient as the old board of railroad and warehouse commissioners, but the principle is the same.

Scientific students of political matters are a unit in condemning popular election for such offices. "The more politics gets into the non-political side of administration, the less efficient and less impartial will the work of the executive authority be". (1).

We should elect only those officers "who frame or amend constitutions, who direct political policy; who make, interpret, or repeal the laws; who adopt city ordinances; who control taxation, or who direct the expenditure of money".(2)

(1). Goodnow, Principles of Administrative Law p. 68.

(2). Eaton, The Government of Municipalities p. 460.

"So ignorant are the mass of us, actually and necessarily, about the special qualifications of the several men we vote for, that if the names on the ticket were shifted around, so that the candidate for Congress were running for engineer, the superintendent of education for coroner, and the sheriff for judge, it would be all the same to us in nine cases out of ten." (1).

"On the whole, however, it must be admitted that the American people retains its original confidence in the power of the ballot to do any kind and amount of political work; and our elections continue to be the same farces in which the sovereign voters ratify the blanket tickets prepared for them by the political experts." (2).

"Elaborate your government; place every officer upon his own dear little statute; make it necessary for him to be voted for, and you will not have a democratic government." (3).

Popular election means rotation in office; hence the office cannot become a career. This prevents the highest efficiency not only because a man cannot afford to prepare specially for such positions, but more because the office can be retained usually only four to eight years so that the office does not have the benefit of a long accumulation

(1) Clark, "The Machine Abolished" p.86, quoted by Beard in Political Science Quarterly 24; 603.

(2) Beard, "The Ballot's Burden", Pol. Sc. Qr. 24: 598.

(3) Woodrow Wilson, Civic Problems, an address delivered Mar. 9, 1909 at annual meeting of the St. Louis Civic League.

of experience.

The qualities making for success in the office are not always co-incident with those making for success as a candidate. It does not always happen that the man best fitted for the office is elected; sometimes it is the best campaigner. This fact together with the expense of a canvass keeps some well qualified men from becoming candidates for the office. The popularly elected superintendent is likely to be timid and lack necessary aggression. Measures markedly progressive often incite strong opposition in certain quarters. The superintendent who is to come before the electorate may, and often does, hesitate to push a measure that may cause votes to be cast against him.

Selection by a comparatively small board is the only method found to work satisfactorily in the selection of superintendents, presidents, and teachers of schools, and this has proved generally satisfactory. And it is the only way to secure continuity of policy in the office.

Powers and Duties.

As in the case of the powers of the state board of education it is impossible to make any broad general statement of the powers of the state superintendent. In Connecticut and some other states he performs such duties as the state board may direct, or he is the executive officer of the board. In a large majority of the states, however, his duties are defined by statute. In Arizona the superintendent is secretary of the state board of education, certifi-

cates teachers, superintends the schools of the state, may investigate the financial accounts of any school officer, apportions the state school money, prepares blanks and publishes the school laws and furnishes them to the various local school officers, makes an annual report to the governor, and holds an annual convention of county superintendents. In Alabama, among other powers, he may remove certain local school officers for failure to make required reports, assists in organizing teachers institutes, and supervises the permanent school funds. In Colorado, the state superintendent is president of the state board of education, prepares and furnishes charts to test the sight, hearing, and breathing of school children, and is a member of the board of managers of the state normal schools. In Illinois he construes the school law on the request of school officers. Appeals from the decisions of the county superintendent may be taken to him for final decision, and he shall prescribe minimum standards for school sanitation and building. In Iowa he frames the course of study for public schools and inspects and classifies them. In Massachusetts he informs the people of the conditions and needs of the schools over the state by means of circulars, and pamphlets, and lectures. In Minnesota he prescribes some of the conditions to be met by schools receiving special state aid. In New Jersey he examines pupils to test their scholastic attainments, and their mental ability. In New York he may withhold from any district or city its share of the public money of the state wilfully disobeying any provision of law

or any decision or order of the state board or of the superintendent. And in Pennsylvania the superintendent may condemn any unsanitary school building. In none of the states does the state superintendent possess all the powers mentioned above, yet in all he has the general supervision of the schools of the state and some more specific powers in addition.

In Missouri the state superintendent apportions the state school moneys, is a member of the state board of education which has control of the permanent school funds, prepares and furnishes blank forms and compilations of the school laws, issues certificates to teach, and prepares questions to be used in the county examinations for certificates, but does not grade the papers written by applicants for second and third grade certificates; appoints his assistants, inspectors, and clerks; advises local school officers as to the school law on request; inspects and standardizes high schools; holds an annual convention of county superintendents; lays down some of the conditions to be met by schools receiving special state aid; and makes an annual report to the governor.

It is to be noted that in most cases including Missouri no provision is made to insure co-operation between the state board of education and the state superintendent. The superintendent is in every way independent of the board. If he chooses to play politics and be a routine administrator there is no remedy except at the end of his term; and even this is of little force since the great mass of voters are in no

position to know what sort of administration has been carried on. This lack of fixed responsibility and lack of relations to the state board would be a serious evil if the state board had extensive powers, as it should have, but in states, such as Missouri, where the board is ex officio and has very limited powers the superintendent must necessarily be independent of the board. Following the suggestion made above, to give the state board large powers, the superintendent should be the executive officer of the board which determines the educational policy of the state, just as the city school superintendent is the executive officer of the city school board which determines the educational policy of the city. It is the only system found to work in the city. Even a timid superintendent would do much better since he has the board, upon whose power his tenure depends, to shoulder the responsibility as well as to urge him on to do things.

Summary.

The examination into the practices in the various states reveals great variety in the central administration. It shows Missouri with one of the weakest systems in the union, since few powers are vested in the state department. It has been suggested that the state board should be appointed by the governor rather than be chosen by popular vote or be ex officio. That the state superintendent should be appointed by the state board on the nomination of the superintendent. That the state department should have much more extensive powers, such as concerns courses of study, inspection of schools, certification of teachers and superinten-

dents, supervision over the construction and sanitation of buildings, and the determination of boundaries of local districts. That in all these matters the state board should act through the state superintendent. That the members of the state board should receive no compensation except traveling expenses. And that the pay of the state superintendent should be fixed by the state board and greatly increased over the present figures to make it equal to or greater than that of any other school officer in his state, to the end that men of the highest ability may be attracted to the office.

CHAPTER II.

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION.

This section deals with the local school administration. The units are the small district, the township, and the county. The city is usually a unit with its own board, superintendent, and tax system, but it will not be discussed in this paper.

Supervision.

The Unit.

In Nevada and Virginia, the unit for supervision is a district made up of one or more counties. While in those states in which the county is a unit for any activities relating to schools there is great lack of uniformity, yet a large majority of them have a county superintendent. In New England, the town is the important unit of local government so there we find the town or the union town superintendency. In New York, the unit of supervision is the "commissioner district."

What is the proper unit for supervision? In New England, the township is the unit; but small townships may unite to employ a joint supervisor where the number of teachers in each township is too small to justify the employment of a supervisor for each. The township as the unit of supervision works well in New England where the population is dense and where townships may unite if their total number of teachers is not less than twenty or thirty

nor more than fifty or sixty. This plan gives a reasonable number of teachers and a reasonable amount of territory to each supervisor. This plan would be difficult to put into operation in states outside New England where schools are not organized with the township unit, for the reason that it would involve the co-operation of so many different districts boards -- from 20 to 60 for each superintendent elected. It might work in Indiana where the schools of each township are under the control of one trustee. But in Missouri, where there are usually three directors to each rural teacher, it would be too cumbersome; since it would involve harmonious action of from sixty to one hundred and eighty men.

The unit adopted in Virginia and Nevada, where the supervisory districts includes more than one county, is too large to be adopted by states situated as is Missouri with fifty to one hundred and more teachers to the county.

The best supervisory unit for Missouri is the county, because the people are accustomed to county government. Then the single board can determine the work for each supervisor with reference to the needs of the whole county, a thing impossible with the township unit. It is easily possible under the township organization to have a small township left out.

The county board should appoint supervisors to make one to every thirty or forty teachers in the county and assign each supervisor, including the superintendent, to either a separate district or, as is probably a better plan, to the

supervision of some special work as is done now in the cities where there are district supervisors and also supervisors of primary work, of reading, etc. To secure harmony and efficiency, these supervisors should be appointed by the county board on the nomination of the county superintendent and should have the same minimum qualifications as the county superintendent.

Tenure of the Superintendent.

The county superintendent holds by direct election in Missouri and many other states. He is chosen by the county board in Louisiana and some others. He is appointed by the governor in Delaware; by the state board of education in New Jersey, Nevada and Virginia. It is to be noted that in the two latter cases, the supervisory district includes more than one county. In Indiana, he is chosen by a convention of the local school board members, and in Iowa a board composed of a representative from each local board. He is appointed by the county court in Tennessee. In the New England states, where the superintendency district is the town or town union, the superintendent is chosen by the town board or union board, except in Vermont, where he is chosen by the state board. And in New York, where the supervision unit is the commissioner district, he is chosen by the board of the district.

It is seen that in a majority of the states the office of superintendent is filled by popular vote. An elaborate discussion is not necessary here. Everything that was said against the popular election of the state superintendent

applies here. The good campaigner gets the office, and it is not always that the good campaigner and the good school superintendent are combined in the same personality. There is one fact that makes direct election of the county superintendent more objectionable than that of the state superintendent, namely, the county superintendent must be a resident of the county at the time of his election; and often there is no resident in the county with the necessary training and experience for the position. This is true in more than one county of Missouri.

In view of these considerations it would seem that the county superintendent should be elected by the county board which should be free to choose the superintendent regardless of residence. To insure the selection of men well trained for the position, the state board should prescribe certain minimum requirements which should be not less than the requirements of Teacher Training Course Instructors in the high schools; and the county boards should have power to elect only such candidates as are certified by the state superintendent as being so qualified.

Term of County Superintendent.

In states having such officer the term of the county superintendent is two, three, or four years. In Maryland the term seems to be indefinite. Probably the best term for both the county superintendent and the assistant superintendent would be one year on first appointment and when he has demonstrated his worth make the term indefinite with

power of removal at any time. After he has so demonstrated his capacity he should not be worried by frequent elections. The important point in this connection is that the indefinite term would make the position attractive to a high type of men.

On the other hand, the term should not be so long as to tempt the superintendent to grow careless in his work, as sometimes happens with a man whose position is secure. Removal of a man who has become unfit should be easy, and the easiest method is by failure to elect.

Pay of County Superintendent.

This is perhaps the weakest place in the whole system. Popular election is bad, but it is not impossible to choose well qualified men in this way; a short term is bad but this does not absolutely prevent high-class men from going into the work. But with the low salaries paid in many of the states it is absolutely impossible to get the best men for county superintendents. In Wyoming the pay ranges from \$500 to \$1000 a year, in Florida from \$600 to \$2400. In Missouri the salary depends on the population of the county and ranges from \$700 to \$1500 a year. In addition to this, the superintendent in Missouri gets a part of the examination fees, but to offset this, he usually has to pay his travelling expenses. The maximum salary, \$1500, is paid in only four counties; while 491 positions in the public schools pay \$1500 or more. Besides this there are numerous positions in the normal schools and the state university which pay as much or more, not to take account of the posi-

tions in the private institutions of the state which pay as well or better. A comparison of the pay of the county superintendent in Missouri, a position to be filled presumably by an educational expert, with the pay allowed the county clerk, a position often held by men with no more than an elementary school training, would emphasize the low pay of the county superintendent. The pay of the county clerk ranges from \$1100 to \$3000, while that of the county superintendent would range from \$700 to \$1500, plus the fees; and, as pointed out above the fees are, to some extent, balanced by the traveling expenses.

In the matter of salary the county superintendency should be put upon the same basis as the city superintendency. The board should have the power to fix the salary at a figure that would attract men of ability commensurate with the importance of the position.

The County Board.

Those states whose county board performs only such duties as are often given to county superintendents, such as examining teachers and formulating courses of study, will not be considered in this selection.

Tenure.

The manner of selecting the members of the county board varies greatly. In Louisiana and some other states, the members are elected by popular vote. This number includes Nebraska where the county system is optional and for certain counties. The members are appointed by the governor in

Delaware and Maryland; by a body composed of the chairmen of the school district trustees in Alabama and Ohio; by the grand jury in Georgia. In Mississippi, they are appointed by the county superintendent and ratified by the county board of supervisors. In North Carolina, they are appointed by the general assembly. In South Carolina, the county superintendent is a member and two other members are appointed by the state board of education; and in Tennessee they are appointed by the county court.

Popular election is the method of selection most often used. This is probably the method to be preferred in Missouri, where there are no large numbers of illiterate voters as there are in nearly all the states where a different method prevails, and where the population is usually sufficiently sparse to enable the candidates to be fairly well known to the voters. As good results would probably be had as by any other method, especially if the election is placed at the time of the spring school meetings and only one member is elected at a time.

Term.

The term varies from two to six years. Some of the typical states and the terms of members of the county board are: South Carolina, 2; Maryland, 3 (for some members); Utah 4; Wisconsin, 5; and North Carolina, 6. The terms should be long enough for the members to acquire familiarity with the problems of the position quite a while before the end of their terms. The terms should expire in succession so there

will always be a majority who are familiar with the work. Probably the best arrangement would be for one member to retire each year, making the number of years in the term the same as the number of members. This is substantially the principle already in practice in the city and district school boards and in the boards of control of the state educational institutions of Missouri.

Number of Members.

County boards are, as a rule, small, six being the largest definite number specified in the statutes. This is the number in Maryland in some counties. Some of the states have five, among which are Alabama and Georgia. Some have three, including Delaware and Florida; and in others, the number depends upon other things, such as the number of jury wards in the county, as in Louisiana. Probably five would be a number sufficiently large and still small enough to do business easily and to locate responsibility definitely.

Township Board.

The township board is not usually found in the counties having a county board. Indiana, North Carolina, and Ohio are exceptions to this rule; in Indiana the county board is composed of members of the township board; in Ohio the members are elected by the presidents of the township boards; and in North Carolina, the members of the township board are appointed by the county board. In all cases except North Carolina, just noted, the members of the township board hold by direct election.

Number of Members.

The number of members of the township boards varies from one in Indiana to as many as twelve in Connecticut. In the latter state the number may be either three, six, nine, or twelve. In Ohio, Michigan, and Pennsylvania the number is five; in other states it is three. The term is three or four years in the majority of cases.

District Board.

Powers.

The district for some purpose is almost universal. The district board may have full power to make rules and regulations for the government of the schools, acquire and own real estate, erect buildings, purchase supplies, appoint teacher, determine the course of study and adopt text-books. At the other extreme, the district board may have little or no authority beyond making small repairs and having custody of the building.

Tenure.

In nearly all the states the members of district boards are chosen by popular election. In the states not choosing by popular election the district board is the representative of the board of the larger unit -- county in Maryland, majes-terial district in Virginia, or township in North Carolina, as the case may be, the larger district having the important powers and duties. Popular election is perhaps best in Missouri since the habit is established.

Number of Members.

In some states the number on the district board is five,

as in Ohio; in others it is one, as in Indiana; in others it is either one or three, as in New York; in the majority of states the number is three, as in Missouri. Three is, perhaps, too great a number for a board with such limited powers as should be possessed by the district board. The duties are and should be chiefly of an administrative nature; and in administration, the single executive is more efficient than a board. Then if there is only one member, there is no difficulty in fixing responsibility as there would be in case the number is greater, another important matter in securing efficiency.

Term of District Board.

The term of the district board varies from one to six years. In Indiana it is one year; in New York it is one, two or three; in others it is two as in South Carolina; in a large number it is three as in Missouri; in others it is four as in Alabama, and in Pennsylvania it is six. In Missouri, it is three years and there seems to be no reason for changing; the incumbent meets his constituents every day and thus is sufficiently under their control so that a shorter term is not necessary; while the trouble of electing is not great enough to render an election every year or every three years burdensome.

Powers and Duties of Local Boards.

It was thought best to discuss the remaining powers and duties of the local boards in one section rather than in connection with the organization of each unit. The more important powers are those of taxation, erection and equipment

of buildings, making rules and regulations for the control of the school, the appointment of teachers, determining the course of study, adopting text-books, certification of teachers, supervision, changing boundaries of districts, including consolidation. Taxation is so important that it will be taken up separately. Supervision was discussed in another connection, as was certification. It was pointed out above that the county is the best unit for supervision and the state for certification under present conditions in Missouri.

Building and Equipment.

In a few of the states, the county provides the building and equipment, as in Florida; in others these items are provided by the township, as in Indiana. In a majority of the states the districts provide the building and equipment, as in Missouri. In some of these states the buildings must be erected according to plans furnished or approved by the state department, or the building must meet certain minimum requirements laid down by the state, as in the case of Illinois. In many cases, however, the local board is free to construct any sort of building, with the result that thousands of buildings are erected with very poor provisions for ventilation, heating and lighting. In Missouri, there are no restrictions on the district board. The boxcar type of building is the rule; windows on each side give cross light, and no means of ventilation is provided; the room is usually heated by means of an unjacketed stove in the

middle of the room. Unscreened privys with open vaults are all but universal; and the well is located near, so that the water is liable to contamination. In Missouri the district probably should continue to provide the building and equipment. It is more economical; the tendency to extravagance in buildings where the money is furnished by a large unit is well illustrated in the log-rolling building appropriation bills in Congress. Another reason for local control is to preserve local initiative and pride; and better care will probably be taken of the property if the local community is responsible for the cost.

In view of the present low standards it seems best that the state department should prescribe minimum requirements as to lighting, heating, ventilation, and sanitation; and until county superintendents are better trained than at present, should furnish or approve all plans and specifications for new buildings.

Management and Control of Schools.

In a majority of the states the management and control, that is, making general rules and regulations with reference to the school, is in the hands of the district board, as in Missouri. In other states it is in the hands of the township or magisterial board, as in New England; and in the remainder of the states it is vested in the county board, as in Florida. In Kentucky the state board is given power to make the rules and regulations, but their administration is necessarily in the hands of the local authorities.

In Missouri, control is completely in the hands of the

district board. This arrangement is not entirely satisfactory for two reasons. The local board of three members with control over a single teacher and a mere handful of pupils sometimes make petty, unwise restrictions, such as relate to the manner of seating or as to what games may be played. In the second place, and more frequently, the board does nothing toward enforcing law and order in the school, with the result that the teacher is unable to control the school. In view of these facts, it is suggested that rules and regulations be made or approved by the county board with authority on the part of the teacher to suspend a pupil for disorderly conduct, subject to appeal to the county superintendent and finally to the county board.

Appointment of Teachers.

In a majority of the states, the district board employs the teachers; in every such state the teacher must have been certificated by either the state or county; this is the case in Missouri. In other states the township board appoints the teacher, as in Indiana; in others the teacher is appointed by the county board, in some cases on the nomination of the district board, as in Mississippi; and in Kentucky, the county is divided into school divisions and the division board elects the teacher on nomination of the district board.

In Missouri, each district board has a free hand in the matter of the selection of teachers, subject only to the requirement that the teacher have a county or state certificate. A more elaborate discussion of the teacher problems

will be given in another section, but it should be noted here that this method of appointment results in great insecurity of tenure and frequent changes of position on the part of the teachers. This is especially true in the rural schools of the state. It is notorious that the average rural school board member is not competent to select a teacher for his school. Even in the city, where the average board member is a better trained and more widely experienced man than the rural school board member, experience has demonstrated that it is not wise to leave the selection of teachers to the unaided judgment of the board. If it is necessary that the city teachers should be appointed only on the recommendation of the superintendent, it would seem necessary that country teachers be appointed in a similar way. The best method for Missouri is, therefore, for the county superintendent, who should know each teacher and each school, to nominate a teacher for each position and the county or the district board to elect. The county superintendent should practically select the teacher. If this were the rule, the nomination might be made to the district board instead of the county board. This would have the advantage of not requiring such a shifting of formal powers as would be required if the county boards made the formal appointment. On the other hand, this method would make it difficult for the superintendent to discuss the candidates personally with each board, because of the great number of boards. A plan analagous to that followed in Kentucky is

possible. The board members within each high school district, to be discussed later, might constitute a board for the appointment of the teachers of the various elementary schools of that district, appointment to be made only upon the nomination of the county superintendent. This would bring the appointment closer home than if made by the county board, and would permit a discussion of the needs of each district and the qualities of each candidate by the educational expert and the representative of each locality. Another possibility is for the local board to nominate and for the county board or the county superintendent to appoint. This is open to the same objection, to a large degree, that appointment by the local board is open to. The candidate nominated is likely to be appointed unless there is very serious reasons against appointment. For this reason the better results are likely to follow from nomination by the educational expert. Either of the suggested changes would prevent the frequent change of position that is so prevalent in the rural school to-day.

Course of Study.

In a majority of the states the statutes either enumerate a minimum list of subjects to be taught or make it the duty of the state superintendent to draw up a course of study. In some, this duty is left to the county, as in California; in others, to the township, as in New Hampshire; and in others, the district has a free hand, as in Colorado. In the broad outlines for a minimum list of subjects there

are advantages in uniformity within the state. On the other hand, courses of study have become pretty well standardized, through similarity of training of those who form such courses and through text-books and published courses, so that, no matter who frames the courses put into the hands of the teachers, there will be a large degree of uniformity. I can see no objection to the present practice in Missouri, where the course is outlined by the state superintendent, with the expectation that the county superintendent adapt it to conditions in his own county. This gives as much uniformity as is necessary and at the same time, affords sufficient flexibility to meet local needs.

Selection of Text-books.

In several states, uniform text-books are selected for the schools by a state board, as in Alabama; in some cases this is done by a board appointed solely for this purpose; in other cases it is done by the state board of education. In other states, a county board makes the selection, as in Missouri; in other states, books are selected by the township board, as in Maine; and in still other states, the matter is left to the district, as in Illinois. In a few states, text-books are free. Missouri has county uniformity, with free text-books if the voters of the district so decide. County uniformity of text-books is superior to adoption by the district or township chiefly because families frequently move from one district to another necessitating an expense for a new set of books, and because

dealers where district or township adoption is the rule are under the necessity of handling several series of books of the same grade and subject. The same objection would hold to county adoption as compared to state uniformity though not to the same extent, since there is more frequent change from one district to another within the county than there is from one county to another. So far as the quality and price of books are concerned there is no particular advantage either way, for the reason that prices are uniform and the books advertized by all publishers are of comparatively high grade quality. Missouri's free text-book^{law} will probably soon take the matter of uniformity out of the field of controversy. The state superintendent should publish from time to time a list of approved text-books, and district boards should be required to purchase only books contained in these lists. This would insure that books would be kept up to standard as to quality, and that higher prices would not be charged to districts in the state than are charged anywhere else.

Change of Boundaries.

By the change of boundaries is meant any transfer of territory from one district to another. It includes not only such cases as moving the boundary line which separates two districts, but it also includes cases where two or more districts are merged into one -- so-called consolidation. In some states the matter is entirely in the hands of the

county administration, as in Idaho; in others, it is in the hands of the townships or magisterial districts, as in Maine; in others, the districts concerned decide the matter, as in Missouri; and in others both the county and district have a voice. It may be the county board takes the initiative and the voters of the districts have a referendum, as in Georgia; in other cases, a certain per cent of the voters living in the districts may petition the county board for the change and the board acts on the petition, as in Nebraska.

In Missouri, changes are made by a vote of the voters in the districts concerned. Even here the county superintendent is a factor. In proceeding to consolidate, the county superintendent determines the boundaries of the proposed consolidated district; and in other cases appeal lies to him where the districts do not agree as to the proposed changes. The law is not satisfactory in Missouri. It permits of a too easy formation of new districts too small to support a school economically. More than half the districts of the state have a valuation of less than \$50,000 more than one-fourth have an enrollment under twenty-five. More than one-half have an average attendance under twenty-five; while more than one-third have a term of less than eight months, the minimum specified by law in case a levy of forty cents on the hundred dollars valuation will pay the cost of an eight month's term.

The following tables from the 1914 report of the state superintendent of Missouri sets forth the facts.

Table II.

Valuation of School Districts in Missouri.

Number of districts having assessed valuation:	
Less than \$10,000.....	54
\$10,000 to \$20,000.....	575
\$20,000 to \$30,000.....	1448
\$30,000 to \$40,000.....	1468
\$40,000 to \$50,000.....	1467
\$50,000 to \$60,000.....	1345
\$60,000 to \$80,000.....	1480
\$80,000 or more.....	2000
Total.....	<u>9,837</u>

Table III.

Enrollment of School Districts in Missouri.

Districts enrolling:	
Under 15.....	606
15 to 25.....	1,898
25 to 40.....	3,431
40 to 60.....	2,271
Over 60.....	1,631
Total.....	<u>9,837</u>

Table IV.

Average Attendance of School Districts in Missouri.

Districts having average attendance:	
Under 10.....	538
10 to 15.....	1,384
15 to 25.....	3,989
25 to 40.....	2,505
Over 40.....	1,421
Total.....	<u>9,837</u>

Table V.

Length of Term of School Districts in Missouri.

School having:	
Under 4 months.....	34
4 to 6 months.....	542
6 to 8 months.....	3,239
8 months.....	5,387
More than 8 months.....	635
Total.....	<u>9,837</u>

Special state aid is given to districts with a valua-

tion under \$50,000 if a levy of sixty-five cents on the one hundred dollars' valuation is not sufficient to run an eight months' school. Enough is given, up to a maximum grant of \$200, to the district to enable it to pay for an eight months' term. A district with an assessed valuation of \$60,000 can maintain an eight months' term without special state aid with the present scale of teachers' salaries. But if the voters wish, they may divide the district and have two districts with a valuation of \$30,000 each, which is not sufficient to run the school for eight months; so they might receive state aid to a total amount of \$400. Thus the voters of this district may practically vote a tax of \$400 on the rest of the state. Changes such as this should not be permitted to the local area without the approval of a representative of the people of the whole state, that is, no such changes should be permitted without the approval of an expert in the office of the state superintendent. For this same reason no district should be permitted to extend its boundaries at the expense of another without such consent. No change should be made that does not aid the whole and make for the efficiency of all the schools concerned; and of this, the judgment of an expert able to take account of interests other than the narrowly local ones is the only safe guide.

Not only should districts not be permitted to further subdivide without the approval of higher authority, but also those districts already in existence with few pupils, small

territory, and low valuation should be abolished and the territory combined with other districts to make districts with more pupils and larger valuation. These changes should be made by the county board with the approval of the county superintendent and a representative from the office of the state superintendent. It would probably be unwise to make the changes in Missouri all at once. Probably a system of levying and apportioning taxes can be devised so as to make it worth while for small districts to dissolve and merge with others. Or a rule permitting pupils to attend a school in any district might lead to the desertion of the weaker schools. Then a rule such as is found in many states that schools not reaching a certain minimum attendance shall be abolished would throw the responsibility on the districts and would bring the desired result with a minimum of friction. Certain it is, that under the present school revenue system these weak districts can not maintain an efficient school, and any system that would provide sufficient revenue would throw an unnecessary burden on the state or county.

That high school facilities should be provided for boys and girls in rural communities is assumed without discussion. They must either leave home to go to high school or the high school must be brought within their reach -- within four or five miles at the farthest. Because of unwillingness or inability, many parents do not send their children away from home to go to high school. A study by George W. Knorr

published in 1910 shows the situation in parts of Ashtabula and Trumbull Counties, Ohio, on this point and are very probably typical. In three consolidated townships maintaining a high school within reach of the pupils, the average daily attendance of high school pupils was twenty-nine; while in the unconsolidated townships with approximately an equal school population the number was four -- more than seven times as many students in high schools where there was a school near home as there was where children had to leave home to attend high school. The only way to get children into high school is to put the school near their home.

Missouri's method of doing this is by consolidation. While this is very important for those districts that have consolidated, it is of no value to the boys and girls outside the consolidated districts. The latter are in an enormous majority as there are only eighty-three consolidated schools in the state. (1). The present local option plan of consolidation does not and can not in the near future meet the situation.

The county board, with the approval of the county superintendent and asⁿ expert from the state department should lay off the county into high school districts in each of which should be maintained a high school so that every boy and girl would be in reach of some high school and which should meet the minimum requirements of the state board of education.

(1). Report of State Superintendent 1915.

The local high school board could be made up of the trustees of the district schools if, as was suggested above, there is only one trustee to the district, or by the presidents of the boards if there are three as at present. A better plan would be a high school board elected at large, thus making ward politics less likely to interfere with the efficiency of the board. The local high school board should have the care and custody of the building and other property of the high school. They might have the appointment of high school teachers on nomination of the county superintendent, and in general, have the same functions with reference to the high school that the common school district board has with reference to the elementary school.

Here, as in the case of the local districts, building, ground, equipment and supplies should be furnished by the district served by the school, subject, always, to meeting minimum requirements of the state and county departments. This will give opportunity to develop local community spirit and initiative; money spent by the locality is more likely to be spent economically if it is raised in the community than if furnished by someone else; and more care will be put on the protection of the property than if it is furnished from the outside.

Relation of the City and Villiage Schools to the County Systems.

This problem is one of considerable importance. The county system as it has been described is essentially rural,

and in consequence, only schools with rural interests should, as a rule, be under its control. On the other hand, a centralization of control is necessary because local control with a great number of inefficient boards does not secure good schools. With these two propositions in mind, we may safely say that those city schools with a teaching force large enough to occupy the full time of a superintendent and with resources great enough to secure competent, well trained superintendents should not be under the jurisdiction of the county board. All schools employing fifty or more teachers would be in this class. We may also say that all schools that are not able to employ a well-trained superintendent should be under the control of the county board. Schools employing less than twenty teachers would likely be in this class. An examination of the report from the schools employing from seventeen to twenty-five teachers, both inclusive, shows a salary range from \$1100 to \$1800 for the superintendent, and all but two of the superintendents do some teaching. These figures would indicate that from the standpoint of efficiency of supervision schools with less than twenty teachers might well be in the county system.

Table VI.

Number of teachers, salary of the superintendent, etc., in Missouri schools employing from 17 to 25 teachers.

<u>City</u>	<u>No. Teachers</u>	<u>Salary of Supt.</u>	<u>Supt. teaches</u>
Aurora	23	\$1200	"
Boonville	22	1650	"
Butler	21	1323	"
Cameron	19	1404	"
Charleston	20	1503	"

<u>City</u>	<u>No. Teachers</u>	<u>Salary of Supt.</u>	<u>Supt.</u>
Clayton	20	\$2000	doesn't teach
Farmington	18	1395	teaches
Flat River	25	1503	"
Kennett	18	1503	"
Lamar	20	1602	"
Lebanon	17	1200	"
Louisiana	24	1350	"
Macon	22	1701	"
Marceline	20	1098	"
Monette	24	1503	"
St. Charles	21	1350	doesn't teach
Sikeston	21	1503	teaches
Slater	19	1200	"
Windsor	18	1125	"

On the other hand, many schools in the state with as few as ten teachers have made great progress under the superintendency of aggressive men. It might not be wise to deprive such schools of their anatomy.

What shall be the status of schools employing between ten and fifty teachers? The reasonable solution would be for the board or the voters of the cities in question to decide whether they should employ a superintendent meeting the requirements laid down by the state board as to training and experience, or to be a part of the county system under the supervision of the county superintendent.

Summary of Local Administration.

The unit for supervision in Missouri should be the county. There should be a county board of five men elected at large on a non-partizan ticket, one each year at the spring school election for a term of five years. This board should elect the county superintendent, who should meet certain requirements as to training and experience to

be certified to by the state superintendent but with no restrictions as to sex, residence, or salary. The county board should, on the nomination of the county superintendent, elect enough assistants to the county superintendent to insure efficient administration and supervision of the schools. It should determine the course of study for all schools in the county subject to the requirements of the state board, and make rules and regulations for the government of the schools. The county board should also determine the location of high schools, the boundaries of high school districts and local districts, on the advice of the county superintendent and the state department, whenever district boundaries are to be changed. At first, local district boundaries should be changed only on the initiative of the district. Later, when the people shall have become accustomed to a county board, it should assume the initiative and establish district lines so as to secure the most efficient and economical administration. Along with this power should go that of levying a county tax for the payment of the cost of supervision.

The township as a unit of school administration is not desirable in Missouri because it is too small for a supervisory unit and the people are not accustomed to it in general administration except in a very few counties.

The local district should be preserved because the people are not ready to give it up. The district board should be elected as at present, and the number reduced to one. The district board should levy taxes; employ the teachers

on the nomination of the county superintendent; erect, equip, and care for buildings and furnish supplies, including text-books, meeting at least the minimum standards set by the state board.

CHAPTER III.

THE TEACHER.

The 1914 Missouri report of public schools shows that 19,440 teachers were employed for the year 1914-15. Of these, 4813 were in cities employing fifty or more teachers; 4,613 in other cities and towns maintaining some sort of high school; and 10,014 in districts not maintaining a high school. The training of Missouri's rural teachers is poor as compared to that of teachers in the cities of Missouri, as compared to that of teachers in other places, and as compared to the training usually considered desirable by educators.

Qualifications.

Certificates.

It is impossible to determine the exact amount of training teachers of Missouri have, from the report of the State Superintendent. The kind of certificate does not tell much. The state certificate in many cases represents a college degree -- eight years above the elementary school. It also, in some cases, represents the rural certificate, a certificate issued on the completion of the rural course of two or three years above the elementary school in the normal schools. And there are many others between these extremes. The normal school certificates are almost as varied. In some cases they represent four years above the

high school or eight above the elementary school, and in other cases, even less than a four year high school course. The holder of a county certificate may hold a college degree, or, as in many cases, the holder may never have attended any school beyond the elementary grades.

Another disturbing factor is the fact that Kansas City and St. Louis report only city certificates and St. Joseph reports many such. Any comparisons must take account of this. We know that the city certificate of St. Louis represents at least six years above the elementary school, or the equivalent of the regular normal diploma. But the Kansas City certificate is uncertain.

Even with all the uncertainties, we may be sure that on the whole the county certificate represents a lower grade of scholarship than either the state or the normal school certificate. The tables show the small number of county certificates that are held by the rural school teachers, as compared to those of the city and town teachers.

Table VII.

Comparison of training of teachers in various schools of Missouri.

Schools with 50 or more teachers.	Certificates.				Yrs. High Sch. Trg.			
	State.	N.S.	Co.	Total.	1	2	3	4
Carthage	13	19	26	58	2	1	2	53
Columbia	36	5	18	59	2	6	12	25
Hannibal	15	18	57	88	1	2	12	73
Independence	10	34	21	65	2	4	7	44
Joplin	25	30	130	185	3	10	12	157
Kansas City				1249	30	58	98	875
St. Joseph	27	25	0	368	0	19	22	237
St. Louis	0	0	0	2341	0	0	0	2341
Sedalia	20	23	50	93	1	5	5	79

Schools with 50 or more teachers.	Certificates.				Yrs. High Sch. Trg.			
	State.	N.S.	Co.	Total.	1	2	3	4
Springfield	49	68	75	192	4	10	12	166
Webb City	7	26	27	60	0	5	5	40
Webster Groves	19	28	8	55	1	1	2	51
Totals	221	276	412	4813	46	121	189	4231

Total Smaller Towns.	721	1581	2308	4613	242	535	468	2577
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Rural	484	678	8852	10014	1835	1693	1087	2079
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Normal Training -- weeks.

	8	16	32	2 years
Carthage	9	7	10	12
Columbia	2	5	13	33
Hannibal	13	10	7	33
Independence	0	11	12	32
Joplin	36	24	38	55
Kansas City	60	92	219	381
St. Joseph	0	0	150	218
St. Louis	0	0	0	2341
Sedalia	6	13	23	32
Springfield	13	2	73	62
Webb City	11	28	7	6
Webster Groves	2	1	4	48
Totals	152	193	556	3253

Total Smaller Towns.	544	651	659	1671
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Rural	1978	1467	1038	909
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Normal School and High School.

The amount of high school and normal school training does not show accurately the amount of training teachers have had, for the reason that only totals for each are given. We know that many go to a normal school without first taking a high school course, and also that many go to the normal school from the high school. It is impossible to be more definite from the report. However, the report shows the tendency of the best trained teachers to go to

the city and town, and the poorly trained to go to the country. There are more teachers with less than four years' high school or two years' normal school in the country than in the town, and the less training the greater their number in the country. On the other hand, there are more with four years of high school training or two years of normal school training in the large cities than either in the small cities and towns or in the country.

The average number of years spent in the high school by those country teachers who have attended high school is just a little under two and a half, while for the group of large cities it is a little under three and nine-tenths. In only one case does the report enable us to determine the amount of training received by the teachers. The city of St. Louis reports every teacher with four years of high school and two years or more of normal school training. This enables us to say that no teacher in that city has had less than six years training above the elementary school.

The Annual Report of the Massachusetts Board of Education for 1911-12 page XLIV shows that of the 15,979 teachers employed in the state, 10,831 are graduates of either a college or a normal school. The Annual Report of the Education Department of the State of New York for 1914, pages 47, 48, states that the qualifications for teachers in all cities and in villiages of five thousand or more population is a four year high school course and two years of training in a normal school. There are 25,000 of these teachers and

all but 2,000 meet these requirements. Outside these cities and villages there are 16,550 teachers, 4100 of these have higher certificates representing six years training above the elementary school, leaving 12,450 with less than six years. Thus of the 41,550 teachers required in the state, 27,100 or nearly two-thirds have had six years of training above the elementary school. In California, the number of graduates of colleges and normal schools, that is, teachers with six or more years of training above the elementary school, constitutes 48 per cent of the total number of teachers in the state, according to the article by Professor Cubberly on "California" in Monroe's Encyclopedia of Education.

In Prussia, teachers for the elementary schools are given three years of training in a training college, entrance to which requires three years of study above the elementary school -- six years in all above the elementary school. At the end of this period of training, the student is given a temporary appointment, and after two years of service he may come up for an examination in all the subjects of instruction of the elementary school, with special reference to the pedagogical side. Success in this examination is a prerequisite to a permanent appointment. (1).

Practically all of the city training schools in the

(1). Winch, Notes on German Schools. p. 24, 25.

United States require four years of high school training for entrance and two years of training in the school for graduation. In all but six of the sixty-seven listed by Manny, the course is two or more years in length. (1).

A similar table in Harlon Updegraff's Teachers Certificates issued under General State Laws and Regulations, p.176f. shows a similar practice among the state normal schools of the country. (2).

Summary.

This section shows that about two-thirds of the teachers in the twelve largest schools of Missouri have had two years or more normal school training, about one-third of the teachers in the other towns of the state have had such training, less than one-third of all the teachers of the state, and that less than one-tenth of the rural school teachers have had such training. It also shows that California, Massachusetts, and New York have a much larger proportion of their teachers with normal school training. It is pointed out that the minimum requirements for teachers in many of the cities of this country and for all schools in Prussia (and Prussia is three-fifths Germany) is six years' training above the elementary school. Finally it is shown that the requirement for graduation from practically all the state normal schools and city training schools is six years or more above the elementary school. These facts are present-

 (1). City Training Schools for Teachers, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bul. 1914, No. 47.

(2). U. S. Bureau of Education, Bul. 1911, No. 18.

ed with the hope that it will be unquestioned that six years above the elementary school is the least amount of training that should be required of teachers of the elementary schools, and that the condition of the schools of Missouri and especially of the rural schools, in this respect, is very far short of this standard.

Length of Service.

Another condition of efficiency in teaching is length of service -- both the total amount of time spent in teaching and the amount of time spent in the one position. Just how much importance should be attached to this condition is questionable; whether its influence is "nil" after the first year, as J. L. Meriam concludes, (1). or whether the efficiency of the teacher increases for five or six years as suggested by Professor Coffman. (2). The fact remains that a high degree of efficiency is impossible without some years of experience. The point is not whether each year's experience does normally result in a higher efficiency; but rather, is a high degree of efficiency possible without several years' experience? The answer of common opinion to the question must be accepted until a scientific study may be made. That answer is that a high degree of efficiency is impossible without considerable experience.

Another opinion which will be accepted is that a long period of service in one position means a higher efficiency

 (1). Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching, p 111.

(2). The Social Composition of the Teaching Population, p. 43.

than would be possible if frequent changes of position are made. This assumption would certainly be justified if the teachers were well prepared to study the communities which they serve and to give the children the training needed by children in such communities. It is also certain that a happy adaptation of instruction to community needs cannot be effected except by the teacher who remains long enough in the community to understand and sympathize with the community life and needs.

The following tables from the Missouri Report of Public Schools already cited, show that the majority of the rural schools are in the hands of teachers lacking in both amount of experience and length of service in the present position.

Table VIII.

Comparison of town and rural school teachers in Missouri, (a) amount of experience, (b) length of service in one school.

(a) Amount of Experience.	Towns	Country	State
None	633	2,164	2,797
One year	679	1,685	2,364
Two years	679	1,498	2,177
Three years	819	1,089	1,908
Four years	714	839	1,553
Five years	711	859	1,570
Six to nine years	1,861	941	2,802
Ten or more years	3,330	939	4,269
Totals -----	9,426	10,014	19,440
Five years or less	4,235	8,134	
More than five years	5,191	1,880	
(b) Length of time in one school.			
One year	2,479	6,451	8,923
Two years	1,333	1,922	3,255
Three years	878	813	1,691

(b) Length of time <u>in one school.</u>	<u>Towns</u>	<u>Country</u>	<u>State</u>
Four years	693	544	1,237
Five or more years	<u>4,050</u>	<u>284</u>	<u>4,334</u>
Totals	<u>9,426</u>	<u>10,014</u>	<u>19,440</u>

This shows that nearly two-thirds of the teachers with five years experience or less are in the country, but that nearly three-fourths of those with more than five years experience are in the towns. It also shows that 64% of the teachers in the country were teaching their first year in their present position and that nearly half those teaching in the towns have been in their present positions four years or more. Whatever significance the fact has, whether it is a measure of inefficiency or a contributing factor, or both, it is plain that the teaching population of Missouri's rural schools is a tramp population. This fact must be changed before the rural schools reach a high degree of efficiency.

This shifting teaching population is in marked contrast to the condition which prevails, for example, in Germany or Denmark, where the efficiency of the elementary school is notably greater than among our country schools. In those countries the teacher is given a position after a period of two to five years probation and he not uncommonly spends the remainder of his days of service there. (1)

(1) Foght, The American Rural School, p. 115.)

Teacher's Salaries.

It has been shown that the rural school teachers of the state are very meagerly trained, that they are generally of limited experience and that they remain in one position only a very short time. Another significant fact is that their pay is extremely low. The pay of teachers is significant, not only from the point of view of justice to the worker and those dependent on him, but also because the quality of service is influenced largely by the pay received. It is common experience that low grade ability and training are found where pay is low, and high grade where pay is high. The first point -- the matter of justice to the worker -- will not be dwelt on here, altho a strong case could be made from this point of view. The schools are maintained not for the benefit of the teachers, but for the benefit of the pupils, hence it is from the standpoint of service rendered that the pay is significant. The country school is universally considered to be low in efficiency, and the cause is lack of financial inducements to well-trained, capable teachers.

The following table taken from the Missouri Report of Public Schools for 1914 shows the distribution of salaries for men and women in both elementary and secondary schools.

Table IX.

Present Schedule of Teachers' Salaries in Missouri.

<u>No. Teachers receiving annually</u>	<u>Men, Elemen.</u>	<u>Men, Second.</u>	<u>Women, Elemen.</u>	<u>Women, Second.</u>	<u>Totals.</u>
Less than \$200	107	2	425	2	536
\$200 to \$299	676	1	2,011	7	2,695
\$300 to \$399	1,269	14	3,940	89	5,312

No. Teachers re- ceiving annually	Men, Elemen.	Men, Second.	Women, Elemen.	Women, Second.	Totals.
\$400 to \$499	942	41	3,239	193	4,415
\$500 to \$599	262	68	737	284	1,351
\$600 to \$799	193	210	1,135	345	1,883
\$800 to \$999	67	126	530	103	826
\$1000 to \$1199	44	137	1,241	116	1,538
\$1200 to \$1499	21	140	126	106	393
\$1500 and over	108	248	50	85	491
Totals	3,689	987	13,434	1,330	19,440
Less than \$1000	-----				17,108

Comparisons with other salaries.

For the clerical offices in the county courthouse, requiring no particular training, we pay a much larger compensation than we are willing to pay trained people in the school room. To secure appointment as teachers it is necessary to pass an examination that requires completion of the elementary school course and many positions require eight years' work over this. The qualifications for the office of county clerk, for example, are no higher than the lowest for teachers, yet the pay of this office in counties of 7,000 population or more, is from \$1,100 to \$3,000. The table above shows the 17,108 teachers of the state receive less than \$1,000 each. Only 884 teachers in the public schools of the state receive as much as \$1,200 and it is safe to say that none of these are rural school teachers.

Rural school teachers receive much less than employees of the classified civil service of the United States government in those grades requiring only elementary school course for entrance. Rural mail carriers receive from \$1,000 to \$1,200 per year. As pointed out in the last paragraph, only a very small percentage of all the teachers in the state

receive this much. The following figures for civil service employees is the entrance salary as stated in the United States Civil Service Commission Manual of Examinations for 1915. Steam engineers, \$600 to \$900. More than 70% of Missouri's teachers receive less than the lowest of these figures. Clerks in the departments and elevator conductors enter at \$720 to \$1000. Guards in the federal penitentiaries enter at \$840, a sum greater than that received by 83% of Missouri's teachers. Telegraph operators receive an entrance from \$900 to \$1000.

Members of the police forces and of the fire departments of the cities of the country receive higher pay than the majority of teachers of the state. The following figures are taken from A Comparative Study of the Salaries of Teachers and School Officers, p. 14-15. (1).

Table X.

Salaries of Policemen and Firemen in Certain Cities.

<u>City.</u>	<u>Policeman.</u>	<u>Fireman.</u>
Fort Smith, Ark.	\$ 900	\$ 780
Belleville, Ill.	870	900
Dubuque, Ia.	840	840
Kansas City, Kan.	840	960
Newport, Ky.	840	840
Sedalia, Mo.	733	795
Grand Island, Neb.	840	840
Tulsa, Okla.	900	995

The same publication gives the earnings of skilled workers in some of the trades in a few of the cities in different sections of the country. The following are the wages for Kansas City, Kansas, which is selected be-

cause it is on the border of Missouri. Bricklayers, \$1247; carpenters, \$930; machinists, \$956; molders, \$931; painters, \$1066; plasterers, \$1331; and plumbers, \$1373. Compared with these figures the average pay, \$332.95, of the rural teachers in Missouri is pitifully small.

Women department store workers are notoriously underpaid, and a number of legislative investigations have been made into their condition. The report of the Illinois investigation in 1908 showed a deplorable condition.

Table XI.

Percentage Distribution of Salaries.

<u>(a) Department Store Workers (1)</u>		<u>(b) Missouri Teachers.</u>	
5%	received under \$250	3%	received under \$200
6%	" " 250 to 299	14%	" " 200 to 299
11%	" " 300 to 349	27%	" " 300 to 399
10%	" " 350 to 399	23%	" " 400 to 499
10%	" " 400 to 449	7%	" " 500 to 599
8%	" " 450 to 499	9%+	" " 600 to 799
16%	" " 500 to 599	4%+	" " 800 to 999
15%	" " 600 to 749	13%-	" " 1000 or more
12%	" " 750 to 899		
7%	" " 900 or more		

The curves on page 76a show that 81% of the lowest paid teachers receive less than the 81% poorest paid department store workers. The conclusion from all these facts about the pay of various positions is that well prepared and capable men and women will not enter teaching in any large numbers because better pay can be had in other occupations which require less preparation. If Missouri is to have a

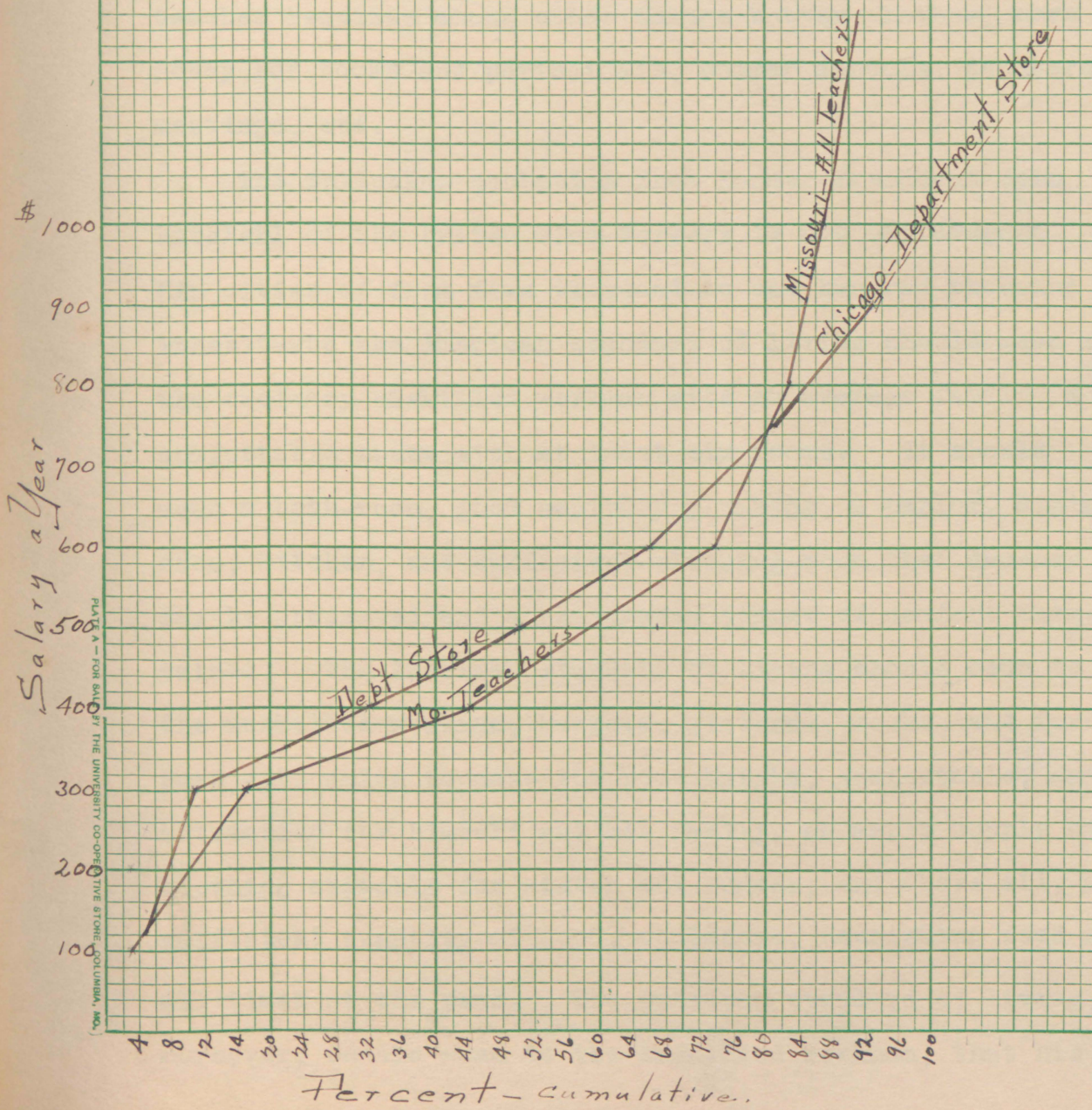
(1). From Nearing, Wages in the United States, page 95.

Comparison of Salaries

76a.

Chicago Department Store Workers
and
Missouri Teachers.

DEPARTMENT OF ENGINEERING, UNIVERSITY OF MO.



capable teaching force, the pay must be largely increased.
As Related to Economic Needs.

There is another angle from which to view the pay of the teacher; and that is with reference to his economic needs. It will be readily conceded that the economic needs of the teacher are greater than those of the low grade laborer such as the cotton mill operator. The teacher requires among other things better clothes, more money for books and periodicals, summer schools, teachers' meetings, etc.

The following quotation from former President John Mitchell of the United Mine Workers is not extravagant. "In cities of from five thousand to one hundred thousand inhabitants the American standard of living should mean to the ordinary unskilled workman with an average family, a comfortable house with at least six rooms. It should mean a both-room, good sanitary plumbing, a parlor, dining-room, kitchen, and sufficient sleeping-room that decency may be preserved and a reasonable degree of comfort maintained. The American standard of living should mean to the unskilled workman, carpets, pictures, books, and furniture with which to make the home bright, comfortable, and attractive for himself and his family, an ample supply of clothing suitable for winter and summer, and above all, a sufficient quantity of good, wholesome, nourishing food at all times of the year. The American standard of living, moreover, should mean to the unskilled workman, that his

children be kept in school until they have attained the age of sixteen at least, and that he be enabled to lay by sufficient to maintain himself and his family in times of illness, or at the close of his industrial life, when age and weakness render further work impossible, and to make provision for his family against premature death from accident or otherwise." (1)

A few years ago extensive studies were made of the standard of living of families at work in cotton mills. (2). The families were visited and detailed statements of the family income and expenses for the year were obtained. These statements were checked up by reference to the company pay-rolls and from the books of the stores where the various articles were purchased on credit. A high degree of accuracy was the result. The investigation sought to determine two things, among others. (1) What is the least amount that would suffice for the physical needs of a family consisting of a father, mother and three children under fourteen years of age, and (2) what would be a fair standard of living for such a family? The following facts refer to a southern cotton mill town which is selected for the reason that, because of the mildness of the climate,

(1) Organized Labor, pp 116-17, quoted by Ryan, A Living Wage, pp. 130,131.

(2) Worcester, Report on Condition of Woman and Child Wage-Earners in the United States, Vol. XVI, Senate Doc. No. 645.

the money cost of a minimum and fair standard of living is lower there than in the other communities studied.

For the minimum standard, were selected the budgets of those families whose physical vigor did not seem to be impaired and only those items allowed which were essential to keeping up physical vigor. "If a girl, who was otherwise dressed as cheaply as possible, had indulged in some little extravagance like a Sunday hat, this was eliminated. Furthermore, if in some family, the clothing had been made by a dress maker, the dressmaker's charge was deducted, for the minimum standard requires that all clothing of the women and children shall be made at home." (Vol. XVI. p. 138.).

"The food for the family costs \$247.11 and the clothes \$58.68, a total of \$305.79. To this must be added \$102.47 for rent, fuel, lights, and sundries, making the cost of minimum standard for the family \$408.26. If the family live upon this sum without suffering, wisdom to properly apportion the income is necessary. There can be no amusements or recreation that involve any expense. No tobacco can be used. No newspapers can be purchased. The children cannot go to school, because there will be no money to buy their books. Household articles that are worn out or destroyed cannot be replaced. The above sum provides for neither birth nor death nor any illness that demands a doctor's attention or calls for medicine. Even if all these things are eliminated, if the family is not to suffer, the mother must be a woman of rare ability. She must know how

to make her own and her children's clothing; she must be physically able to do all of the household work including the washing. And she must know enough to purchase with her allowance food that has the proper nutritive value.2 (1)

Notice that rent, fuel, lights, and sundries of the family of five is less than \$60 a year. Clothing for the father includes one suit at \$8.00, two trousers \$2.00, five colored shirts \$2.50, two suits of winter underwear \$2.00, two pairs of shoes \$3.00, one hat \$.50, one pair of suspenders \$.25, and socks to the value of \$.50 -- a total of \$18.75. The mother spends a total of \$9.25 for clothing which includes one shawl, four calico waists, two duck skirts, two pairs of drawers, two gingham petticoats, two winter undershirts, one fascinator, two pairs of shoes, and some stockings. Low as this standard is, the table on pages 73-4 above shows that it is more than could be afforded by 8,543 of Missouri's teachers, Forty-four per cent of the total number, receive a compensation less than is regarded as the minimum standard for a common laborer in a cotton mill town where rent costs less than four dollars a month, where a mild climate enables one to dispense with an overcoat, and where the fuel bill is light.

A fair standard of living for southern cotton mill workers was worked out by including such items as are actually attained by some families and which all strive to attain. This standard includes a clothing bill of \$38.50 for the father which includes among other things one \$14.00

(14 Vol. XVI. p. 142.

suit of clothes, three handkerchiefs, one necktie, two \$1.50 hats, and one light shirt costing \$1.00. The mothers' clothing bill amounts to \$26.25 and includes two hats costing \$2.00 each, four handkerchiefs at five cents each, one pair of fifty cent gloves, and a suit costing \$5.75. This clothing standard is too low for a teacher's family in any part of Missouri. Rent for the year allowed in this standard is \$44.81, fuel cost \$41.36 and \$26.00 is for house furnishings. One dollar a year is allowed for newspapers, two dollars for church and charity. The total cost of the "fair standard" for the family of five is \$600.74.

"This standard does not allow savings to meet the contingency of an unusual event, such as lack of employment or accident to the father. It makes no provision for old age. It provides for cultural wants only in the most limited manner, viz, one paper costing \$1.00 a year. It provides elementary schooling for the children up to their twelfth year only. To be unable to meet the demands of this standard of living is to place the family among those living in poverty." (1). Yet 14,309 of Missouri's teachers receive less than the \$600 needed to maintain this standard. More than seventy-three per cent of the teachers of the state receive a wage which would place a southern cotton mill family "among those living in poverty."

There are two excuses offered for the low pay of teachers; one is the statement that the pay is for work only a

(1). Vol. XVI., p. 153.

part of the year, from three to ten months; the other is that most teachers do not have families dependent on them. Neither of these excuses is valid. While it is true that the teacher works only a part of the year, in the school-room, yet it is also true that she must subsist for the entire year or quit the game. Other employment might be secured for the vacation months, but this would lower the teacher's efficiency by dividing her interests. Another and conclusive reason against this is that one will not prepare one's self extensively for teaching when it is necessary to follow another occupation for a part of the year in order to make a living.

The statement that a great many teachers have no one dependent on them is true, but it is not true that this is a valid reason for giving low pay to the teacher. Men will not enter an occupation fully prepared with the idea of remaining in it if they know that the pay precludes the possibility of having a family. Men will engage in teaching only as a temporary means to something more satisfactory, and women will do so to tide over the period before marriage. The result is inevitably just as we have it now, a shifting, untrained, unexperienced teaching force -- especially in the country. The 1914 Missouri Report of Public Schools shows sixty-four per cent of the rural teachers in Missouri with three years of experience or less, and the same per cent teaching their first term in their present position, and only seven and five-tenths per cent of

all teachers with a normal school diploma.

City and County Compared.

The above discussion of teachers' pay has included all the teachers of the state. It is not possible to determine, from the report, the salary distribution for city and country separately; but the averages have some significance. The average salary of men teachers in the towns that maintain a high school is \$984.44 and in all other schools it is \$372.09 -- almost three times as large in the towns as in the country. It should be noted that the average in the country is but little more than the pay of a farm hand who receives his board in addition to his money wages, and is \$36.00 less than the minimum standard of living for southern cotton mill hands. For women the average pay in the towns is \$640.31, and in the country it is \$316.21 -- less than half the pay received in the towns.

The following tables gives the distribution of salaries paid in a few counties having the lowest general average and a few having the highest, and including Kansas City and St. Louis.

Table XII.

Schedule of Teachers' Salaries in Some Counties and Cities in Missouri.

No. of teachers receiving.	St. Louis	Kansas City	Platte County	Holt County	Dent County	Texas County
Less than \$200	0	1	3	0	16	38
\$200 to \$299	0	2	6	3	32	62
\$300 to \$399	0	26	13	17	26	53
\$400 to \$499	135	59	42	72	11	5
\$500 to \$599	0	3	17	16	2	3
\$600 to \$799	416	318	12	11	3	1
\$800 to \$999	241	292	3	1	1	0
\$1000 to \$1199	1055	295	2	1	1	2

No. of teachers receiving.	St. Louis	Kansas City	Platte County	Holt County	Dent County	Texas County
1200 to 1499	203	106	0	2	0	0
1500 to above	291	147	0	0	0	0

In Dent and Texas Counties the median salary is in the \$200 to \$299 group. That is, more than half the teachers receive less than \$300, and more than half receive more than \$200. In Platte and Holt counties the median is in the \$400 to \$499 group, that is, more than half the teachers get \$400 or more and more than half get less than \$500. In Kansas City the median is in the \$800 to \$999 group and in St. Louis it is in the \$1000 to \$1199 group. Compare these figures with those following table:

Table XIII.

Training of Teachers in Cities and Counties of Table XII. (a) Number of Teachers with Various Kinds of Certificates, (b) High School Training, (c) Normal School Training.

(a)	<u>Number of Teachers with Certificates</u>					
	St. Louis	Kansas City	Holt County	Platte County	Dent County	Texas County
Life State	0	0	8	9	3	3
5 yr. "	0	0	1	4	2	2
Rural "	0	0	0	0	2	6
Normal Diplo.	2341	381	19	22	1	2
" " El.	0	0	12	6	1	2
1st Gr. County	0	0	17	15	4	15
2nd " "	0	0	32	24	28	56
3rd " ") and Special)	0	0	34	26	51	78
Total	2341	1249	123	106	92	164

For (b) of Table XIII. see page 85. Also for (c).

A glance will show that as compared to the two counties paying the lower wages that Platte and Holt Counties have a

Table XIII.

(b) <u>Number of Teachers Having High School Training.</u>		<u>St. Louis</u>	<u>Kansas City</u>	<u>Holt County</u>	<u>Platte County</u>	<u>Dent County</u>	<u>Texas County</u>
1 yr. H. S.		0	30	8	8	31	22
2 " " "		0	58	21	10	8	12
3 " " "		0	98	16	10	8	12
4 " " "		2341	875	78	39	16	5

(c) <u>Number of Teachers Having Normal School Training.</u>		<u>St. Louis</u>	<u>Kansas City</u>	<u>Holt County</u>	<u>Platte County</u>	<u>Dent County</u>	<u>Texas County</u>
8 wks. N. S.		0	60	44	9	15	48
16 " " "		0	92	14	5	12	62
32 " " "		0	219	8	15	9	12
2 yrs. or more		2341	381	31	25	2	4

larger proportion of teachers with state certificates and normal school diplomas, and a smaller proportion with second and third grade county certificates. They also, as well as Kansas City and St. Louis City, have a larger proportion of teachers with four years of high school training and with two years or more of normal school training and a smaller proportion with only one year of high school training. St. Louis City pays the highest salaries and has the most highly trained teachers as indicated by the amount of high school and normal school training. Of the four counties compared, Holt and Platte counties pay the highest salaries and have more highly trained teachers as indicated by the grade of certificate held and the amount of training in high and normal school, while Dent and Texas pay the lowest salaries and have the less extensively trained teachers. The conclusion is unavoidable that low pay means an inadequately trained teaching staff. Generalizing from the six cases before us, we may say that a median salary of \$200 to \$300 a year means a teaching force made up largely of holders of second and

third grade county certificates practically one-half of the total being third grade. That only about ten per cent have had thirty-two weeks or more of normal school training and a smaller number have had as much as four years in the high school. A median salary of \$400 to \$499 a year means a teaching force, little more than one-fourth of whom hold third grade county certificates and a little less than one-fourth holding second grade. About one-fourth of them hold either a life certificate or a normal school diploma. More than half of them will have had four years high school training and more than one-third have had one or more years in a normal school. A median salary of \$800 to \$999 means a teaching force more than two-thirds of whom have had one or more years in a normal school. While a median salary of \$1000 to \$1199 means a teaching force of all whom have had four years in a high school and two years in a normal.

These figures are typical and tend to confirm the conclusions already reached, viz., that a low salary means a low standard of training, and that if teachers are to be well trained, salaries must be very much higher than these paid in most of the schools of Missouri.

Summary.

The foregoing study of the teacher problem in Missouri shows: (1) That the pay of teachers is lower than the pay of other workers requiring special skill or training and that the pay in the rural districts is less than it is in the town.

(2) That the higher pay goes along with the more highly trained teachers.

The following propositions will be conceded by any student of the teacher problem.

The elementary school teacher should have six years of training above the elementary school -- part of which should be pedagogical.

The teacher can become a real leader in the community only by remaining in the community a great many years -- the teaching force should be permanent.

To obtain a trained, permanent teaching force the pay must be raised, the standard of certification be raised and high school facilities put within reach of boys and girls in every part of the state.

Missouri is not yet ready to require six years of training above the elementary school -- none of the states of the Union have yet done so. St. Louis had to put her salary schedule up to an average of \$1110 before she could hold to this standard. But by 1918, four years training above the elementary school will, under the present law, be required for a first or second grade county certificate. This can be made the minimum for any certificate in all counties in which are located at present first-class high schools. In the other counties, such schools can be established as soon as the revenue system is changed, so that the four year minimum should apply to all the state within a short time. While this is far below what should be re-

quired it is far better than the present situation. With four years' training, the minimum for entrance to the teaching force, a systematic plan for pay increases dependent on attendance at summer school and improvement in teaching would rapidly elevate the standard of the force in the state. Suggestions for Schedule.

Such a plan is the following. The first year's salary for a high school graduate should be \$40 a month for eight months, second year \$45, third year \$50, fourth year \$55, fifth year \$60, sixth year \$65, and seventh year \$70, Each years increase ^{should be} dependent on making acceptable grades in an improved course of study at a summer school, improvement in teaching, and on remaining in the same position. The increase or a part of it ^{should} ~~to~~ be paid by the state.

One of the advantages of such a plan is that it would encourage teachers to secure further training; each summer spent in summer school would mean \$40 added to each subsequent year's salary. Two subsequent years would pay the expenses of each summer school. Six summers in the normal school is the equivalent of two year's work. By this plan the teacher, after six year's teaching, at about the age of 25 years would have attained the commonly accepted standard for elementary school teachers -- six years above the elementary school, including two years of professional training.

Another advantage of this plan is that it would encourage teachers to continue in one position for a number of years since the annual increase in pay is conditioned on

such continuation. It would encourage school boards to retain the teacher; since the increases ^{should be} ~~are~~ paid by the state it costs the district nothing to retain the tried and experienced teacher. ✓

A third advantage of such a plan is that it would materially increase the pay of teachers and thus it would hold many in teaching who now leave after a short experience. The following table compares the pay as at present and as it would be if all teachers were paid according to this schedule the first seven years of service. The proposed schedule is probably too low for the reason that it includes many college and normal school graduates who receive more than the schedule. But no teacher would receive less than the schedule after it has been in operation seven years except those changing positions or failing to attend summer school.

Table XIV.

Schedule of Teachers' Salaries - (a) Proposed Schedule, (b) Partial Present Schedule.

<u>(a) Proposed Schedule.</u>			<u>(b) Present Schedule.</u>	
<u>Year of Service</u>	<u>No. of Teachers</u>	<u>Salary</u>	<u>No. of Teachers</u>	<u>Salary</u>
1st	2,797	\$320	3,231	Less than
2nd	2,364	360		\$300
Total	5,161	320—360	5,312	300 to 399
3rd	2,177	400	4,415	400 to 499
4th	1,908	440	1,351	500 to 599
5th	1,553	480		
Total	5638	400—480		
6th				
6th	1,570	520		
7th*	700	560		
Total	2,270	520—560		

* (This should probably be greater. Not given in the reports. It is one-fourth of the teachers having from six to nine years' experience).

The table on the right shows that 3,231 teachers at present receive less than \$300. Under the proposed schedule no teachers would receive less than \$320. The table on the left shows that 5161 teachers under the proposed schedule would receive less than \$400 as compared with 8,543 as at present. The 5161 is to be diminished by all graduates of normal schools and colleges teaching their first or second year. Such teachers would receive larger pay. For those receiving \$400 to \$499, and those receiving \$500 to \$599 there would be more of each group under the proposed schedule. There is a total of 14,309 teachers receiving less than \$600 at present and under the proposed schedule there would be 13,069 minus the normal and college graduates with less than seven years experience. Thus the proposed schedule is much more favorable to the teachers receiving the very lowest pay ^{but} might not be so favorable for the groups receiving \$400 or more. That is, of all the teachers receiving \$400 or more under the two schedules a larger percentage might receive less than \$600 in the proposed schedule than under the present one. The proposed schedule thus would possibly work as much harm as good. The remedy is simply to raise the proposed schedule, keeping to the plan. Table XV. on page 91 starts with \$50 instead of \$40.

This will give no teacher less than \$400 as compared with 8543 as at present. There would be 7338 teachers receiving \$400 to \$500 as compared to 4415 at present. There would be less than 10799 teachers with less than

Table XV.

Another Schedule. (a) Proposed Schedule, (b) Present
Schedule.

(a) Proposed Schedule.

	<u>No. of Teachers</u>	<u>Salary</u>
1st year	2797	\$ 400
2nd year	2364	440
3rd year	2177	480
Total	7338	400-480
4th year	1908	520
5th year	1553	560
Total	3461	520-560
6th year	1570	600
7th year	700	640
Total	2270	600-640

(b) Present Schedule.

<u>No. of Teachers</u>	<u>Salary</u>
8543	Less than \$400
4415	400 to 499
1351	500 to 599

\$600 as compared to 14,309 at present. Just what the schedule should be -- whether it should start with \$40 or \$50 or \$75, whether it should increase \$40 a year or \$20 or \$50 or \$100 or more -- can not be determined before hand. The whole question is to be determined by the way it works. If a \$320 minimum and a \$40 annual increase would give us a well-trained and permanent force then it would be satisfactory. If any schedule adopted fails to work it can be raised until it produces as good a teaching force as the people care to pay for. St. Louis found it necessary to pay a minimum of \$600 with more or less irregular increases,

up to a maximum of \$1300 for elementary school teachers. The discussion of schedules so far has assumed the ordinary high school graduates to start with. The number of Teacher Training course graduates is increasing and they should start at a higher salary than the unpedagogically trained high school graduates -- say five or ten dollars a month -- increases should be under the same conditions as for the other group. Normal school graduates should start at a still higher minimum and should be advanced without requiring the annual attendance of summer schools provided they show improvement in teaching. College graduates are hardly to be found in rural schools and need not be provided for in this schedule.

The certification of teachers should be in the hands of the State Department. This matter was discussed in connection with the discussion of that department.

Another matter of much concern to the mind of some students of the rural school problem is the fact that 70 per cent of the teachers are women. It is conceded that at present, of a man and a woman obtainable at the same salary, the woman is likely to have better training and to be the superior teacher. But the woman can never become permanent in the rural district. There are two reasons for this. She often marries and quits teaching entirely. If she doesn't marry she finds living conditions in the country so unsatisfactory that she goes into town at the first opportunity even at a smaller ^{Salary}. A feminine teaching ✓

force can never be permanent in the country.

How can men be induced to enter rural teaching? The answer is by making it attractive. This can be done by making the material rewards worth while, and by raising the influence and prestige of the teacher. The teacher in Germany is a man of standing because he is comparatively well paid, because of his training, and also because the German father recognizes the value of the training the teacher can give his children. We can increase the pay of the teachers; we can have well|trained teachers; the teachers can give a training the value of which can be appreciated. When these conditions prevail the rural teachers ^{will then} have a prestige which they now lack.

The schedules mentioned above will themselves not attract men to rural schools. It takes five years experience and nearly six years school training under the second proposed schedule to reach \$600. Such men are paid better than that in the towns now. This salary schedule might attract men if the district would furnish a house, barn, and a few acres of land for the teacher.

Another way to increase the material attractiveness is to provide a retiring allowance. This is done in many cities, in a few states in the Union and in many foreign countries. It is done in the case of our own army and navy. Any scheme for a permanent teaching force must provide for this or must pay salaries commensurate with those paid in other callings which are no more difficult to enter.

CHAPTER IV.

SUPPORT.

Comparison of Missouri with Other States.

The last chapter has shown that more money will have to be provided for the public schools, as a condition to betterment of the teaching force of the state. This chapter deals with the subject of support. Before taking up the question of revenue a few comparisons will be introduced to show the position of Missouri with reference to other states in some significant particulars. (1). These comparisons are from tables given in Vol II of the 1913 Report of the United States Commissioner of Education. Chapter I, the latest report available at this time.

The report shows Missouri to have the shortest average school term of all the North Central Group of States except North Dakota, and that not a single state in the North Atlantic division has so short a term as Missouri. In this respect, Missouri ranks twenty-seventh; that is, twenty-six states have a longer school term than Missouri. In average number of days attended per pupil Missouri ranks twenty-six. In this Missouri is outranked by the bordering states of Illinois, 95.4, Iowa 108.6, Nebraska 102.1, Kansas 111.4. In illiteracy of children ten to fourteen years of age, Missouri ranks 28th, that is, 27 states have

(1). The District of Columbia is treated as a state.

a smaller percentage of illiterates. Her per cent is greater than that of any of the North Atlantic states, than any other of the North Central states except North Dakota, and than any of the Western States except Montana, New Mexico, Arizona, and Nevada. In the per cent of school population enrolled she ranks 18; Iowa, Nebraska, and Kansas have a greater per cent. In per cent of attendance of enrollment she ranks 28; Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska, and Kansas outrank her. In average number of days attendance for every child of school age she ranks 26; outranked by Illinois, Nebraska and Kansas. In average annual salary of teachers her rank is 26; Illinois, Nebraska and Kansas outrank her. A lower per cent of school revenues is raised by local taxation in 35 states than in Missouri. The percentage varies from 31.42% to 95.69%. It will be shown later that where wealth is unevenly distributed in various parts of the state that the smaller proportion of revenue derived from local taxation the more equitably the burden of support is likely distributed.

In amount expended per capita of total population Missouri ranks 29 with an expenditure of \$4.41, lower than any other of the North Central states. Illinois spends \$5.88, Iowa \$6.58, Nebraska \$7.18, and Kansas \$6.41. New Jersey spends \$7.59, while Washington, Oregon, and California spend respectively \$8.21, \$8.34 and \$9.30. California and Utah spend more than twice as much per capita as Missouri.

The significance of the teachers' salary has already been discussed. The annual expenditure for salaries per capita of average attendance by the various states for salaries ranges from \$7 expended by North Carolina to \$49.11 by Nevada. Missouri ranks 34 in this respect with an expenditure of \$18.18. Four states spend more than double the amount spent per capita of average attendance by Missouri for salaries -- District of Columbia, \$37.36; Montana, \$37.95; Nevada, \$49.11; and California, \$39.81. Thirteen spend more than 50 per cent more than Missouri: Massachusetts, \$28.36; New York, \$33.70; New Jersey, \$28.97; North Dakota, \$29.87; South Dakota, \$27.62; District of Columbia, \$37.36; Montana, \$37.95; Wyoming \$31.16; Colorado, \$31.88; Arizona, \$28.61; Nevada, \$49.11; Washington, \$35.59; and California, \$39.81. Of Missouri's nearest neighbors, Illinois spends \$21.82 per capita of average attendance as compared to Missouri's \$18.18, Iowa spends \$24.90, Nebraska, \$23.74, Kansas \$22.92, Arkansas \$12.13, and Kentucky \$13.58. (See page 116 a).

The conclusion from these facts is that as measured by the standards of (1) length of school term, (2) average number of days attended per pupil, (3) illiteracy, (4) per cent of school population enrolled, (5) per cent of attendance on enrollment, (6) percentage of revenue derived from local taxation, (7) amount expended for schools per capita of total population, and (8) amount expended for salaries per pupil in attendance, Missouri's schools are far from

Salary

Expenditure per capita of average attendance.

\$10

\$20

\$30

\$40

\$50

96a

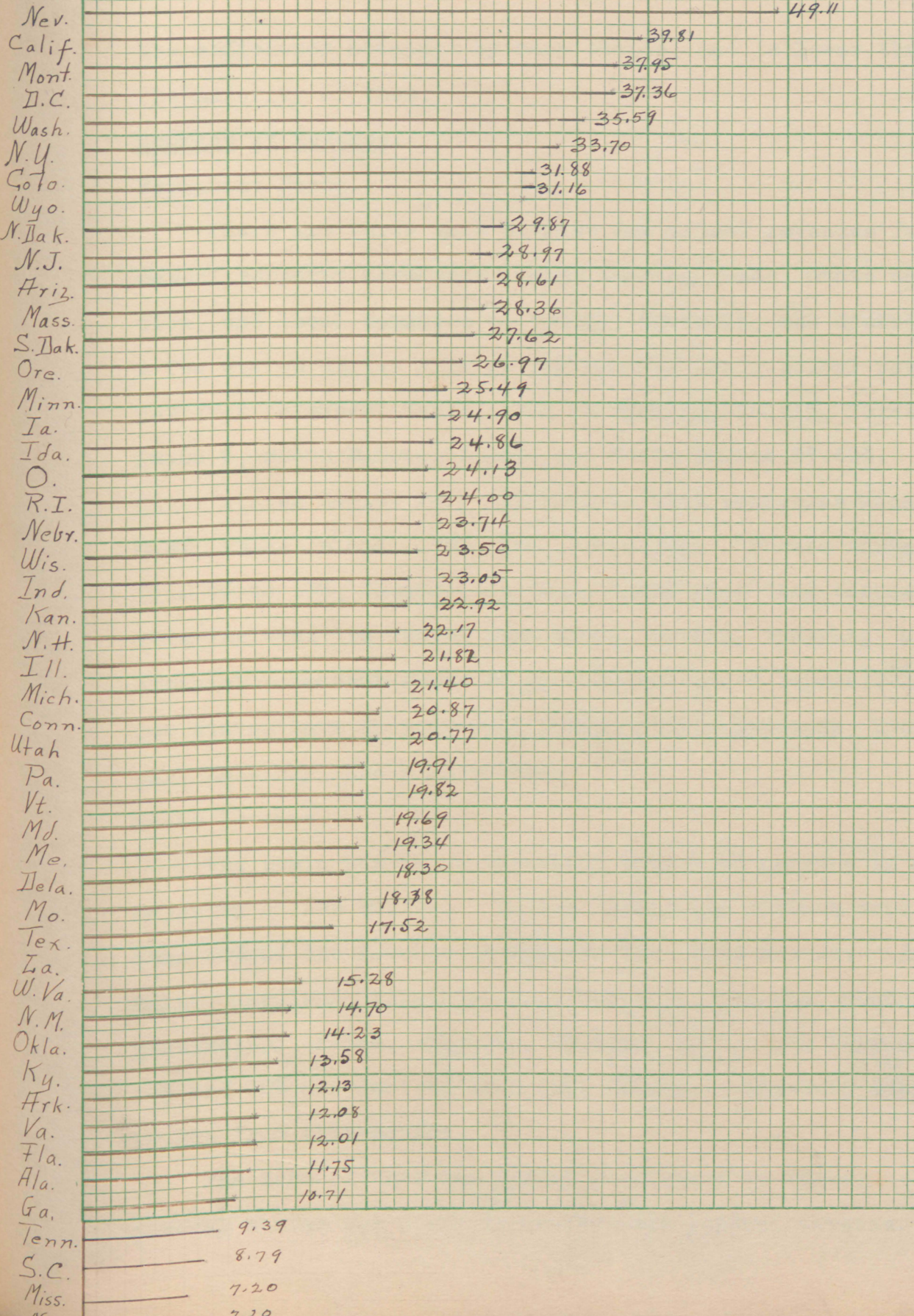


PLATE A - FOR SALE AT THE UNIVERSITY CO-OPERATIVE STORE, COLUMBIA, MO.

DEPARTMENT OF ENGINEERING, UNIVERSITY OF MO.

the efficiency attained by many states, and is lower than the majority of them.

Sources of Revenue.

Permanent Funds.

There are three main sources for school revenues for school support: permanent income bearing funds, state taxation, and local taxation -- county, township, and district. A few states derive a large per cent of their school revenues from permanent funds, such as Wyoming, 19.21%, Texas 18.06 %, South Dakota 23.33%, and North Dakota 27.63%. Other states derive very little from this source, as Maine 0.8%, Rhode Island 0.79%, New York 0.58%. Others range from 7% to 23%, Missouri deriving 5.65% from this source. This includes the income from state, county, township, and district permanent funds (U.S. Commissioner's Report). A few states have no permanent funds, as Pennsylvania, Michigan, Kentucky, and some others.

State Revenue.

The state tax is an important source of revenue in a majority of the states. In New Jersey and Alabama more than 50% of the revenue is derived from this source. In Maine, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, Texas, Arkansas, Montana, and Nevada between 30% and 50% are derived from this source. Missouri derives 10.88% from this source.

The form of this tax varies from state to state. In several states the money comes from the general revenue.

In some states a fixed sum is appropriated from the general revenue each year, as in New Jersey and North Carolina, which appropriate \$100,000 and \$250,000 per year respectively. In other states a certain fraction of the general revenue is appropriated each year, as in Missouri and Louisiana, which appropriate one-third and one-fourth of the general revenue respectively. In other states a certain specified amount per child is appropriated, as in Connecticut and California, where two and one-half dollars and thirteen dollars per child is appropriated.

In other cases a special state school tax is levied. In Arizona this tax must yield \$500,000. In California a poll tax is levied on males between 21 and 60 years of age, the proceeds of which go into the state school fund. In other states a specified rate is levied, as in Florida where the rate is ten cents on the one hundred dollars, and in Illinois where the rate is twenty cents. The largest rate is levied in Washington and Virginia, where the tax rate is fifty cents in the former and may be as high in the latter.

The justification of a state tax for schools rests on ^{that} the fact ~~that~~ many communities are unable to meet the burden of supporting the school. More than one-half the districts of Missouri have an assessed valuation below \$50,000; 629 *are* below \$20,000. The weak districts need aid from the more wealthy communities.

With this principle in mind we may see that the general revenue, as an important source of school revenue, is

not entirely satisfactory. The functions of state governments are increasing more rapidly than the revenues. Because of this fact there is a strong tendency for the expansion of other functions, such as the public service commission, to cause ~~the~~ reduction in the amount available for education. This may take the form of interpreting doubtful cases against the school fund. An example of this is the recent case in Missouri where the proceeds of certain inspection fees were in dispute -- the State Superintendent of Schools claiming one-third should go into the school fund as they had gone before, on the ground that they were part of the ordinary revenue, while the State Auditor denied this. Another way this might narrow the sum available for the schools is easily possible in Missouri. The legislature might appropriate one-fourth of the ordinary revenue as a minimum required by the constitution instead of the customary one-third. This is purely theoretical but is legally possible. In states such as New Jersey and North Carolina where a fixed sum is annually appropriated the needs of the schools increase without a corresponding increase in the amount borne by the state.

In states where the amount appropriated from the general revenues is a fixed sum per child, as in California, the last objection does not hold; because an increase in the number of children brings a corresponding increase in the amount of state support. But if the amount to be appropriated is not specified in the constitution the legislature

may lower it under the pressure of other needs such as those noted above. If it is fixed by the constitution the amount may be too high or too low. If the California appropriation of \$13 per child is fair, the \$2.50 per child appropriated by Connecticut is probably too low; and if the Connecticut ^{appropriation} is fair that of California is too high. This would be difficult to remedy owing to the cumbersome manner of making changes in the constitutions.

The permanent state school fund may be an important source of revenue as it has been in Texas. In Missouri it is of no consequence for the reason that it is entirely in the form of a "Certificate of Indebtedness" the interest on which is derived entirely from a state tax. In other words, Missouri's so-called school fund is merely a special school tax. It would be possible to follow the example of Massachusetts and set aside from the revenue of the state a certain sum each year as a permanent school fund to be invested in interest-bearing securities. This, in time, would provide a large fund that would relieve the burden of the tax payers. The economic wisdom of the Massachusetts plan is doubtful. There is no evident reason why the present generation should bear its burden of education and also be taxed in order to relieve the burden of future generations. There is the further fact that funds in the hands of the state would bear three or four per cent interest, while if left in the hands of the individual it would be worth six or more.

There remains the state tax for schools. This should play a much larger part in financing the public schools than it does at present. But in some states the law is faulty. In those states, as in Arizona, for example, where a tax amounting to a fixed sum, \$500,000 in this case, is provided for, the sum does not vary with the changing financial needs of the schools. The sum should be elastic and should be just sufficient to equalize the school burdens and opportunities of the various localities. The fixed sum does not do this. Neither does the fixed rate as is provided for in other states, as in Florida and Indiana. The ideal state school tax is one the rate of which is just sufficient to produce the amount needed to equalize burdens and opportunities in the various districts of the state. Probably the state board of education should determine this rate under rules laid down by the legislature.

Local Revenue.

The local units for raising revenue are the county, township, and district. In some states the county is the only local taxation unit, as in the case in Alabama, where both a property and a poll tax are levied. It is more common, however, where the county tax is levied to permit the districts to supplement this by a district tax as is done in Arizona and California. In only South Dakota is there both a county and a township tax and it is doubtful if this should be considered an exception for the reason that the township is the district.

The township tax is the rule in New England and a few other states. As was stated above it is never co-incident with the county tax, but may in some of the states be supplemented by a district tax.

The district tax is the most common of all. As has been stated it is frequently employed to supplement the county or township tax. It is also frequently the only local tax levied, as is the case in Missouri.

From the standpoint of equalization of burdens, the county is the best local tax unit and the district the worst. In Reynolds County, Missouri, for example, district No. 24 has an assessed valuation of \$100,289, levies 20 cents on the one hundred dollars valuation and has an eight month's term. District No. 44 has an assessed valuation of \$11,894, levies 65 cents on the one hundred dollars valuation and has less than four months' term. Had the county been the unit the tax payers in these districts would have paid the same rate instead of one paying three and a fourth times the other. They would each have had the same length of term instead of one having more than twice the amount of school the other had. As it was, the taxpayers in district No 44 paid three and one-fourth times the rate paid by those in No. 24 and had less than one-half the amount of school. This story is typical and could be duplicated for every county in Missouri. Where so large a percentage of school revenue is derived from local taxation, as in Missouri, the district as the sole local tax unit works great inequalities.

As the sole unit of taxation the district is not so good as the township. In Miami township, Saline County, Missouri, district No. 1, in 1914-15, had an assessed valuation of \$44,965, paid the teacher \$50 a month for a seven month's term, the teacher was 41 years old, held a third grade certificate, and had a total of one-half year's training above the elementary school. District No. 25 had an assessed valuation of \$112,930 employed a teacher holding a first grade certificate who had four and one-half years training above the elementary school, and paid her a salary of \$75 a month for an eight month's term. The rate of taxation in No. 1 was 65 cents for school and 25 cents for repairs, a total of 90 cents. In No. 25, the rate was 65 cents which paid all expenses, providing a \$600 teacher for eight months while district No. 1 had a \$350 teacher for seven months. If the township had been the unit of taxation district No. 1 could have had as long a term with as well-trained and highly-paid teacher as had No. 25. The reason for this difference in valuation is that the soil is different. District No. 1 is in the river bottom, nearly all of it subject to more or less frequent overflow, and with a soil varying from very sandy to a heavy gumbo. No. 25 is on a gently rolling prairie with the soil one of the richest in the world -- ^{the} Marshall Silt Loam.

The county as a tax unit has the same advantages over the township that each has over the district. Some townships are less favorably located than others with reference

to soil, roads, or nearness to market, giving them greater ability to supports schools.

In Missouri, the township is not important as a governmental unit except in some ten or twelve counties. For this reason it should not be made the sole unit for taxation or other purposes. The county might be made the chief unit for taxation with the privilege on the part of the various districts of supplementing the county and state tax with a local levy. Or the district might remain the sole local tax unit, and a general state tax might be levied to equalize the burdens and opportunities among the districts.

In the matter of the rate or amount of local tax there is great variation among the states. The local unit may be required to raise a specified sum per child, as is done in California where the county must levy a tax amounting to at least thirteen dollars per pupil in average daily attendance. Or the local unit may be required to raise by taxation a specified sum per teacher, as is done in Arizona where the county must levy a sum which when added to the amount received from the state will amount to \$1000 per teacher. Or the requirement may take the form of requirement of the district to maintain school a certain minimum period each year, as in Connecticut where the town is required to maintain school for at least thirty six weeks in each year. (1). The local unit may be required to raise by taxation a sum proportionate

(1). MacDowell, State Versus Local Control of Elementary Eduaction (Finance) p. 47.

to the amount received from the state as is done in Rhode Island, where the amount must be at least equal to the amount received from the state. Finally, the local unit may be required to levy a certain minimum rate, as in Colorado where the minimum tax is two mills. (2). See p. 111.

In Missouri, the district is required to levy a sum which, together with the money received from the state, will be sufficient to maintain the school for eight months, provided a levy of 40 cents on the one hundred dollars of assessed valuation will do so.

The minimum requirements of Missouri are not satisfactory in practice. In the first place, it does not secure eight months school for every district; 3,815 of the 9,837, or more than 38 per cent of the districts, maintain less than eight months of school each year. Of course this could be remedied by a larger state appropriation and a different method of apportionment. A second objection is that it results in very unequal tax burden. Twenty-six districts make no levy at all; forty-seven levy under twenty cents; 497 levy between twenty and forty; 2,299 levy even forty; 2,492 levy forty to sixty-five; and 4,706 levy sixty-five and over.

The requirement that the district should raise a sum in proportion to the amount appropriated by the state would work great inequality. St. Louis City has an assessed valuation of more than \$240,000 per teacher, while more than one-half the districts have a valuation under \$50,000 ranging down to

less than \$10,000. A tax of 10 cents on the one hundred dollars valuation in St. Louis would raise as much money as one of 240 cents in the districts assessed at \$10,000. For the same reason any law requiring a fixed sum, a fixed per teacher, or a fixed sum per pupil would work an inequality.

The requirement of a certain minimum rate seems to produce the least inequality of burden. If we grant the justice of the general property tax, and if we assume an absolutely fair assessment, the tax-payers in each district will pay the same sum in proportion to their ability. Of course this sum would need to be very largely supplemented by state grants to the poorer districts or great inequalities in educational opportunity would result.

The most common maximum restriction for maintenance of schools is one limiting the rate of tax to be levied. The maximum varies in the different states. In Alabama the maximum is ten cents on the one hundred dollars valuation. In Nebraska the maximum is three hundred and fifty cents. A common maximum rate is one in the neighborhood of fifty cents. In many states one maximum is placed for the board and a higher one for the voters. This is the case in Missouri where the maximum rate the board may levy is forty-cents; while the voters in common school districts may vote to levy sixty-five; and in cities, the voters may place the rate as high as one hundred cents.

The maximum limitation may be in the form of a maximum sum. This is the case in Tennessee where the county tax to extend the school term shall not exceed the entire state tax.

This is also the case in Iowa where the maximum, including the state fund, is twenty dollars for each person of school age in the district; but the amount may be as much as \$270 including the state fund for each teacher even tho it does exceed twenty dollars for each person of school age. (1).

In a few states no maximum limitation is imposed, as in Connecticut and Delaware.

While the purpose of a minimum restriction on the local tax is to prevent parsimony in school support, the maximum limitation is to prevent extravagance. This limitation may apply to the power of the board levying the tax or to the power of the voters to vote a tax on themselves. The limitation on the board, provided the maximum is not too low, is a wise one. In Missouri this maximum of 40 cents is entirely too low for a great many schools. 7,198 of the 9,873, or more than 72 per cent, find it necessary to levy more than this, while only 670 levy less. This maximum levy should be high enough to enable practically all the schools of the state to run on the proceeds. It may be wise to place a maximum beyond which a board may not go since an occasional school board might be found who, without some restriction of the amount they could levy, would burden the tax payers needlessly and spend the funds recklessly or corruptly. If a maximum be placed on the rate the voters may levy it should be very high. In Missouri, for rural schools it is only 65 cents on the one hundred dollars valuation -- a sum entirely

 (1). McDowell, opus cit. p. 56.

inadequate to meet the situation under the present system, as is evidenced by the fact that more than one-third of the districts have less than the minimum school term of eight months. The maximum rate would produce less than \$325 in 5,012 of the 9,837 or more than one-half the districts of the state, and less than \$195 in 2,077 or nearly one-fourth of the districts. But with a sufficiently large state revenue and a wise principle of apportionment to equalize the burden this rate would possibly be high enough.

The fixing of a maximum sum, either fixed or contingent, to be raised by the local unit would cause great inequality in a state where the population is not economically homogeneous, as is the case in Missouri. If the Tennessee rule, which provides that the local tax shall not exceed the state tax, were adopted, it would work inequality of burden or of opportunity. If the larger state grants were given to the weaker districts the higher rate would fall on them; but if the stronger districts received an equal or greater share it would enable them to spend more money and so have better schools. If the rule which prevails in Iowa, which provides a maximum per pupil or per teacher were adopted in Missouri, the wealthier districts, it is clear, would levy a lower rate than the less wealthy. District No. 1 in Saline County has an assessed valuation of \$22,955; the enumeration is 31; this gives an assessed valuation of \$741 per child enumerated. District No. 25 has \$112,930 valuation with 43 enumerated which gives \$2,509 per child enum-

erated. To produce a fixed sum per child enumerated would require more than three times as high a rate in District No. 1 as in district No. 25. To produce a fixed sum per teacher would require almost five times the rate in No. 1 as in No. 25.

The conclusions as to maximum and minimum local tax restrictions are: 1. That a minimum rate should be fixed high enough, together with the money received from the state, to insure adequate support for the school.

2. That a maximum rate should be fixed beyond which the board may not go, but this maximum should be high enough together with money received from the state, to supply plenty of funds for all ordinary purposes.

3. That the voters of the district have the power to levy a very high rate of tax.

Apportionment of School Funds.

Basis of Apportionment.

There are various bases for the apportionment of school moneys among the local units: assessed valuation, the number of pupils of school age, the number of teachers employed, the total enrollment of pupils, the average number of pupils attending for a certain time, the total days attended by all pupils for the year, the inverse property valuation, and various combinations of these bases.

Of these bases of apportionment the least to be commended is that of assessed valuation. This basis would in no degree equalize burdens or opportunities, but, on the con-

trary, it would increase the inequalities. A district with \$100,000 assessed valuation would receive twice as much from the state as one with \$50,000, while its educational needs might be greater. In order to have a school as well supported, the district assessed at \$50,000 would need to levy more than twice the rate levied by the district assessed at \$100,000. This basis is found in only two of the states, in those it is not the sole basis. (1). See page 111.

Next in order of merit, as a basis for apportionment, is the school census. The district with \$50,000 valuation and with an enumeration of 80 pupils would receive from the state as much as the district with \$100,000 valuation and 80 pupils enumerated. While this tends more toward equalization than an apportionment based on assessed valuation, yet it is by no means perfect, since, in order to have a school equally well supported the district assessed at \$50,000 would need to levy twice the rate assessed in the district assessed at \$100,000. Then, again, the one district might enforce the compulsory attendance law better than the other and encourage the attendance of pupils beyond the compulsory school age better. In this case the other would receive more per pupil in attendance than the first. This basis puts a premium on neglect of the attendance by school authorities, since the smaller the per cent of pupils in school the more nearly the state school moneys would come to paying the bill. In fact a few populous districts in Missouri, the number was 26 last year, by

neglecting the attendance and employing low salaried teachers have been able to run their schools on the state and county funds alone. This basis encourages neither effort to keep pupils in school, to raise money to support the school, nor to provide adequate teaching force on the part of the local district.

A basis which comes more nearly to an equalization of burdens is that of inverse valuation. This means the districts with a low assessed valuation receive a larger grant from the state than the ones with the large valuation. In New Hampshire, for example, \$1.75 per school week for every twenty-five pupils or major part thereof of average attendance is apportioned to all towns with an assessed valuation per child of average attendance of less than \$3,500; \$1.50 to towns with an assessed valuation per pupil of \$3,500 or more and less than \$4,500; \$1.25 to towns with a valuation per pupil of \$4,500 or more and less than \$5,500; \$1.00 to all towns with a valuation per pupil of \$5,500 or more and less than \$7,000; and \$.75 to all towns with a valuation per pupil of \$7,000 or more and less than \$9,500.

This basis encourages school attendance by giving a direct bonus of from seventy-five cents to one dollar and seventy-five cents for each weeks attendance of each twenty-five pupils. It also tends to equalize the schools burden

(2) For page 105. MacDowell p. 48.

(1) For page 110. McDowell, opus cit. p. 13.

since the weaker districts receive more than the stronger. But this particular rule would not relieve the situation in Missouri. The ~~average~~ valuation per child in average attendance in District No. 44 in Reynolds County, Missouri in 1914-15 was \$359; and the average attendance was 33. In District No. 25 in Saline County, the valuation per child was \$2,857 with an average attendance of 21. The assessed valuation of the Reynolds county district was \$11,849 and of the Saline County district was \$60,000. These two districts would receive the same sum, \$1.75 per week, under the New Hampshire rule since both have a valuation under \$3,500 per pupil and twenty-five or a major fraction thereof in average daily attendance. This sum received would not go far toward paying the expenses of the schools. If this were the only grant from the state, the remainder of the sum necessary to run the schools would be raised by local taxation. One of these districts with a valuation more than five times as great as the other would need to levy a rate less than one-fifth of the rate levied by the other in order to raise the same sum. Of course the basis of inverse valuation might be expressed in a more refined rule and combined with ~~other~~ bases (which latter is done in every state employing this basis), the state grant largely increased, and so do much to equalize school burdens and opportunities among the districts.

The number of teachers employed as a basis for apportionment is the sole basis in only one state -- Delaware --;

other states employing this basis combine it with other bases. This has merit in that it takes into consideration the needs of the district. Each district needs at least one teacher and in practically all cases the expenditure for salaries is greater than expenditure for any other item. However, it does not encourage attendance, since a district with a small per cent of the school population in school would receive the same as one with a large per cent in school. Neither does it take into account of the unequal ability of districts to support schools which is so great in Missouri. Combined with bases that encourage local effort adequately, this basis should be a feature of an apportionment law.

The total number of pupils enrolled as a basis is faulty in that it does not encourage continuity of attendance and encourages padding of the roll. This is not employed in any state.

The average number of pupils attending school a certain time, as two months as in Minnesota, as a basis is meritorious in that it does encourage attendance, but so far as the term required falls short of the entire school term it is faulty, since it fails to encourage attendance the full term.

The total number of days attended by all pupils for the year, is the best basis from the standpoint of encouraging attendance. It puts a premium on getting pupils into school and keeping them there. As a single basis it fails to equalize the burden of fixed charges or to encourage local

effort to raise money. Each school needs one teacher whether it has 15 or 45 children, but the attendance basis would give one school three times as much as the other. The districts in Missouri vary in financial ability, as indicated by assessed valuation, from less than \$10,000 to more than \$240,000 per teacher, and this basis takes no account of the fact that one district may be more than twenty-four times as able to support a school as another.

Proposed System for Missouri.

An ideal system of apportionment would put a premium on local effort to raise money for schools and to keep children in school. It would make it possible for a district with a low valuation to have a school as good as could be maintained by a district with a high valuation levying the same rate of tax. Therefore it seems that the bases for the apportionment of school moneys in Missouri should be, in the ordinary district, ⁽¹⁾ a teacher basis for a part of the funds apportioned to each district since the teacher's salary is a fixed charge and, ⁽²⁾ the total attendance basis since the districts should be encouraged to keep the children in school. But the amount to be apportioned per teacher and per pupil should vary inversely as the assessed valuation per teacher or per pupil day attended or both, and directly as the rate of local tax.

Districts with large areas but with few pupils would receive an apportionment based entirely on the teacher basis provided they have a relatively high per cent of attendance.

Districts with a small area and small attendance would receive an apportionment based entirely on attendance. The reason for the exception in the first case is that the teacher expense is constant and at least one teacher er/must be provided in each district. If the apportionment is based partly on attendance such districts would need to levy a larger rate in order to make up the sum needed than would a more fortunate district with more pupils. The reason for the exception in the second case is to encourage the abandonment of small weak schools which serve communities smaller in area than are necessary.

The high schools would be financed in the same way the district schools are. The high school rate, the high school attendance, and the high school teachers could be taken account of just as in the case of the district school. This would work out under present conditions somewhat as follows: The amount spent in 1914 for teachers' wages in Missouri was \$10,451,762.21. The assessed valuation of the state was \$1,756,541,620. The average rate needed to raise the teachers' fund entirely by taxation would be a little more than 59 cents on the one hundred dollars valuation.

What would be the cost or rate if each teacher is paid at least \$320? Five hundred and thirty-six teachers receive less than \$200 a year, and 2695 between \$200 and \$300. Assuming \$150 to be the average salary of those teachers receiving less than \$200, an estimate probably too low, \$170 would need to be added to the present salary to make it \$320, making a total to be added for the 536 teachers in

this salary class of \$91,120. Assuming \$250 to be the average salary of the group receiving \$200 to \$299, \$70 must be added to make the \$320, making a total to be added for the 2695 teachers in this group of \$188,650. In the group receiving \$300 to \$399 there are 5312 teachers. Assuming an even spread, one-fifth of the number receive \$320 or less and the average of this one-fifth would receive \$310. To raise this to \$320 would require \$10 for each of the 1062 teachers or \$10,620. In order to raise the lowest salaries so that none would be below the minimum of \$320 would require an addition to the sum spent for teachers' salaries of \$290,390 making a total of \$10,742, 152.21. To raise this entirely by taxation would require a total average rate of a fraction more than 61¢.

What should be the minimum rate for the locality?

The minimum rate for the locality should be the rate that would raise the minimum salary in the wealthiest district. In St. Louis City the average valuation per teacher is \$240,000, approximately. To raise \$320 per teacher would require a rate of 13-1/3 cents. This is the least rate any district would levy, and the difference between this rate and the total average rate of 61 cents is 47-2/3 cents. But the general state rate will be less than this for the reason that all those districts which pay more than the \$320 salary will levy more than 13-1/3 cents at the increased rate of 1 cent for every \$24 that the salary paid

exceeds \$320, and the 61 is the total average rate required to produce the sum paid for salaries. Just what the state rate would be cannot be determined without considering the rate levied and the assessed valuation in each separate district. This information is not available for each separate district. The most that can be said is that the rate for the state tax will be less than $47\frac{2}{3}$ cents when the total amount expended for salaries does not exceed \$10,742, 152.21.

But it is almost certain that much more than this would be expended shortly after the inauguration of the plan. Many small cities and towns are levying as much as or more than the present maximum legal rate in order to have schools as highly efficient as possible, but are still unable to pay salaries that attract well-trained and experienced teachers. This proposed scheme would greatly relieve such districts and they would undoubtedly levy a rate that would enable them to pay much larger salaries. The town of Everton in Dade County, for example, employs seven teachers, has an assessed valuation \$187,000, amounting to \$26,714 per teacher. It pays the principal \$1,000, the other two teachers in the high school each \$428 and the elementary teachers an average of \$380.00 each, all for ~~the~~ nine months' term. To maintain the school in this way requires a levy of 150 cents. This does not include interest and sinking fund, for the district is not in debt. There is no room to

doubt that under the proposed system of taxation and apportionment, this district would pay an average salary very much larger than it pays at present. Of the 150 cents levy, less than 40 cents is expended for incidentals, including in this term everything but teacher's salaries, a total of \$739. This leaves 110 cents raised by local taxation for teachers wages, which, together with state and county funds, tuition for foreign pupils, and private subscription, amount to \$3376 according to the 1914 Report of the State Superintendent. Suppose, under the proposed scheme, the state tax be placed at 50 cents. Everton could then levy 60 cents for teachers and bear the same tax burden for teachers as she does now. This rate would produce in the wealthiest district, St. Louis, \$1,440 per teacher; therefore Everton could pay an average salary of \$1440 as against \$482 at present with the same burden -- a salary practically three times as great as at present and more than \$300 greater than the average in St. Louis City. Of course, the district would not be permitted to pay such salaries except upon the employment of exceptionally skillful and well-trained teachers. But they undoubtedly would considerably increase salaries in order to obtain better material in the teacher's chair.

But suppose Everton pays salaries as at present. The average is \$482. To produce this in St. Louis would require a levy of less than 21 cents. Suppose it to be 21. The state tax rate would be less than 47-2/3 cents, but suppose

it to be 50. Everton's total rate for teachers would then be 71 cents as compared to 110 at present. Her contribution to the state fund would be \$935. The proceeds of the local 21 cent tax would be \$392.70. The difference between \$392.70 and \$3376, the sum spent for teachers' wages, is \$2983.30 the amount of the state grant. Everton would contribute \$935 to the state fund and would receive from that fund \$2983.30 a difference of \$2,048.30.

The City of Clayton employs twenty teachers, has an assessed valuation of \$3,941,780 or \$197,089 per teacher. The tax rate is 70 cents and the amount paid teachers is \$15,205. To raise this sum entirely by local taxation would require a rate of a little more than 38 cents. The report is not clear as to whether the superintendent is one of the twenty teachers reported or not. It is assumed that he is not, but it is immaterial for purposes of illustration. This makes twenty-one teachers with an average salary of \$724. To raise this in St. Louis would require a rate just a little more than 30 cents. Suppose it to be 30. The proceeds of the 30 cent tax in Clayton would be \$11,825.34. The difference between the amount paid teachers and the proceeds of the local tax is \$3,379.66, the amount of the state grant. Still assuming the state rate to be 50 cents Clayton would contribute \$19,708.90 to the state fund. The difference between the amount Clayton pays into the state fund and the amount she receives from it is \$16,329.24. She receives back a little more than 16 per cent of the

amount she pays into the state teachers' fund. While Everton receives more than 300 per cent of her contribution.

How can we justify a law requiring the wealthier districts, such as Clayton and St. Louis, to pay such a large sum into the state fund and receive so little; while others, such as Everton, pay so little and receive so much? Education is a state, more than a local affair. The uneducated voter in Ozark County is just as much a hindrance to good state government as the ignorant voter in Clayton. The citizen educated in Everton may spend his life in St. Louis or Kansas City. A very large number of citizens live and work in communities other than those in which they were educated. Each should do its share according to its ability, but abilities differ, as has been repeatedly pointed out. If it is right to compel the wealthy property owner of St. Louis to pay taxes to educate all the children of the city, it is fair to compel him to pay taxes to educate the boy in the poor rural districts in St. Louis County. There is no rational principle for drawing a line anywhere inside the state and saying to the tax-payer on one side, "You shall help educate the boy on your side of the line but not the boy on the other."

The justness of the state school tax has been conceded ✓ for a long time. The present constitution requires one-fourth of the ordinary revenues to be appropriated to the school fund. There is no reason why just this amount should be appropriated. In fact, the legislature for years

has appropriated one-third. It is recognized in the existing laws that the weaker districts should receive help from the state at large -- not as charity but as right. Since it is right it should be done scientifically -- determine the relative needs by whatever measure is agreed upon -- the proposed measure is the inverse of the property valuation -- put a premium on local effort, and equalize the burden and the opportunity.

CHAPTER V.

THE EDUCATION SECTION IN THE CONSTITUTION.

This chapter contains first, a discussion of the provisions relating to rural schools in the constitution of the various states as found in Thorpe's collection. This discussion will be followed by a suggested educational clause for the constitution of Missouri so far as concerns rural schools.

Provisions Relating to Rural Schools in State Constitutions.

One characteristic of the present-day state constitutions often mentioned is the large amount of legislation they contain and the consequent limitations of the powers of the legislative department. As a result of these limitations, there is great difficulty in adjusting governmental activity to changing social conditions. Examples of this are the clauses of the Constitution of Missouri defining the tenure of the State Superintendent of Schools, and the composition of the state board of education. It has been shown above that both these features are bad, but no statute can change either without amending the constitution - a process so very difficult and slow that it is all but futile to attempt.

Provisions are found in the constitutions of one or more states regulating the following: Tenure, term, salary, and duties of state and county superintendent; maximum or

minimum state or local tax for school purposes; apportionment of state and county school revenue; age of children for whom school is maintained. ~~Compulsory attendance~~; attendance of children of different races in the same school; composition and management of permanent school funds (Many of the constitutions go into considerable detail in this matter.); appropriations of funds for private and sectarian schools; school census; length of school term; adoption or printing of text-books; composition, tenure, term, and duties of state and local boards of education; teaching of sectarian doctrine in public schools; issuing bonds and provision of interest and sinking funds; grade of school for the support of which revenues may be used; the language in which instruction may be conducted; establishment of local libraries; time of school election; size of school district.

It is extremely doubtful if many of the foregoing subjects should be regulated by constitutional provisions. If there were universal agreement as a result of long and satisfactory practice of certain provisions, then the incorporation of such provisions in the constitution would be permissible. But it is just such provisions that are omitted. "The constitutions of several states make liquor selling, or the bribery of officials, necessarily crimes by organic law: which murder is not". (1). Instead of

(1). Stimson, Federal and State Constitutions of the United States, p. 70.

universal agreement, there is little uniformity among the provisions of the various constitutions. For example, the constitution of Alabama requires separate schools for whites and negroes; while that of Colorado prohibits any distinction of pupils on account of race or color. The constitution of Maine requires each town to maintain a school at its own expense, while that of Georgia permits counties to maintain schools by taxation only on the recommendation of two grand juries and the approval of two-thirds of the voters. In Alabama the legislature is required to levy a 30 cent state school tax, while in Missouri, there is no general state school tax, at all. And the list could be extended to include nearly every educational provision found in any constitution -- other constitutions contain provisions at variance with it. Such large disagreement in practice indicates uncertainty as to what the practice should be now, not to speak of conditions as they shall develop in the future. Because of this uncertainty the constitutions should be as little restrictive as possible. The legislature of the future should be left free to adjust means to end, to correct mistakes in the light of experience. Experience seems to indicate that certain features are desirable, such as large powers in the state board and a large tax levy for schools. Such things may properly go into the constitution. Of course some provisions are restrictive even tho there is no "thou shalt not". For example, the provision that the state sup-

erintendent shall be elected by popular vote acts to prohibit election in a different manner. But as far as is possible the constitution should leave the legislature free to get things done.

Proposed Education Section.

Some such provision as the following should be included in the constitution for Missouri: "A general diffusion of knowledge and intelligence being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people and to their proper development, the General Assembly shall provide for the organization and maintainance of a uniform system of public schools, and shall provide for levying general and local taxes to the end that educational burdens and opportunities shall be equalized throughout the state.

"The general supervision and control of the schools of elementary and secondary grade of the state supported by public funds shall be vested in a Board of Education, composed of seven members, appointed by the governor for a term of seven years, and the terms of no two members shall expire in any one year. The executive officers of the board shall be a Commissioner of Education and such deputies, inspectors, and other assistants as shall be found necessary; these officers shall be appointed by the state board with no restriction as to residence, and shall receive such compensation as the board shall determine.

"The state board of education shall prescribe and enforce minimum standards for buildings, equipment, sanitation,

instruction, text-books and courses of study. It shall certificate all teachers in the state and shall determine their qualifications. It shall prescribe uniform methods of keeping records and making reports, and shall inspect and classify all public schools within the state, and may withhold state grants from schools for failure to meet the requirements of the board. The board shall manage and control the permanent state school funds, shall apportion the state school funds according to law, and shall supervise the management of funds. It shall determine the rate of state tax necessary to equalize the educational burdens and opportunities in a manner to be determined by law, and shall perform such other duties as may be prescribed by law."

CHAPTER VI.

Proposed Laws Relating to Rural Schools of Missouri.

This proposed code contains only such provisions as the writer believes essential to efficient rural school administration. Provisions applying only to other schools would need to be incorporated if these suggestions were enacted into law.

Article I State Board of Education.

Sec. 1. The general supervision and control of all the public schhols of elementary and secondary grade of the state shall be vested in a State Board of Education, which shall consist of seven members, not more than one of whom shall be residents of any one county. They shall be appointed by the Governor for the following terms, to commence on the ----day of-----; one for one year; one for two years; one for three years; one for four years; one for five years; one for six years; and one for seven years. Annually thereafter one member shall be appointed by the governor for a term of seven years. Vacancies shall be filled for the unexpired term. The governor may for specific cause, which shall be filed with the secretary of state at the time, remove any member. A suitable room in the capitol at Jefferson City shall be provided for the use. of the board.

Said board shall meet in the capitol at Jefferson City at such times as their rules may prescribe, or on the call of the President of the board, the commissioner of education, of any three members, and at such other times and places within the state as in its judgment may be necessary.

Sec. 2, Powers and Duties of the State Board of Education.

The State board of education shall have power:

1. To frame and modify by-laws for its own government; to elect its president and other officers; ~~and~~ to prescribe and enforce rules and regulations necessary to carry into effect the school laws of this state; and to remove~~d~~ from office any school officer neglecting or refusing to carry out the provisions of this code or the rules and regulations of the board made in conformity with the provisions of this code and of the constitution.
2. To appoint a commissioner of education who shall be a trained and experienced educator with no restriction as to residence or sex, and shall determine his salary and term and, on the nomination of the commissioner, shall appoint such assistant commissioner, and other employees as are deemed necessary.
3. To decide appeals from the decisions of the commissioner of education and county boards of education.
4. To prescribe the qualifications for teacher's certificates of different classes, to determine the classes of certificates to be issued, and to issue certificates to such as have been found by the commissioner of education to possess these qualifications; and no teacher shall be employed to teach any subject in any elementary or secondary school of the state who does not hold a certificate from the state board of education authorizing him or her to teach such

subject or subjects in a school of that class.

5. To prescribe a uniform system of book-keeping for use by school officers and compel all school officers to use the same, and to require full reports at stated times from all schools and school officers both public and private.

6. To compel the production at such time and place within the state as it may designate of any and all books, papers, and vouchers, in any way relating to schools or to the receipt or disbursement of school moneys; compel the attendance, before it or before any of its committees or before the commissioner of education or one of his assistants, at such time and place as it may designate, of any member of a board of education, or of any person in the employ of a board of education, and suspend or remove from office any person refusing to attend or to submit books, papers, and vouchers as he may have been directed to produce. The necessary expenses of such member of a board of education or employee shall be paid out of any funds available for the payment of the expenses of the state board of education.

7. To issue subpoenas signed by its president and secretary compelling the attendance of witnesses and the production of books and papers in any part of the state before it or before any of its committees or before the commissioner of education ^{one} or of the assistant commissioners. The necessary expenses of such witnesses shall be paid out of any funds available for the payment of the expenses of the state board of education.

8. To administer oaths and to examine under oath any witness in regard to any matter pertaining to schools by its presiding officer, by the chairman of any of its committees, and by the commissioner of education, or by any of the assistant commissioners, and to cause the examination to be reduced to writing. Any person, who, having been sworn or affirmed by the presiding officers of the state board or by the chairman of any of its committees, or by the commissioner of education, or by any of his assistants to tell the truth, and who shall willfully give false testimony, shall be guilty of perjury. And if a person subpoenaed to appear before the board or one of its committees or the commissioner of education or one of the assistant commissioners fails to obey the command of such subpoena, without reasonable cause, or if a person in attendance upon the board or one of its committees or the commissioner of education, shall, without a reasonable cause, refuse to be sworn or to be examined, or to answer a question, or to produce a book or paper when ordered to do so by the board, or to subscribe or swear to his deposition after it has been correctly produced in writing, he shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars nor more than one thousand dollars or by imprisonment in the county jail not to exceed one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment, and may be prosecuted therefor in any court of competent jurisdiction; and in case of a continuing vio-

lation each day's continuance thereof shall be and be deemed a separate and distinct offense.

9. To visit, inspect and classify through the commissioner of education or his assistants all public or private schools within the state of elementary or secondary grade and all schools giving courses for the training of teachers.

10. To prepare for boards of education specifications for the minimum requirements for heating, ventilation, lighting, seating, equipment, water supply, toilet, safety against fire of school buildings, and any other matters to promote the efficiency of instruction and the health and safety of pupils. And to approve rules adopted by local boards for the medical inspection of the schools. And no school building shall be erected or additions to any school building built without the plans and specifications and contract first having been approved by the board or someone designated by the board.

11. To transmit to the general assembly annually a detailed budget covering the needed expenses of the state board of education, including salaries, office supplies, and other expenses.

12. To estimate the sum of money needed to equalize the tax burdens of the various districts of the state as provided for in Article VI of this school code, to determine the tax rate necessary to raise this sum together with the sums appropriated for the use of the state board of education, and to certify such rate, as is prescribed in the chapter on Revenues and Taxation of the Revised Statutes of the State.

13. To transmit annually to the governor a report covering the activities of the board, the condition of all schools of the state, both public and private; and by reports, circulars, pamphlets, and lectures, to keep the people of the state informed as to the condition and needs of the schools of the state.

14. To recommend to the general assembly such legislation as shall be deemed desirable. And if such recommendation be in the form of a bill, it shall be referred to the appropriate committee in each house and reported out within a reasonable time.

15. To determine by general rule the number of assistant superintendents and clerks to be employed by the county districts.

Art. 2. Commissioner of Education.

Sec. 1. The chief executive officer of the state board of education shall be a commissioner of education. He shall be a trained and experienced educator. He shall be appointed by the state board of education for an indefinite term and at such salary as shall be determined by the board, and shall be removable by a vote of five members of the board.

Sec. 2. The commissioner of education shall, by and with the advice and consent of the state board of education:

1. Organize the department of education into divisions to include the division of rural education, and such other divisions as may be deemed necessary.

2. Appoint an assistant commissioner of education to be the

chief of each division, and such other employees as may be deemed necessary at a salary to be determined by the board. Such assistant commissioners, inspectors and chief clerks shall be trained and experienced educators.

3. Suspend any local officer for neglect or refusal to carry out the provisions of the constitution or laws of the state relating to schools or the rules and regulations of the state board of education made in conformity with this code and the constitution, and may withhold money apportioned from the state revenues from any district refusing or neglecting to carry out the provisions of the school laws or the rules and regulations of the state board of education.
4. Perform all duties imposed upon him by the board under the constitution and laws of the state.
5. Prepare a list of approved text-books from which county and district boards shall make their selection for adoption or purchase.
6. Prepare a minimum course of study for the guidance of school boards and superintendents of the various classes of schools of elementary and secondary grade.
7. Decide all controversies that shall arise under this code and the rules and regulations of the board appealed to the state board of education from the decisions of county boards of education, such decisions being final when confirmed by the state board of education.

8. Compile and cause to be printed all school laws and regulations of the state board, and distribute the same.

9. Inspect and classify all schools of elementary and secondary grade and schools for the training of teachers in the state and to make and enforce such recommendations as to records, instruction, sanitation, building, equipment, and district boundary lines as may be deemed necessary. But no such recommendation shall require an expense on the part of any district that will involve a higher rate of taxation than such district may legally levy.

Sec. 3 The commissioner of education may remove any assistant commissioner, inspector, clerk or other employee in any division of the department of education, and any assistant commissioner may remove any employee in his department.

Sec. 4 The commissioner of education shall each year call a meeting of the county superintendents, for the discussion of matters pertaining to the supervision and administration of the public schools of the state. The necessary travelling expenses incurred by the superintendents attending such conventions shall be allowed by the state board of education.

Art. 3. Supervisory Districts.

Sec. 1. For the purposes of supervision, each school district employing fifty or more teachers shall be a city district.

Each school district employing ten or more and less than fifty shall determine by its board or, on petition of five per cent of the tax payers, by vote of the qualified voters, whether to be a city district or a part of the county district. That

part of each county lying outside of city districts shall be a county district. The board of each district shall be elected by the qualified voters thereof.

Sec. 2. Each county district shall be under the supervision and control of a county board of education composed of five members who shall be elected at the annual district school meeting held on the first Tuesday in April for the following terms to commence on the first Saturday in May 19--: One for one year, one for two years, one for three years, one for four years, and one for five years. Annually thereafter one member shall be elected for a term of five years. Vacancies occurring on the county board shall be filled by appointment by the remaining members of the board until the first Tuesday in April at which time the voters shall choose a member to serve for the unexpired term. Members of the board shall reside within the district but not more than one member shall reside within one municipal township unless there are fewer than five municipal townships lying wholly or partially within the district, in which case at least one member must reside in each township. ~~Nominations of candidates for members of the county board of education shall be by petition only.~~ The county clerk shall place upon the official ballot the names of any candidates on his request, and no emblem, name, or other device shall be placed on the ballot to designate the party to which any candidate belongs. The county clerk shall cause the official ballots to be printed and shall enclose a sufficient number of ballots in the package with the tally sheets

and mail at least ten days before each annual meeting as directed in Sec. 10930 R.S. 1909 for the election of the county superintendent, and the election of members of the board of education shall be conducted and certified as directed in said section 10930, except that a tie vote shall be decided by the remaining numbers of the county board, and the person so declared elected shall serve for the term for which he is a candidate.

Sec. 3. The county board shall have power:

1. To elect a president, a county superintendent, (who shall be secretary of the board) and on the nomination of the county superintendent such assistant superintendents as are allowed by the rules of the state board of education with no restriction as to residence or sex, and determine their salaries and terms. But no person shall perform the duties of county superintendent or assistant county superintendent nor receive any compensation therefor who shall not have received a certificate as county superintendent from the state board of education.

2. To subvide the county district into rural high school districts and to determine the location of rural high school buildings, with the advice of the county superintendent and the commissioner of education.

3. Within three years of the approval of this act, and from time to time thereafter as conditions demand, with the advice of the county superintendent and the commissioner of education, to adjust the boundary lines of the school

districts so as best to promote economy of administration and consistent with the convenience of the people; and to determine the location of school houses in newly created districts, but no new school house shall be erected in any county district without the approval of the county board, subject to appeal to the state board of education.

4. To provide adequate office and equipment ~~the same~~ for the use of the county superintendent and assistant superintendents, and to pay for the clerical work of the office. The expenditure for office rent and equipment and clerical hire must be reasonable, and of such reasonableness, the state board of education shall be the final judge.

5. To require from the county superintendent once in every three months or oftener, a detailed statement of his activities and those of the assistant superintendents, and of the conditions and needs of the schools of the county, and to print and distribute over the county an annual report of the conditions and needs of the schools.

6. To order warrants drawn on the county school fund for the payment of the salaries of the county superintendent, assistant superintendent, and clerical force, and for other office expenses.

7. With the advice of the county superintendent, to adopt text-books for the use of such schools in the county district as do not provide free text-books, but such selection must be from the list approved by the state board of education.

8. On the advice of the county superintendent, to adopt a

course of study for the schools of the county district, subject to the minimum requirements of the state board of education.

9. To estimate the revenues needed to pay the salaries of the county superintendent, assistant county superintendent, clerical hire, and other necessary expenses, to determine the rate of tax needed to raise this amount and to levy the same.

10. To fill vacancies on the board of directors of districts whose board consists of a single member, and to remove such members for repeated neglect of duty.

11. To invest, manage, and control county and township permanent school funds, and to apportion the revenues derived therefrom and from railroad taxes among the districts within the county.

12. To perform such other duties as may be required by law or by the rules and regulations of the state board of education.

Sec. 3. The chief executive officer of the county board of education shall be the county superintendent. His qualifications shall be determined by the state board of education and no person shall serve as such officer or as assistant county Superintendent who has not such qualifications certified to by the state board of education except such persons as hold the office of county superintendent at the time of the approval of this act. Such persons shall serve for the entire term for which they were elected and for the same

compensation.

The county superintendent shall be the secretary of county board and it shall be his duty:

1. To nominate such assistant county superintendents and clerical helpers as are allowed by law or by the rules of the state board of education, when vacancies shall occur in such position, and to assign them to their duties subject to the approval of the county board of education.
2. To nominate teachers for the various schools in the county district, subject to the approval of the district board.
3. To visit and supervise in person and by the assistant superintendents all the schools of the county district, giving such guidance and assistance as will best increase the efficiency of the teacher, holding educational conferences with the patrons of each school, seeing that all records are properly kept and finances properly handled, and doing everything possible to develop a healthy progressive school spirit.
4. To keep a complete record of the work of the county board, of his own work, and that of his deputies, and to make such reports as may be required by law, by the rules and regulations of the state board of education and by the county board of education.
5. In co-operation with the commissioner of education or his representative to advise the county board of education from time to time, and as often as said board may require, a

~~a statement~~ as to what changes in the boundary lines of the school districts within the county districts are needed to secure the most economical administration of the schools consistent with the convenience of the residents of such districts.

6. To attend the annual convention of county superintendents called by the commissioner of education and to perform such other duties as may be prescribed according to law.

Art. IV. Annual Meeting.

Sec. 1. The annual meeting of each common school district shall be held on the first Tuesday in April of each year, at the district schoolhouse, commencing at 2 o'clock p.m. If no schoolhouse is located within the district, the place of meeting shall be designated by notices, posted in five public places within the district fifteen days previous to such annual meeting, or by notice for ^{the} same length of time in all the newspapers published in the district, giving the time, place and purposes of each meeting.

Sec. 2. The qualified voters of common school districts assembled at the annual meeting, when not otherwise provided, shall have power by a majority of votes cast:

First--to organize by the election of a chairman and a secretary, who shall keep an accurate record of the proceedings of the meeting, which when duly approved and attested by the signature of the chairman, the clerk shall enter upon the

record of the district.

Second--To choose, by ballot, one common school director, who shall hold his office for the term of one year and until his successor is elected and qualified.

Third--To determine, by ballot, the length of school term in excess of eight months that the public schools of the district shall be maintained for the next scholastic year; also, to determine the rate, if any, in excess of 40cents on the one hundred dollars' assessed valuation to be levied for the payment of teacher's salaries, and in excess of 20 cents for incidentals as provided for in section 10796 of the Revised Statutes of the State.

Fourth--To direct the sale of any property belonging to the district but no longer required for the use thereof, to determine the disposition of the same and the application of the proceeds.

Fifth--To designate their choice, by ballot of one member of the county board of education and of one member of the joint high school board.

Sixth--To determine, by ballot, the rate to be levied upon the one hundred dollars' assessed valuation necessary to purchase a site, erect a schoolhouse thereon and furnish the same, as provided for in section 10797.


Sec. 3. Regulations governing elections at the annual meetings.-- The qualified voters of any village school district shall vote by ballot upon all questions provided by law for

submission at the annual school meetings, and such election shall be held on the first Tuesday in April of each year, and at such convenient place within the district as the board may designate, beginning at 7 o'clock a.m. and closing at 6 o'clock p.m. of said day. The board shall appoint three judges of election, and said judges shall appoint two clerks; said judges and clerks shall be sworn and the election otherwise conducted in the same manner as the elections for state and county officers, and the result thereof certified by the judges and clerks to the secretary of the board of education, who shall record the same, and, by order of said board, shall issue certificates of election to the persons entitled thereto; and the results of all other propositions submitted must be reported to the secretary of the board, and by him duly entered upon the district records. All propositions submitted at said annual meeting may be voted for upon one and the same ballot, and necessary poll books shall be made out and furnished by the secretary of the board; Provided, that in all cities and towns having a population exceeding two thousand and not exceeding one hundred thousand inhabitants, said election shall be held at the same time and places as the election for municipal officers, and the judges and clerks of such municipal election shall act as judges and clerks of said school election, but the ballots for said school election shall be upon separate pieces of paper and deposited in a separate ballot box kept

for that purpose. Should such school district embrace territory not included in the limits of such town or city, the qualified voters thereof may vote at such voting precincts as they would be attached to, provided the ward line thereof were extended and produced through such adjoining territory. All school districts in cities, towns, and villages in this state which are now or which may hereafter be under special charter shall hereafter hold their annual school elections on the first Tuesday in April and the members of the boards of education now serving in such districts shall continue to serve until the first Tuesday in April next following the expiration of the terms for which they were elected or appointed, and until their successors are elected and qualified.

Article V. Powers and Duties of Joint High Schools, Village, and Common School Districts.

Sec. 1. For the purpose of purchasing schoolhouse sites, erecting school houses, library buildings, and furnishing the same, and building additions to or repairing old buildings, the boards of directors of joint school and village districts and the director of common school districts shall be authorized to borrow money, and issue bonds for the payment thereof, in the manner provided in Sec. 10777, and Sec. 10778 of the Revised Statutes of 1909. But if the voters of any district fail or refuse to vote for the loan as specified ^{in Sec.} 10777 aforesaid, and if there is no schoolhouse or



equipment, or if the schoolhouse or the equipment does not meet the minimum requirements of the state board of education, then the district board or director shall proceed to build, and equip a schoolhouse or cause the schoolhouse to be repaired and improved and the equipment to be put into condition to meet the minimum requirements of the state board of education. If the cost of erecting such building or making such repairs, and improvements does not exceed one per cent of the assessed valuation of the district, the board or director shall issue therefor warrants bearing interest at 6% at call, and shall levy a building tax sufficient to pay the warrants with accrued interest and shall call in said warrants as soon as the proceeds of said tax are paid into the county treasury, and no warrant shall continue to draw interest after a call has been issued for its payment. If the cost of such new building, repairs, and improvements is more than one per cent of the assessed valuation the board or director shall borrow money and issue bonds for the payment of such repairs and improvements in the same manner as if bonds had been voted under section 10777 and with the restrictions specified in section 10778 and may levy the taxes specified in sections 10782 and 10783. If the board or director of any district refuse to provide building and equipment according to the law and rules of the state board of education the state board of education shall not apportion any part of the state funds to such district.

Sec.2. The board or director shall have the care and

keeping of all the property belonging to the district, and shall provide the necessary globes, maps, charts, apparatus ^{other} and material for the use of the school. The board or director shall keep the schoolhouse and other buildings in good repair, the grounds belonging thereto in good condition, and shall provide fuel, heating apparatus and all other material appliances necessary for the proper heating, lighting, ventilation, and sanitation of the schoolhouse; shall have the building cleaned and the fires made. The board or director shall allow the use of the schoolhouse and school premises for any social, religious, fraternal, literary, or other public purposes when such use does not interfere with the exercises of the school. And it shall be the duty of the person or persons so using them to keep them clean and in good repair, and to leave them in as good condition as they were when they took charge of them. Provided that should the person or persons so using the schoolhouse and school premises fail to comply with the provisions of this section, the board or director of such district shall refuse ^{the} further use of them until said provisions are complied with.

Sec. 3. The board or director shall have power, by and with the advise and consent of the county superintendent, to make all needful rules and regulations for the organization, grading and government in the school over which said board has control. If any board or director fails to

make such rules and regulations, the rules and regulations made by the county board of education shall have the same force and effect in the district as is made by the board or director in direct charge of the school. The board or director shall have power to suspend or expel a pupil for conduct tending to the demoralization of the school, after notice and a hearing upon charges preferred; but any decision on such charges may be appealed to the county board of education, and the decision of the county board shall be final. Provided that the county superintendent may suspend a pupil for conduct tending to the demoralization of the school giving immediate notice to the parent or guardian of such pupil and to the board in immediate control of the school such suspensions shall be for not more than three days.

Sec. 4. The district board or director shall have power, on the nomination by the county superintendent, at a regular or special meeting, to contract with and employ legally qualified teachers for and in the name of the district as provided in section 10787 R. S. 1909.

Sec. 5. The board or director of each district shall, on or before the fifteenth day of May of each year, forward to the county clerk an estimate of the amount of funds necessary to pay the expenses of sustaining the schools of the district for the time required by the law, or where a longer term has been ordered by the annual meeting, for the time thus decided upon, together with such other amount for purchasing site, erecting buildings or

meeting bonded indebtedness, and interest on the same, as may have been legally ordered, stating the amount deemed necessary for each of the three funds, and the rate required to raise said amount. But no district board or director except directors in common school districts of the third class shall have power, without the authorization of a majority of the voters voting on such question, to levy more than forty cents on the one hundred dollars assessed valuation for the payment of teachers' salaries, nor shall any board or director in any one year levy for teachers' salaries more than is estimated to be necessary to pay teachers salaries for the ensuing year, nor shall any board or director levy for the incidental fund, without the consent of a majority of the voters voting thereon, more than twenty cents on the one hundred dollars valuation.

Sec. 6. The board or director is hereby empowered and required to continue the public school or schools in the district for a period of eight months in each scholastic year. And if the board or director of any district fails or refuses to levy such taxes in any year the county board of education shall proceed to levy the required taxes or to annex the territory of such district to adjoining districts.

Sec. 7. The government and control of each common school district shall be vested in one director; and of each village district in a board of three directors who

shall be citizens of the united states, resident tax payers and qualified voters of the district, and who shall have paid a state and county tax within one year next preceding his or their election . The directors in all districts shall be chosen by the qualified voters thereof at the time and in the manner prescribed in Article 5, Sec.2, of this code.

Sec. 7a. Each joint high school district shall be under the control of a joint high school board composed of three members who shall have the same qualifications as members of village school boards, and who shall be elected at the annual district school meeting held on the first Tuesday in April for the following terms to commence on the first Saturday in May 19--: one for one year, one for two years, and one for three years. Annually thereafter one member shall be elected for a term of three years. Vacancies occurring in the joint high school board shall be filled by appointment by the remaining members of the board, or by the county board if the two members cannot agree as to the appointment, the member appointed shall serve until the first Tuesday in April next following at which time the qualified voters of the district shall choose a member for the unexpired term. Members of the board shall reside within the district. The results of the election shall be certified to the secretary of the joint high school board.

Sec. 8. The directors of village and joint high school

boards shall meet within four days after the annual meeting, at some place within the district, and organize by electing one of their number president; and the board shall, on or before the fifteenth day of July, select a clerk, who shall enter upon his duties on the fifteenth day of July, but no compensation shall be allowed such clerk until all reports required by law and by the board have been duly made and filed, provided that the director of common school district shall be exofficio clerk. A majority of the board shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business: Provided, each member shall have due notice of the time, place and purpose of such meeting; and in the case of the absence of the clerk, one of the directors, ~~one of the directors~~ may act temporarily in his place. The clerk shall keep a correct record of the proceedings of all the meetings of the board. No director or member of the board shall receive any compensation for performing the duties of a director.

Sec. 9. The district clerk shall keep a record of the proceedings of all annual and special meetings of the qualified voters of the district; also a record of the official acts of the board of directors or director. He shall make copies of the election notices, contracts with teachers, certificates and all other papers relating to the business of the district, and securely keep the same. He shall transmit to the county superintendent, on or before the fifteenth day of July in each year, a report embracing such

items as may be required by the state board of education or by the county board.

Sec. 10. It shall be the duty of the district clerk to procure the necessary record books for the proper transaction of the duties of his office; also to procure and furnish to each teacher a school register, properly ruled, headed, and classified, to exhibit the following: The names, ages and studies pursued by all pupils attending the school, the date of their entrance, daily attendance and absence, and the date of the visitation of the school by the directors or patrons, and such other facts as the State Board of Education may require-- the above to be paid for out of the moneys used to defray the incidental expenses of the district.

Sec. 11. It shall be the duty of the district clerk to post all notices required by law, when duly ordered by the board, for any annual or special school meeting; also, those required by law to be posted by the district clerk without such order from the board; and all such notices shall be given as provided in section 10844. (R. S. 1899, #9787, amended, L. 1909, p. 770.)

Sec. 12. Upon the order of the board of directors, it shall be the duty of the district clerk to draw warrants on the county treasurer in favor of any party to whom the district has become legally indebted, either for services, as teacher, for material purchased for the use of the school, or material or labor in the erection of the schoolhouse for said district-- the said warrant to be paid out of any

moneys in the appropriate funds in the hands of the said treasurer and belonging to the district. The species of indebtedness must be clearly stated and should be drawn on its appropriate fund; all moneys for teachers wages on the teachers' fund; all moneys used in the purchase of a site, erection of a building thereon, and furnishing the same, on building fund; and all other expenses to be paid out of the incidental fund: Provided, however, that no order for the payment of teachers' wages shall be drawn in favor of any person not holding a certificate of qualification, signed by the commissioner of education and the president of the state board of education or in favor of any teacher delinquent in his monthly term reports; and no warrant shall be paid by the treasurer until countersigned by the county superintendent; and further provided that before drawing any such warrant, the clerk of the board shall first visit the office of the county or township treasurer, and record his signature in a book to be kept in the office of said treasurer for that purpose, and for making such trip such clerk shall be allowed one dollar per day and his necessary travelling expenses, payable out of the incidental funds of his district.

Art. 6. Apportionment of School Funds.

Sec. 1. The districts composing the county district shall be classified into village districts and common school districts. Each district employing more than three teachers shall be a village district. All other districts shall be

common school districts. Common school districts shall be classified into three classes A, B, and C. Each common school district having an average daily attendance of thirty or more pupils shall be known as class A: each district having an average daily attendance of ^{than thirty} ~~thirty~~ or less, and an area of nine square miles or more shall be known as class B: and each district having an average attendance of less than thirty and an area of less than nine square miles shall be known as class C.

The wealthiest district in the state is the district giving the largest quotient obtained by dividing the assessed valuation by the number of teachers employed by the district.

Sec. 2. The number of teachers employed by each district shall be determined as follows: Each teacher or supervising officer employed for full time by the district shall be counted one; each teacher or supervising officer employed by the district for half time or more but less than full time shall be counted one half; each teacher employed for less than half time shall not be counted. If the district is part of one or more joint high school districts each teacher employed in such joint high school or high schools shall be counted as such fraction of one as the total number of days attended by pupils of such district in the high school or high schools is of the total number of days attended by all pupils in such high school or high schools.

Sec. 3. The amount to be apportioned by the state board of education to each district shall be determined as follows: To

village district and common school districts of the class A, a sum per teacher equal to the difference between the proceeds per teacher of one third the rate levied by the district and the sum said one third of the rate would produce per teacher in the wealthiest district in the state, together with a sum per pupil in total daily attendance equal to the difference between the proceeds per pupil in total daily attendance of two thirds the rate levied by the district and the sum said two thirds of the rate would produce per pupil in total daily attendance in the wealthiest district of the state. Provided that no money shall be apportioned to any common school or village district which levies less than fifteen cents on the one hundred dollars valuation for teachers. To districts of class B, a sum equal to the difference between the proceeds of the rate levied by the district and the sum the same rate would produce per teacher in the wealthiest district in the state. Provided that the percentage of average daily attendance on enumeration for the year shall not be less than the average percentage of attendance of the one third of the districts in the state having the highest percentage of attendance on enumeration.

To districts of class C, a sum per pupil equal to the difference between the proceeds of the rate levied by the district per pupil in total daily attendance the previous year and the amount such rate would produce per pupil in total daily attendance in the wealthiest district of the state. But

the state board of education may in case any such class C district is bounded by barriers difficult of passage, classify such class C district as class B in which case the apportionment shall be made according to the rule for districts of class B.

To joint high school districts according to the rule for village and class A districts and in determining the number of teachers employed the total number of high school and elementary school teachers employed in the district shall be counted according to the rule laid down ^{in Sec. 2 of this article} ~~on page 101~~, and in determining the number of days attended the total attended by all high school and elementary school pupils in the district shall be counted.

To county school districts according to the rule for village and class A districts, and in determining the number of teachers the total number of teachers employed in the county district shall be counted according to the rule in Sec. 2 of this article together with the county superintendent and all the assistant superintendents; and in determining the total days attended, the total days attended by all pupils in the county school district shall be counted.

But no sum shall be apportioned to any district that has within one year failed to comply with the provisions of the law and of the rules of the state board of education.

Sec. 4. The county and township funds and the revenue

for schools derived from railroad taxes in each county shall be apportioned to the city, village, and common school districts within the county upon the last enumeration on file in the office of the county superintendent.

CHAPTER VII.

APPLICATION OF THE RULES OF APPORTIONMENT TO
SOME TYPICAL DISTRICTS.

How will the proposed scheme of taxation and apportionment work, ^{and} what will it cost? It is impossible to answer the question with any degree of accuracy and completeness with any data that are available at this time or that can be collected. To give a complete answer for any given year it would be necessary to know the rate levied for teachers for every district in the state; the number of teachers employed and their salaries; the total days attended the previous year; the area; the assessed valuation; the enumeration; and, for districts with an average attendance of thirty or less and an area of less than nine square miles, we should know enough about the geographical conditions to determine whether it could reasonably be combined with other territory. These facts could be determined by a private individual but at an expense that is prohibitive. To give an accurate answer for the future is impossible for no one can forecast the salaries that would be paid in any of the districts. Scores of schools in the smaller cities and towns of the state are levying the legal maximum rate and beyond and are able to maintain their schools on but a low plane of efficiency. These schools would, no doubt, increase salaries very materially under a plan such as is proposed in this paper.

Another factor that cannot be anticipated is the number of districts that would be combined by the county boards. The report of the state superintendent of public schools for 1914 shows that of the 9837 districts in the state, 5,911 had an average attendance of less than twenty-five and only 1,421 had an average **a**ttendance of more than forty. Consequently, the number of districts combined would probably be rather large, and fewer teachers than at present would be needed. Because of the impossibility of determining the influence of these factors no complete statement as to how the proposed plan would work will be attempted. Instead a few typical districts will be discussed to show how the plan would work under present conditions in those districts. Then an attempt will be made to determine the maximum and minimum limits of the tax rate for teachers under the proposed plan.

A Class C District.

District number thirty in Saline County in 1914 had an assessed valuation of \$16,435.00, levied a tax of 65 cents on the one hundred dollars valuation for teacher and incidentals, enumerated twenty-eight pupils, had an average **a**ttendance of fourteen for a term of 120 days; the salary of the teacher was \$180.00; and the area of the district was about two and one-fourth square miles. This district, not allowing for delinquencies, paid \$106.83 local taxes. ~~This district~~ The state general revenue tax was fifteen cents on the one hundred dollars valuation, and one third of this, or

five cents, was appropriated to the state school fund. To this add two cents tax to pay the interest on the school certificates of indebtedness making a total state tax of seven cents. This rate would produce \$11.50 in the district. The total amount contributed by this district for schools was therefore, \$118.33. The district received \$34.55 from the state, \$50.00 from the permanent county and township funds, and \$45.90 from the railroad tax. The total revenue of the district were \$237.28, about half of which was contributed by the district in taxes.

Under the proposed plan the term would be at least 160 days instead of 120. The teachers' salary would be at least \$40.00 a month instead of \$30.00 making \$320.00 for the year instead of \$180.00.

The district received from the county and township permanent funds and railroad taxes \$95.90 which would be available for teachers' salary under the proposed plan, leaving \$224.10 to be derived from local taxation and the state grants. Since the average attendance was less than thirty and the area less than nine square miles this district would be a class C district and the state grant based on attendance alone. The wealthiest district in the state, St. Louis City, employs 2341 teachers; at \$320.00 each, the total salaries would be \$749,120.00. The total days attended in St. Louis was 15,356,292. If the teachers' salaries in St. Louis were \$320.00 a year the amount spent per pupil day in sch day in school for salaries would be 4.8 cents. To produce

this sum by local taxation in St. Louis requires a rate of 13-1/3 cents. District No. 30 in Saline County had an average daily attendance of fourteen; and for 160 days this would give 2240 total days attended. The proceeds of the 13-1/3 cent tax would be \$21.89. The difference between this and \$107.52 (the amount the 13-1/3 cent tax would produce for each 2240 days attended by pupils in St. Louis) is \$85.63. This is the state grant. The state grant and the district's share in the county and township permanent funds and in the railroad tax amount to \$181.53 leaving \$138.47 for teacher's salary to be raised by local taxation. This would require a rate of 85 cents, not allowing for delinquencies. During that year the district spent \$34.40 for incidentals. For an eight months term this fund would need to be larger; at least \$40.00 would be required for fuel, clerk, and repairs, to say nothing of other supplies. This would require a rate of 25 cents, making a total local rate of 110 cents. Adding^{to} this a state school tax of 45 cents (estimated) makes the total tax of the district 155 cents as compared to the present tax of 72 cents. It gives in return an eight months term as compared to six at present, and a teacher worth \$320.00 a year as compared to one worth \$180.00 as at present.

A Class A District.

The burden on district number 30 is unnecessarily heavy for what the pupils get out of it. Districts No. 41, No. 31, and No. 30 lie in a fairly compact form and have a

total area less than ten square miles. So far as appears from the map these three districts could be consolidated and all the pupils attend one school. This would give a valuation of \$102,945.00, an enumeration of eighty pupils, an average attendance of forth-one, an income from county and township funds of \$155.15, and from railroad tax \$142.60. The three districts paid in 1913-14 \$672 for teachers salaries for a six months' term, no teacher receiving more than \$270.00.

If the consolidated district employed a teacher at \$320.00 the \$297.75 county funds and railroad tax would fall short \$22.25 of paying the teachers salary. To meet this sum, a tax of three cents is more than sufficient. In 1913-14 the total state grants to the three districts were \$155.15. Under the proposed plan with a teachers' salary of \$320.00 no state grant would be made -- the local rate being less than fifteen cents. An incidental tax of ten cents would raise \$102.94, no allowance made for delinquencies. The total state and local tax paid by the consolidated district would be 58 cents as compared to 73 cents for districts number 30 and 31, and 47 cents for number 41. But it gives a longer term, a better paid teacher, and very much more money for the purchase of supplies.

A Wealthy Class C District.

District number 30 Saline County would be a class C district with a low valuation. District number 68 in the same county would be in the same class, but with a large

valuation. The valuation in 1914 was \$128,460.00, the levy for salary and incidentals 40 cents, on enumeration of 28 pupils, six of whom were negroes, an enrollment of nine, and a school term of eight months. The district received \$37.80 from the state, \$43.35 from the county and township funds, and \$40.80 railroad taxes. The local levy was 40 cents, producing \$513.84, no allowance for delinquencies. The district paid \$480.00 for teacher's wages, \$20.00 for clerk, \$25.00 for fuel, \$44.13 for repairs, and \$51.50 for miscellaneous items. The total expenditure was \$620.63. Under the proposed plan the county, township, and railroad funds would be available for teachers' salary as at present, a total of \$94.15. The difference between this sum and \$480.00, the teacher's salary, is \$385.85 which is to be derived from the state grant and the local tax. The report does not show the attendance. Assuming it to average eight which is 88.8% of the enrollment, the total number of days attended by all pupils would be 1280. The amount to be raised, \$385.45, by local tax and state grant would, if paid each teacher in St. Louis, amount to 5.8 cents per pupil day attended. To raise this amount per pupil day in St. Louis would require a rate of 16 cents. In district 68, 5.8 cents per pupil day would amount to \$74.24. The proceeds of a local tax of 16 cents would be \$205.54. Since this is more than the proceeds of a simialar tax in St. Louis would be for each 1280 pupil days there would be no state grant. The entire [#]385.45 needed in addition to the county

and township fund and railroad taxes for the teachers fund as well as the incidental fund of \$120.63 would be raised by local taxation. The rate of 40 cents actually levied would be ample to raise this amount. The difference the proposed plan would make would be in the state tax rate and the state grant. Instead of a state grant of \$37.80 the district would receive no state grant; instead of a state rate of seven cents, as at present, the district would pay a state rate of 45 cents. At present the district pays a total state and local rate of 47 cents. Under the proposed plan it would pay 85, a difference of 38 cents on the one hundred dollars. This difference would amount in revenues to \$478.15.

A Wealthy Class B District.

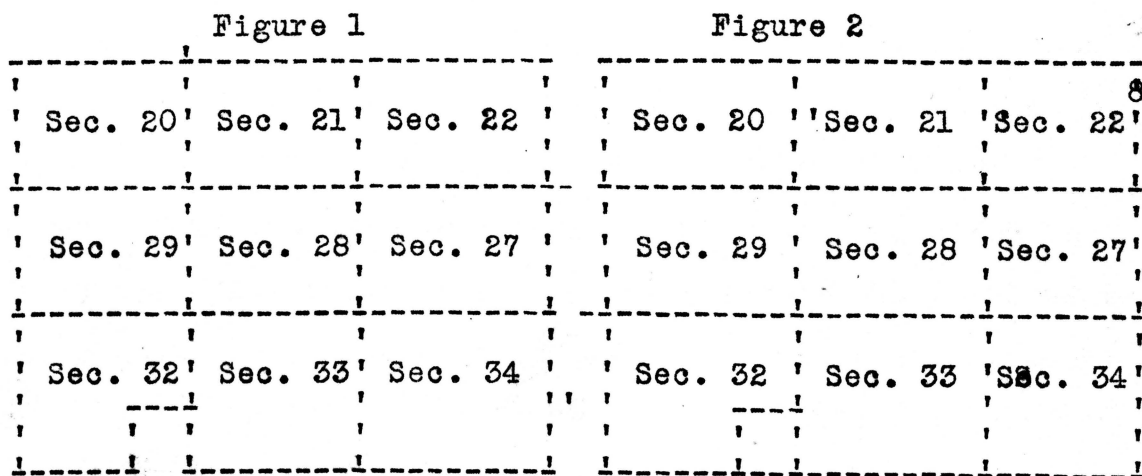


Figure 1 shows the outline of the district as it is at present. Figure 2 shows the boundaries as they would be with the southwest quarter of sec. 32 in district sixty-eight instead of in district number 77 as at present. This would add to the valuation of district number 68, and it possibly

would add to the attendance. The increase in valuation would probably be one thirty-fifth of the present valuation since there are at present 35 quarter sections in the district, or an increase of \$3380.00 making a total of \$131,840. The addition of this quarter section would put the district in Class B and the state grant would be based on the teacher basis instead of on the basis of attendance. We will disregard the possible increase in attendance and enumeration *since* it is problematical not only as to amount but also as to existence.

The portion of the teachers' fund to be derived from the local tax and state grant would be \$385.45 as indicated on page 161. To raise this amount per teacher in St. Louis would require a rate of 16 cents. The proceeds of the local rate of 16 cents would be \$210.94. This is less than the amount to be raised, by \$174.51, which would be the state grant. To raise the incidental fund would require a rate of ten cents. The total local rate would thus be 26 cents. The total local and state rate would be 71 cents as compared to 47 cents as at present. The district would contribute \$593.28 to the state fund and would receive from that fund \$174.51 a difference of \$418.77.

A Class A District.

Above on page 159 it is shown how the proposed schemes would work in an A class district with a large valuation and a law salaried teacher. We will next see how it would work in a class A district with a large valuation and a bet-

ter paid teacher. District number 26 in Saline County has an assessed valuation of \$172,435.00, levies a tax of 25 cents, has an enrollment of 44, and an average attendance of 40 for 160 days. It received \$87.25 state grant, \$30.75 from county and township permanent funds. The district received none of the railroad tax according to the records in the courthouse. The district spent \$520.00 for teacher and \$72.50 for incidentals.

Under the proposed plan the district would derive \$489.25 of the teachers funds from local tax and the state grant. A local rate of 21 cents would be required. This would give \$362.11. The same rate in St. Louis would produce \$1,184,749.48. One-third of this is \$394,916.48 and two thirds is \$789,832.97. The total days attended by all pupils in St. Louis was 15,356,292. Two thirds of the proceeds of the 21 cent levy in St. Louis would be 5.1 cents per pupil day and one third would be \$168.69 per teacher employed. Since the state grant would be based one third on the teacher basis and two thirds on attendance, the total state grant would be enough when added to \$362.11 (the proceeds of the local tax) to make the sum equal to the sum of \$168.69, teacher basis, and \$326.40 pupil basis (5.1 cents per pupil day attended) which is \$495.09. The difference between \$495.09 and \$362.11 is \$132.98 which would be the state grant. The incidental expenses of \$72.54 could be met by a rate of 5 cents making the total local rate 26 cents. This local rate is 1 cent higher than the rate

actually levied in 1914, and the state grant is greater than that actually received in that year. (In this discussion no account was taken of the \$147.27 cash on hand.)

The total school tax rate paid by the district in 1914 was 32 cents-25 cents local and 7 cents state. Under the proposed plan the total would be 71 cents (26 cents local and 45 cents state). The district would contribute \$775.96 to the state fund and receive back \$132.98. Under the present arrangement it contributes \$120.70 and receives back \$87.25.

A Poor Class A District.

District number 44 of Reynolds County would be a Class A district, having an average attendance of 33 pupils in 1914-15. The records are incomplete, but they show a valuation of \$11,849.00 and a tax levy of 65 cents, and a school term of three months. The teachers salary was \$120. There is nothing to show the amount received from any source not the amount spent for any purpose. The school began in August and closed early in November so the expense for fuel was little; no district in the county spent more than ten dollars for fuel.

Under the proposed plan this district would have an 8 months term, paying at least \$320.00 for teachers salary. The total days attended by all pupils would be 5280. If the district should levy a 15 cent tax the proceeds would be \$17.77. Two thirds of this rate would produce 3.6 cents per pupil day in St. Louis which rate per pupil day in ^{the} Rey-

nolds County district would amount to \$190.08. One third of the 15 cent tax would produce \$120.00 per teacher in St. Louis. The state grant would be the difference between the proceeds of the local rate, \$17.77 and the sum of \$120.00 and \$190.08 which is \$292.21. It may be noted that the sum of the state grant and the proceeds of the local tax is only \$310.00 while the teachers salary is would be \$320.00. The district would receive enough from the county and township funds and the railroad tax to make up the required amount. District number 47 in the same county has the same enumeration as number 44. District number 47 received \$53.36 from these sources. The incidental expenses are estimated at \$40.00. No district in the county paid more than \$10.00 for fuel. Five dollars is enough for the clerk; ten dollars as allowed for repairs; and fifteen dollars for miscellaneous items. This sum is far too small, but it is more than many of the districts in the county spent. A rate of 35 cents would raise the amount. The tax would be 35 cents for incidentals, 15 cents for teachers, and 45 cents state tax, a total of 95 cents. The present rate is 72 cents. For the increased rate the district would get a school term of 8 instead of 3 months, an increase of 166 and two thirds per cent. Notice that the rate for incidentals is two and a third times the local rate for the teachers fund. The district's contribution to the state fund would be \$53.32 and it would receive from that fund \$292.21. A 30 cent local rate for teachers would enable the district to pay a

salary of \$640.00 in which case the state grant would be \$584.42. This would bring the total rate up to 110 cents. A District Opposed to Public Schools.

Still another type of school is represented by district number 106 in Saline County. This district joins the city of Sweet Springs. It had an area of nine square miles, an enumeration of 107, and an average daily attendance of 8 for 8 months, and a cash balance of \$1260. The records do not show the valuation; the district has made no levy for some years; the expenses were \$320.00 for teachers' salary and \$54.97 for incidentals and repairs, total \$374.97. The income was \$34.50 state grant, \$104.85, county and township, and \$198.33 railroad taxes--total \$337.68, \$36.29 less than the expenses. The district was able thus to run with no local tax.

The proposed scheme would not change the local situation in this district except that \$34.50 state grant would not be given unless a local rate were levied. The large surplus would enable the district to run for several years with no local levy. So far as the state tax is concerned, a levy of 45 cents would be substituted for the present levy of 7 cents and none of it would find its way back to the district. The district would be compelled to bear a larger and more equitable share of the common burden.

Other districts might be taken up; for example, a district with an assessed valuation of say \$50,000.00 in each of the three classes, one of the \$30,000.00 and others.

Enough, however, has been said to show that the proposed scheme would go far toward equalizing school opportunities and would place an increased part of the burden on the wealthier communities that are more able to bear it, and that it would put a very heavy burden on districts with an area and a school population too small for economy of administration. This burden would probably create sentiment in favor of larger districts and fewer schools, a thing very much to be desired in Missouri.

The tax rates above discussed include only the elementary school. Each of the schools described would be included in a high school district and in a county school district.

A Poor County District.

The county tax may be estimated with some accuracy. Reynolds County has 66 teachers, an average daily attendance of 1667 pupils, and a valuation of \$2,674,924.00. This county would require the services of a superintendent and one assistant superintendent at a total salary of, say, \$3000.00. Office expenses may be estimated at \$500.00, including rent, fuel, and supplies. Little clerk hire would be required. The total would be \$3500.00. The proceeds of a county tax of 3 cents would be \$802.48, one third of this rate would produce \$24.00 per teacher in St. Louis. This amount per teacher, including the county superintendent and one deputy, would be \$1632.00 in Reynolds County. Two thirds of the

county rate would produce 73 cents per pupil day in St. Louis. Assuming that the average attendance in Reynolds County would continue for 8 months the total daily attendance would be 266,720. Seventy three hundredths cents per pupil day would be \$1947.06 in Reynolds County. The difference between the proceeds of the county tax, \$802.48 and the sum of \$1947.06 and \$1652.00 is \$2776.58 which would be the amount of the state grant to the county for supervision. At present the county receives \$400.00 from the state for this purpose.

A Wealthy County District.

Reynolds was taken as a type of county with a low valuation. Saline is taken as a type of county with considerable wealth. There are three cities in the county with ten or more teachers. Of these we will suppose that Marshall, with 35 teachers, and Slater, with 17, would elect to be city districts; and Sweet Springs, with 10 teachers, including a superintendent, would become a part of the county districts. The following table shows the facts needed in order to estimate the local rate and the amount of the state grant for supervision in Saline County.

	No. of Teachers	Valuation	Aver. Attend.
Marshall	35	\$2,557,640.00	984
Slater	17	760,000.00	621
Saline County	222	16,097,834.00	5293
Total Cities	52	3,317,640.00	1605
County Outside Cities	170	12,780,194.00	3688

County rate	.03
Total days attended in county #688 per day for 160 days.	590080
Rate per pupil day in St. Louis from two thirds of county rate.	.0073
Rate per teacher in St. Louis from one third county rate.	\$24.00
Sum to be derived from state grant and county tax	\$8387.58
Proceeds of county rate	\$3834.06
State grant	\$4553.53

A three cent tax in Saline County with the state grant on the number of teachers employed and the total attendance in the county would give \$8387.58 to pay office expenses and salaries of a county superintendent and assistant superintendent. Five supervisors for the county would give one supervisor to each 34 teachers, one more teacher per supervisor than the number suggested for Reynolds County. An average salary of \$1500.00 would require \$7500.00 for salaries leaving \$887.58 for office expenses. This plan would enable Reynolds County with an assessed valuation per teacher of \$40,529.00 to employ as many supervisors in proportion to the number of teachers, pay them as high salaries, provide for office expenses as well, on the same rate of tax as Saline County with a valuation of \$75,177.00 per teacher. A county tax of 3 or 4 cents together with the state grant would prove ample in any county to pay the expense of supervision.

A Hypothetical Joint High School District.

In order to show the operation of the proposed plan with reference to high schools, a hypothetical case will be assumed, owing to the absence of an actual case. At present the assessed valuation of the median district of the state is about \$50,000.00. Under the proposed plan this would be higher because of the decrease in the number of districts. Possibly the valuation would be \$60,000.00 or more. Assume a joint high school district about as follows:

No. common school districts composing it	4
Area	36 sq. miles
Valuation	\$240,000.00
Enumeration	300
Av. Attendance (125 in elementary schools 30 in H.S.)	155
No. teachers (El. school 4. H.S.1)	5
Length of term, days	160
Total attendance	24,800
Salary H.S. teacher.	900
Rate for high school teacher	.09
Rate per pupil day produced by 6 cent tax in St. Louis.	2.2 cents
Rate per teacher produced by 3 cents tax in St. Louis	\$72.00
Amt. derived from State grant and local tax attendance basis.	545.60
Amt. derived from state grant and local tax teacher basis.	360.00
Amt. derived from state grant and local tax total.	905.60

Proceeds of local tax	216.00
State grant	689.60
H.S. tax incidental rate	.05
Proceeds of incidental tax	120.00
Total H.S. tax rate	.14

A tax payer in a district like this would probably pay the following rates:

County tax rate	.03
State tax rate	.45
High School tax rate	.14
Common school district rate for teachers fund from 15 cents up to 45 cents for class A district.	.20
Incidental rate 5 cents to 20 cents or more	.15
Total state, county, high school and common school district rate.	.97

In districts with a valuation below \$60,000.00, the incidental rate would go above 15 cents and in some cases as high as 45 cents.

In class C. districts the local teacher rate would go above 20 cents for the lowest paid teacher. Districts No. 30 in Saline County would levy 76 cents, and in a county with a smaller permanent fund and a railroad tax ^{the rate} ~~it~~ would be still greater. A total tax rate of 100 cents in class A districts would provide a teacher paid \$50.00 per month for 8 months in the elementary schools, a high school with a two years course within easy reach of every boy and girl so they could be at home every night, supervision by trained

and experienced men and women paid a salary of \$1500.00 a year or more.

Probable Tax Rates.

The proposed plan would probably require a rate for teachers of not less than sixty-one cents nor more than 122 cents.

If the salaries of all teachers receiving less than \$320 were increased to \$320 and the other salaries remained the same as in 1914, it would require a rate of 61 cents to produce the total of salaries in the state. This may be regarded as the minimum, disregarding the \$724,417.16 derived from permanent local funds.

To pay the present teaching force of the state the average annual salaries paid in St. Louis \$1100.00 would require an addition of \$10,932,238.00 to the amount spent in 1914, an increase of \$21.22 per pupil in average daily attendance. Even this large increase would still leave Missouri with an expenditure per pupil in average daily attendance less than that of Nevada in 1911 to 1912--\$47.78 as compared to \$49.11. To raise this amount entirely by taxation would require a rate of one hundred and twenty-two cents. It is safe to say the rate would never go beyond this figure.

To pay the present teaching force for the entire state an average annual salary of \$695.00, the 1914 average for the towns of the state, would add \$3,059,038.00 to the present salaries, an increase of 40 percent. This would require the expenditure of \$32.33 per child in average attendance--

a sum exceeded by New York, Washington, Montana, California, Nevada, and the District of Columbia. To raise this sum entirely by taxation would require a rate of 77 cents.

But the proposed plan of re-organization would materially reduce the number of teachers required by doing away with the small districts with only a few pupils. Of the 9837 districts in the state, 5911 have an average attendance of less than 25 pupils. The report of the state superintendent also shows that the average attendance was 515,233. If the number of schools were decreased to give an average of 30 pupils to the teacher there would be required 17,174 teachers instead of the 19,440 as at present, and the \$10,451,762.21 now paid to teachers would pay an average salary of \$614.40 instead of the \$497.40 now paid -- an increase of \$117.00. This with no increase over present tax rates. It is doubtful if the average salary of the state would reach the average paid in St. Louis for the reason that living expenses are so much lower in the country. To pay the 17,174 teachers the same average as is paid in St. Louis would require a rate of 108 on the present valuation. If we paid these 17,174 teachers the average salaries of teachers in St. Louis there would be required the addition of \$8,439,638.00 to the revenues. The total maintenance expenditures would then be \$22,019,207.00 as against \$13,579,569.00 for teachers and incidentals as shown by the 1914 report of the state superintendent. The total would

be \$42.75 for each of the 515,233 pupils in average daily attendance in the state, a sum per child in average attendance less than that paid by the state of Nevada. This average salary could not be approached for a long time to come for it means that each elementary school teacher should be a graduate of a normal school and every high school teacher of a college--many of them with higher degrees. This could not be accomplished in much less than a generation. It seems, therefore, safe to say that the average rate for teachers under the proposed plan would not exceed 100 cents during this generation.

Summary.

In making the foregoing suggestions the writer has endeavored to suggest only such changes as seem to be indispensable to an efficient system of rural schools in Missouri. There are needed: 1, for leadership, and for control of communities with low educational ideals a strong state board of education free from politics; 2, a county organization strong enough, with the aid of the state department, to furnish local leadership and control over districts that have low educational standards, and to substitute larger, stronger districts for the small weak ones now existing; 3, a general state tax for schools equitably apportioned and large enough to equalize the burdens of school support; to guarantee every child an elementary and high school education; to enable the poorest district in the

state to have a teacher as well trained, as highly paid, and supervised by as efficient educators as the wealthiest district could have; 4, and so apportioned as to encourage localities to tax themselves and to keep their children in schools; 5, a high school within reach of the home of every boy and girl in the state.

It is not expected that all these reforms be brought about at once nor perhaps any one of them in just the form proposed. But every feature suggested is implied in the theory underlying the present practice in school administration. And as indicated above the cost of it all would not be as great as is now paid by some states, and by some towns in Missouri.

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