

A STUDY OF SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF THE KANSAS
RURAL HIGH SCHOOL FROM 1956 TO 1961

by

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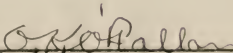
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I. INTRODUCTION

School reorganization has been a major educational problem facing those interested in improving the quality of educational opportunity in Kansas. The small, inefficient, poor schools must be replaced by those willing to raise their standards to a minimum acceptable level. The changes which have been made in the Kansas Rural High School from 1956 to 1961 should indicate the existing trends.

Statement of the Problem

The problem was to study certain characteristics of the Kansas Rural High School which would indicate what changes, if any, had taken place over a five year period, 1956 to 1961. The characteristics selected were those which, through the study of them, were found to be important in indicating the quality of educational opportunity available in the Kansas Rural High Schools.

Significance of the Problem

Many high schools are too small to provide the kind of educational program which meets the needs of the students in the present day and age. A great deal of concern has been expressed indicating the need for improved financial, physical, and personnel programs to maintain and increase quality education in the State of Kansas. It was believed that the selected characteristics would present a cross section view of the Rural High School which would indicate existing strengths and weaknesses.

Organization and Limitations of the Study

1. The type of internal school organization indicates in a general way the extent to which the needs of the various age groups are being met within a given school system. Only a simple indication of the organizational plan being used was sought.

2. The presence or absence of written board policies is indicative of the continuity, stability, and consistency which characterizes the educational program of the school. No effort was made to determine what the policies were, but only whether or not they existed in written form.

3. Small enrollments usually mean limited facilities and offerings, and it was believed that the enrollment figures would be sufficient generally to gauge the effectiveness of the educational program.

4. The number of staff members in a school tells something of the educational potential of the school. This study did not include any information as to the preparation, experience, or other qualifications of the staff members, but only the number in each school. Administrators were included if they also had teaching duties.

5. Pupil-teacher ratio is a simple measure of the teaching load. It doesn't show individual class sizes, but only the total ratio of pupils to teachers for the school.

6. The number of subjects taught is directly related to the number of teachers in the school, and is a measure of educational quality. However, this investigation did not determine what subjects were being taught, only the number.

7. The number of volumes in the library reflects the adequacy

of the library service. The number and variety of reference works and periodicals was not included.

8. The number of organizations and activities is an important part of a school curriculum. It is a further measure of educational opportunity. The varieties of organizations and activities were not listed since it was felt the number of these was sufficient to indicate additional educational opportunities of the school.

9. The assessed valuation of the school district represents a potential ability of a school district to support a sound educational program. Assessed valuation per pupil yields a more accurate description of the financial ability of a school district, but no attempt was made to study the detailed financial structure and planning of the schools.

Definition of Terms

Rural High School: A high school organized under the provisions of the Rural High School Law initiated by the 1915 Kansas Legislature. It is not to be confused with a high school located in a rural area. Thus it is capitalized as a title.

Methods and Procedures

This study is a survey to determine trends relative to conditions in the Kansas Rural High School. Standards were developed from the review of literature with which the schools could be compared.

Nine characteristics thought to be descriptive of the Kansas Rural High School were selected for study. These were limited to those for which data could be obtained from the High School Principals Organization Report.

By periodic random sampling twenty-five per cent of the schools in Kansas Rural High School Districts was selected from the 1960-61 Kansas Educational Directory, Bulletin 340. Data for each characteristic were collected from the sample selected. Only information pertinent to each selected characteristic was used. The findings were organized in Table form in the body of the report. The High School Principals Organization Reports were located in the State Capitol Building in Topeka, Kansas.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Much has been written in books, magazines, and various publications on every important educational subject. It was no less true of the characteristics selected in this study to describe the Rural High School. This section is devoted to a review of recent writings on these subjects and the development of criteria with which to compare the Kansas Rural High School.

Internal School Organization

The authorities disagree greatly about the type of organization needed, but most agree that there is a need for some type of intermediate school according to Lentz.¹ Children of junior high age need to accept increased responsibility and participation in student government and community projects. More attention can be given to individual differences and the functions of guidance in the junior high school. The shift from self-contained classrooms in the elementary school to the departmentalization of senior high school is also made easier by the intermediate school.

Originally the junior high school was established for reasons quite different from those commonly accepted today as the basis for an other than 8-4 organization. According to Howard:

Probably the first junior high schools were established largely because of recommendations of the NEA in an attempt to solve two primary problems: to reduce the high percentage of dropouts keeping youngsters in school for

¹Donald Lentz, "History and Development of the Junior High," Teachers College Record, 57:522, May, 1956.

another year and providing terminal courses of a vocational or pre-vocational nature for those who left school at this point; and to provide for an earlier study of foreign languages, elementary algebra, constructive geometry, science, and history.¹

Various plans of organization in use include the 6-3-3, 6-2-4, 5-3-4, 7-5, 7-2-3, and 6-6. Other modifications might be 6-4-2, 6-4-4, and 6-2-5. Douglass believes the six year secondary school is "without doubt more advantageous for the smaller system . . . Schools enrolling fewer than 500 pupils above grade 6 are not likely to find the 6-3-3 plan best adapted."² When the arguments for the various organizations are presented it seems that the purposes and goals of the intermediate school tend to be based upon overcoming the deficiencies of the 8-4 plan rather than upon any sound thesis that a 6-3-3 arrangement has advantages.³

Crombie indicates the lack of a clear cut trend towards one particular type of organization:

The only trend that most people seem to agree upon is that an increasing percentage of adolescent youth are commencing secondary school, not in the 9th grade as in the traditional 8-4 system, but at least by the 7th grade.⁴

Ford also found this to be the case when his survey of United States schools showed a sharp decrease in the 8-4 schools. They made up 24

¹Alvin Howard, "Which Years in Junior High," The Clearing House, 33:405-6, March, 1959.

²Harl R. Douglass, Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools (New York: Ginn and Company, 1932), p. 9.

³Donald Lentz, "History and Development of the Junior High," Teachers College Record, 57:522, May, 1956.

⁴Mora Crombie, "Dr. Conant Looks at Grades 7, 8, and 9." California Journal of Secondary Education, 35:52, November, 1960.

per cent of the schools in 1959 and 43 per cent in 1952. There was a corresponding decrease in the number of students in 8-4 schools from 25 per cent in 1952 to 18 per cent in 1959.¹

It seems to be generally recognized that no single type of organization is the best for all schools in all communities. This was acknowledged by James B. Conant and William French in speeches before the convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in Portland, Oregon. However, Dr. Conant favors the 6-6 plan and Dr. French the 6-3-3 plan according to Ford.

Organization is evolving more with an eye on the child than on the organization. Elliot recognized this evolution when he wrote: "The trend is toward four blocks of learning: Primary, Intermediate, Junior High, and Senior High."²

Many plans of organization are in use now, but the majority of thinking favors some type of provision for separation of the adolescent junior high student. Plans may vary according to need, but some division other than the traditional 8-4 should be made for junior high students.

Written Board Policies

Every community school board has some form of policies even though they may not be designated as such. They may exist in the minutes of the

¹Edmund Ford, "Organizational Pattern of the Nation's Public Secondary Schools," School Life, 42:10-11, May, 1960.

²Richard Elliot, "New Problems in Articulation," American School Board Journal, 44:2:11, June, 1961.

meetings or in the business records. Education law or printed ledger forms may determine some of them. Procedures, rules and regulations, duties and responsibilities, guiding principles, or handbooks of by-laws all originate from established policy. School calendars which include the activities, holidays, and school days of the school are policies. Even the adoption or rejection of proposals become policy, as are precedents set by each of the foregoing. "What most of them lack is either formal adoption by the school board or designation as written statements of policy."¹ If these policies are not adopted formally and organized so as to be meaningful to those affected by them decisions may not be uniform and issues are born.

Hughes describes a cycle of conduct on the part of school board members and the superintendent in the absence of written policy statements as follows:

Generally the first year or two of the new Superintendent finds the board and superintendent working harmoniously. But after a period of time when issues arise the board shows a tendency to make more and more decisions.

When the relationship deteriorates the chief executive then submits written policy statements to a board for adoption. Though the policies may be well thought out the board is reluctant to adopt them in their entirety.

In the absence of policy the chief executive may govern the board rather than function as its executive officer. Then the board's behavior is modified by the desire to recover control. This is usually accompanied by some storm and stress.

¹Patrick Hughes, "The Cycle of Interest in Written Policy Statements," American School Board Journal, 134:30, June, 1957.

Once back in control a board, characteristically, does not draw a sharp line between legislative and administrative functions and edges more and more into the field of school administration.¹

A written policy should be defensible, properly interpreted, duly adopted, and then used directly in decision making. Such a policy may then become the basis for rules and regulations, duties and responsibilities, guiding principles, and procedures.² Policy should not, however, become so rigid and formal that it cannot be amended for the future. This may cause indifference to set in, and then the manual will become useless. Continuous study and revision of school board policies is necessary in order to provide stimulation and direction for the future of the school.

Magoulas indicates the trend in board policy is away from the mere recording in the minutes of board meetings the actions of the board which become board policy.³ The new concept is to compile, write, and publicize the policies of the school board. Ten reasons he gives for written policy statements are: "They avoid oversights, save time, reduce pressure, define work, improve relations, provide continuity, improve instruction, facilitate orientation, aid evaluation, and promote morale."⁴ White points out that

¹Patrick Hughes, "The Cycle of Interest in Written Policy Statements," American School Board Journal, 134:30, June, 1957.

²Glen Ellyn, "Plan The Policy Handbook for the Future," American School Board Journal, 136:30, April, 1958.

³Jimmy Magoulas, "Why Written School Board Policies Are Important," American School Board Journal, 142:11, March, 1961.

⁴Jimmy Magoulas, "Why Written School Board Policies are Important," American School Board Journal, 142:11, March, 1961.

"Policies foster continuity, stability, and consistency of board action."¹

An important objective in forming policy decisions is the promotion of the greatest possible pupil growth and development while serving the best interests of the community.² The public should be involved not only as a resource in such policy formulation, but they deserve full information in a fair and clear manner. Their valid reservations should be respected.

Every school board has some form of policies. However policies need to be formally adopted and designated as written statements of policy in order to insure continuity, stability, and consistency of board action.

Enrollment

There seems to be much disagreement among authorities as to the importance of size of enrollment in the educational achievement of children. A study by Eisemann indicates that if better physical facilities and opportunities are provided greater educational achievements may be expected on the part of the pupils. He believed even though smaller districts could purchase the necessary physical facilities if they so desire, the larger districts did in fact make it possible for children to learn more.³

¹Alpheus White, "Local School Board Policy Manuals," School Life, 42:23, November, 1959.

²Michael Kline, "Forming Board Policies," American School Board Journal, 138:16, December, 1958.

³Carl Eisemann, "In Reorganized Districts Children Do Learn More," The Nation's Schools, 59:61, June, 1957.

However the quality of educational opportunity need not be related to the number of students enrolled according to Gann, who further states:

The major difficulty stems from the fact that throughout the country, school funds are provided largely on the basis of the number of students enrolled. This provision is based on the assumption that the spending of a certain amount for each child is consistent with equality and justice. However, such an assumption is erroneous with regard to the small high school . . .

The physical and financial structure of the modern school plant makes it difficult to recognize the worth of each individual and meet his varying needs . . .

Public high schools are suffering from their efforts to do too many things and, as a result, are justifiably criticized for doing some things poorly . . . Today, as never before, there is a need for the schools to do only what are often considered the primary jobs of the school and to do them extremely well . . .¹ One of these jobs is to provide a strong basic program.

Small schools have the advantages of small classes, close pupil-teacher relationships, familiarity with family and community forces, and flexibility. The ideal thing would be for the small high schools to become a part of a large district constituting a central administrative unit from which a variety of services could be provided, and forming a broad financial base. The inadequacies of the small school could thus be overcome.

The importance of the small rural high school in relationship to the entire educational structure of the nation cannot be minimized. This fact becomes evident when one considers that "nearly two-thirds of all

¹Elbie Gann, "How Small is too Small," National Education Association Journal, 47:237, April, 1958.

public schools in the country are located in centers of less than 2,500 population."¹

In 1955-56 they had an average enrollment of 177 pupils per school and an average instructional staff of fewer than 9 teachers . . . There was an average of 20 students per teacher in the nation . . . and 17-1 in the North Central and Western States.

An enrollment of 300 students is a widely accepted minimum where maximum limits on transportation are not exceeded, and one opinion poll found that most superintendents favored schools ranging from 150 to 1,200 in enrollment.²

There are recognized advantages and disadvantages to both small and large schools. This study recognizes 150 students as a bare minimum, and 300 students as a reasonable minimum to provide all of the essentials for an effective educational program.

Pupil-Teacher Ratio

It is difficult to accurately describe class size in high school. Classes of widely varying size might be appropriate with teaching machines and Television. The elementary schools have more clearly established describable class size than have high schools, according to Caswell.³

¹Walter Gaumitz, "Some Rural School Facts," School Life, 42:33, March, 1960.

²Schadt, R. M., "The Independent Rural High School District in Kansas," (Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, Northwestern University, Chicago, 1956), pp. 37-38.

³Hollis Caswell, "What Is Good Teaching," National Education Association Journal, 46:444, October, 1957.

In some systems there is more variation in class size than among systems of an entire state or region. It is possible to find music classes of eighty and French classes of eight in a high school with an average class size of twenty-five.

The Institute of Administrative Research, Teachers College, Columbia University, conducted studies which showed small classes have special value because:

1. More educational creativity exists when classes are small, and promising new procedures are more rapidly adopted in small classes.
2. Children are more likely to receive individual attention in small classes.
3. Small classes tend to have more variety in instructional methods than do large classes.¹

However, in a study in 1943, "Class Size and Adaptability," it was concluded "that only with a capable teaching staff will small classes actually be superior."²

In attempting to establish a standard for class size the educational purpose must be considered. This will result in more effective utilization of teaching resources provided teachers are given responsibilities consistent with their abilities. But teaching load must also be considered when one examines class size or pupil-teacher ratio. The load includes: ". . . interruptions, extra duties, crowded curriculum,

¹Bernhard McKenna, "Greater Learning in Smaller Classes," National Education Association Journal, 46:437, October, 1957.

²Ibid.

home demands, overtime, advancement pressures, and community activities."¹

Douglass listed factors contributing to the load increase as:

. . . expansion of co-curricular activities, increased participation of teachers in counseling, longer class periods, increased teacher participation in educational planning, increased necessity for general reading, increased attention to individual learning, participation in community activities, democratic participation, emotional and physical strain.²

Thus it is obvious that teaching load contains so many different and variable factors as to be difficult to define. Schadt, however, recognized a pupil-teacher ratio of twenty-five to one.³

The educational purpose must be considered when establishing a standard for class size. Since a teaching load includes many things besides the number of pupils in a class, the pupil-teacher ratio is not particularly meaningful unless other factors are properly related. However twenty-five to one is an accepted ratio.

Number of Staff

It is well known that even though the pupil-teacher ratio is low in the small high schools the teachers are frequently overloaded by the number of subjects they are expected to teach. This becomes necessary

¹Buena Stalberg, "What is Teacher Load," National Education Association Journal, 46:446, October, 1957.

²Harl Douglass, "Teaching Load Crisis in Secondary Schools," California Journal of Secondary Education, 32:295, May, 1957.

³R. M. Schadt, "The Independent Rural High School District in Kansas," (Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, Northwestern University, Chicago, 1956), p. 186.

in an attempt to provide for the students the number of subjects they need for a well rounded experience in high school. Ideally the daily teaching load should not be greater than four sections, and five should be considered a maximum according to Douglass.¹ Six sections should be regarded as an overload to be avoided if possible.

Teachers have made a number of suggestions for improving the load. Listed in the order of their frequency of suggestion by the teachers, according to Norton, they are:²

. . . increasing staff members; improving internal administration; better scheduling of duties, classes, assignments, and teaching fields; improvement of school plant; cooperative study, by school and community, of teaching load; better salaries especially "extra pay for extra duties" or "equal pay for equal work."

In California Shellhammer found that senior high teachers were averaging forty-four hours and 7 minutes per week on the job with sixty-four per cent of this time devoted to regularly assigned classes, and thirty-six per cent to non-teaching duties.³

Colorado has developed a plan designed specifically to help small schools improve their curriculums. Multiple classes and team teaching have

¹Harl Douglass, "Teaching Load Crisis in Secondary Schools," California Journal of Secondary Education, 32:295, May, 1957.

²Monte Norton, "Teacher's Suggestions for Improving Teacher Load," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 44:64, February, 1960.

³Thomas Shellhammer, "Work Week of the Secondary School Teacher," California Journal of Secondary Education, 32:301, May, 1957.

increased the effectiveness of the staff, and seventy-minute periods without scheduled study halls add to the flexibility of the program. University developed, teacher enriched correspondence courses are a part of the program. A seminar operates with joint action of area schools, and involves periodic two hour guest lectures and seminar sessions designed for the interests of the academically talented. The results offer satisfactory hope for others, said Bohrnson.¹

Staff members of small high schools are frequently overloaded by the number of subjects they teach even though the pupil-teacher ratio may be low. Five sections a day is considered a maximum teaching load, and a minimum of twelve teachers is needed to specialize in each subject field.

Number of Subjects

The number of subjects a high school can offer is closely related to the number of staff members in the system, and one can hardly be considered apart from the other. It is well known that the transition from rural to urban life in America is producing changes in the educational programs of rural high schools. It is the responsibility of the schools to develop educational programs which will meet the rural youth where they are and to see that the quality of their education is equal to the best provided in urban areas. Ogg believes a suitable program involves:

1. Teaching fundamental philosophy of American way of life with its democratic aims and values.

¹Ralph Bohrnson, "How Can Better Staff Utilization Help to Improve Small High Schools," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 44:134, April, 1960.

2. Teaching an understanding of human worth and relations.
3. Teaching skills needed for the environment they will face.
4. Instilling patriotism, sense of mission, social consciousness, and love of country that have made America a unique nation of liberty loving individuals.
5. Developing every youngster to his optimum potential.¹

He states further that, "the school cannot make excuses because it is small or because it is rural."

Rural school boards face a twofold problem in finances and facilities. Because of low enrollments and budgets only so many teachers can be hired and they must be able to teach all of the basic subjects. The facilities and equipment do not make possible the diversified programs of the larger schools, so the administrator has to "be a magician in teacher recruitment and selection as well as school programming."² He must further convince the community that even though the children are not getting all the "extras" found in larger schools they are getting a better foundation in the "fundamentals." "In most small schools, with smaller classes and more teacher time per pupil this should be true."³

In Schadt's important normative survey of the Kansas Rural High School in 1956 he stated:

¹Terrell Ogg, "Change Affects the Rural Community," Educational Leadership, 17:279-80, February, 1960.

²William Cunningham, "Dilemmas of Rural School Boards," American School Board Journal, 138:33, February, 1958.

³Ibid.

A high school should offer a minimum of forty-five subjects in its course of study with a variety that provides growth in the fundamental subjects in addition to that received in the elementary school, a general industrial and vocational training for those who terminate formal education at night school, and adequate preparation for those who continue their education in college.¹

While the measure of a curriculum in a given school system cannot, however, be limited simply to the number of subjects the school offers it is a rather reliable measure of the breadth of educational opportunity available to the students there. The needs of special students such as the gifted, the mentally retarded, and the physically handicapped should be met by special services not normally available in the small schools. Certain phases of adult education and vocational training are also a reasonable function of the local school system.

There is a close relationship between the number of subjects a school offers and the number of staff members it has. Forty-five subjects is indicated by the literature to be a minimum standard which should be the goal for a high school.

Number of Volumes in the Library

The Forward Looking School:

Provides in sufficient abundance and variety, the many resources needed for teaching and learning.
 Has these materials easily accessible and available for students to use in the school and in the home.
 Supports a well-planned school library program that provides for the careful evaluation and selection of materials, for the efficient organization of materials, and for the

¹R. M. Schadt, "The Independent Rural High School District in Kansas," "Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, Northwestern University, Chicago, 1956), p. 55

guidance and assistance desired by faculty members and students in selecting and using materials.

So that students can:

Derive the fullest benefit from their classroom instruction.
 Extend the boundaries of their knowledge and experience. Pursue self-directed learning of all kinds.
 Explore and satisfy their many curiosities and interests.
 Find enjoyment in the rich stories of the imaginative expression of creative artists.
 Learn how to use libraries and to evaluate the materials of communication.
 Obtain materials that meet their individual needs and abilities.
 Establish desirable intellectual habits that last for life.

So that teachers and counselors can:

Achieve their instructional objectives to the fullest degree.
 Enrich course content.
 Prepare assignments that provide for the needs and abilities of individual students.
 Motivate students to use materials for curricular and non-curricular purposes.
 Have the materials needed in counseling students in many aspects of guidance work.
 Use materials directly with students in the classroom.
 Teach students how to use materials and libraries.
 Have materials easily accessible and efficiently organized so that time is not wasted in locating materials for examination and use.
 Keep abreast with the best ideas and practices in education.
 Use materials to broaden their own knowledge and to derive personal enjoyment.¹

In schools of 200-550 library seating space for 45-55 pupils should be provided. The minimum size of collections in schools of 200-999 should be 6,000-10,000 volumes with 120 magazine titles and 3-6 newspapers. Schools of 200-249 should provide \$1,000 to \$1,500 per year for the library fund, and schools of 250 or more enrollment should provide

¹American Library Association, Standards for School Library Programs, by The American Association of School Librarians, Library of Congress Catalog Card No. 60-7349, pp. 22-23.

\$4.00 to \$6.00 per pupil per year. Additional funds for encyclopedias, unabridged dictionaries, magazines, newspapers and pamphlets, rebinding, supplies and equipment should be provided. Two hundred to 800 dollars per year should be provided for professional materials, 200-1000 titles, and 25-50 professional magazines.¹ The expenditure of \$4.00 per pupil means only one new book per pupil in the senior high school library.

The small schools of less than 200 pupils need their own up-to-date and appropriate collection of materials. This collection must be supplemented by materials on short-or long-term loan, quickly available from the central agency. Schools with 200 need 6,000 volumes, and smaller schools need collections of proportionate size . . . Magazine collections of 10-15 titles are needed.²

Davis said, "Small enrollment is not a valid reason for lack of library facilities."³ She recommended further that a minimum of \$2.50 per pupil per year is needed to maintain the book collection, and \$5-\$10 is needed to establish a new library. Wofford suggested the high school library should accomodate 10-15 per cent of the student body while some authorities preferred a figure of twenty per cent.⁴ Thirty-five per cent is recommended if the library must also be used as a study hall.

¹American Library Association, Standards For School Library Programs, by The American Association of School Librarians, Library of Congress, Catalog Card No. 60-7359, p. 24.

²Ibid., p. 103.

³Charlotte Davis, "Administrative Leadership and the High School Library," California Journal of Secondary Education, 33:315, May, 1960.

⁴Azile Wofford, "Whither School Libraries," American School Board Journal, 134:33, August, 1957.

A minimum collection of thirty books per student should be maintained in schools of 200 or less. Small enrollment is not a valid reason for inadequate library services.

Organizations and Activities

Extra-class activities have long been accepted as a vital part of the school program in a democratic society, because learning experiences are translated into real life experiences through them. Each school system should determine which and how many activities are desirable and useful in the school. Balance is important, and it takes much planning to see that extra-class activities serve as a means to an end and not an end in themselves. Here the problems of large schools increase because of transportation, communication, administration and supervision. The number of activities tends to decrease in proportion to the enrollment. An extra-class activity which serves as a motivating force for greater achievement in the academic program may be regarded as essential in the lives of senior high school students according to Vredevoe and Allen.¹ Special interests, talents and aptitudes can be further developed through the extra-class activities. The student who is searching for identification, peer group association, adventure, fun, a feeling of worth, and other social drives of the adolescent can find satisfaction in extra-class activities. "Undesirable cliques, gangs, and clubs result when

¹Lawrence Vredevoe, and A. F. Allen, "What Extra-Class Activities Should Be Included in the Program for Senior High School Students," National Association of Secondary School Principal's Bulletin, 41:204, April, 1958.

schools fail to provide a positive program."¹

Extra-class activities can aid in the battle against vice, delinquency, and crime when they serve to bolster high standards of conduct, citizenship, and scholarship. The development of leadership, fellowship, service, and social competence should be emphasized, and student planning, execution, and appraisal should characterize the activities. However, a student should not participate in activities which will harm his academic progress, but all students should participate in some activities.

One author felt there were far too many student activities today, and remarked that "the modern school program has enough activities to keep today's children "spinning like tops---and the teachers long with them . . . we eliminate time for reflection by cramming so many activities into so little time."² The trend seems to be towards restricting the number of activities in which a student may participate.

Currently the activities program is being affected by double periods of science and mathematics, new eligibility requirements for participation, scheduling by adding an extra period to the day for them, or having them outside the school day; an increasing feeling that the school is no substitute for home and should not attempt to fill the non-school hours of youth, and a close look at those activities which take students out of the classroom on week days, away from school or out of town, such

¹Ibid., p. 208.

²Helen Dallolio, "Too Many Activities For Pupils," The Clearing House, 33:152, November, 1958.

as tournaments, festivals, and conventions; and the athletic program is being scrutinized carefully, according to Van Pool.¹

The following types of activities are characteristic of those found in many schools:

1. Student Government--homeroom, student council, advisory boards.
2. Publications--school paper, literary works of students, etc.
3. Subject Areas--science, language, social studies.
4. Athletics--intramural, interscholastic.
5. Music--special talent both vocal and instrumental.
6. Art--special talent and interest.
7. Social--parties, clubs, hobby groups.
8. Forensic--speech and literary clubs.
9. Dramatic--play and production groups.
10. Honor clubs and activities.

Dillon thought that juniors and seniors with a C average or less should not take more than three activities, while sophomores and freshmen with a C or less would be restricted to two activities.² O'Neil presented a four year plan in which he grouped the activities as Major and Minor.³ A major activity requires two hours or more of the students time each week, and a minor activity less than two hours. Unclassified activities are those in which all students participate regardless of the time involved, such as home room, assemblies, and class membership. O'Neil would require students to maintain passing grades in three-fourths of their

¹Gerald Van Pool, "What's Happening to the Activities Program," National Education Association Journal, 19:41, May, 1960.

²Edward Dillon, "How Much and What Kind of Student Activities in Today's Secondary School?", National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 45:255, April, 1961.

³Harold O'Neil, "Let's Limit Participation in School Activities," School Activities, 32:22, September, 1960.

classroom work, or be placed on probation for one grade period. At the end of this time if grade standards were not met students would be dropped from all major and minor activities. Credit points would be accumulated on the basis of six, eight, nine, and eleven, for grades 9, 10, 11, and 12 respectively, for a total of thirty-four over a four year period. This plan would prohibit overloading, recognize service to the school and community, and compel students to be selective.

Balance is important in planning a program of extra-class activities in order to provide a variety of experiences for the students. Overloading should be avoided and academic achievement should be a guide for allowing participation by the student. The basic fine arts activities, athletics, student publications, and student government should be available. Any school offering fewer than five activities representative of these areas is seriously limiting educational opportunity.

Assessed Valuation

The principal sources of public school revenue in Kansas may be summarized as follows:¹

District ad valorem taxes on property-----	51.01 per cent
County funds (mostly ad valorem taxes on property)-----	19.45 per cent
State revenues (mostly sales tax receipts)-----	26.43 per cent
Federal funds-----	3.11 per cent
	<u>Total 100.00 per cent</u>

¹Twenty-five Questions and Answers on Financing Schools
in Kansas. Topeka: State Department of Public Instruction, 1957,
p. 4.

Since the property tax produces more than seventy per cent of all school revenue it is the principal source of school support in Kansas. The state sales tax provides about twenty-six per cent and federal sources about three per cent.

According to Moehlman¹ the financial responsibility should be divided among the several agencies of government as follows: Community fifty per cent, State thirty per cent, and Federal twenty per cent. For the country as a whole about sixty per cent of the school funds comes from local property taxes, while in a few states the proportion is seventy-five per cent or more.² "Most states require, by constitution or by statute, that property shall be assessed at full or true value, actual, just, and fair are the words used."³ On the average, real estate in Kansas is assessed at twenty-two per cent of its fair cash value according to a recent report by the State Commission of Revenue and Taxation.⁴

It is evident that some adjustment may be in order in this area of Kansas school financing. Further evidence of the need for reappraisal of present practices comes from a report by Schadt in which he

¹Arthur B. Moehlman, School Administration (Chicago: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1951), p. 416.

²Madaline K. Remmlin, The Law of Local Public School Administration (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, Inc., 1953), p. 40.

³Ibid., p. 41.

⁴Twenty-five Questions and Answers on Financing Schools in Kansas, op. cit., p. 18.

shows the existence of a disproportionate distribution of wealth in relation to the pupils. "The western third of Kansas is the favored section with a valuation of \$58,592 per pupil, central Kansas has a valuation of \$8,449 per pupil, and eastern Kansas is lowest in this respect with a valuation of \$36,782 per pupil."¹ The ease and efficiency of administration of a tax largely determine whether it should be state or local, and this places such taxes as the income tax, business taxes, sales taxes, inheritance taxes in the realm of state control. It follows, then, that the state of Kansas needs to assume a larger role in the financial support of its schools. "Today, as in the past, there is an overdependence on the general property tax."²

Since seventy per cent of Kansas school revenues come from the taxation of real property it would be reasonable to use the average assessed valuation per pupil for the entire state as a minimum figure to support a sound local school program. This amount is \$48,000.00 in round numbers.

The assessed valuation is an indication of the potential ability of a school district to support a sound educational program, but the assessed valuation per pupil is a more accurate criterion for determining actual ability. Forty-eight thousand dollars per pupil is recognized in

¹R. M. Schadt, "The Independent Rural High School District in Kansas," (Unpublished Doctor's Thesis, Northwestern University, Chicago, 1956), pp. 128-129.

²Paul R. Mort and Walter Reusser, Public School Finance (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1941), p. 78.

this study as the amount needed to support an adequate educational effort in a local school district.

Summary

In summary the review of literature supports the following as defensible criteria against which to measure the adequacy of high school effort for a school district:

1. Many plans of organization are in use now, but the majority of thinking favors some type of provision for separation of the adolescent junior high student. Plans may vary according to need, but some division other than the traditional 8-4 should be made for junior high students.

2. Every school board has some form of policies. However policies need to be formally adopted and designated as written statements of policy in order to insure continuity, stability, and consistency of board action.

3. Disagreement exists concerning the importance of size of enrollment. There are recognized advantages and disadvantages to both small and large schools. This study recognizes 150 students as a bare minimum, and 300 students as a reasonable minimum to provide all of the essentials for an effective educational program.

4. The educational purpose must be considered when establishing a standard for class size. Since a teaching load includes many things besides the number of pupils in a class the pupil-teacher ratio is not particularly meaningful unless other factors are properly related. However, twenty-five to one is an accepted pupil-teacher ratio.

5. Staff members of small high schools are frequently overloaded

by the number of subjects they teach even though the pupil-teacher ratio may be low. Five sections a day is considered a maximum teaching load, and a minimum of twelve teachers is needed to specialize in each subject field.

6. There is a close relationship between the number of subjects a school offers and the number of staff members it has. Forty-five subjects are indicated by the literature to be a minimum standard which should be the goal for a high school.

7. A minimum collection of thirty books per student should be maintained in schools of 200 or less. Small enrollment is not a valid reason for inadequate library services.

8. Balance is important in planning a program of extra-class activities in order to provide a variety of experiences for the students. Overloading should be avoided and academic achievement should be a guide for allowing participation by the student. The basic fine arts activities, athletics, student publications, and student government should be available. Any school offering fewer than five activities representative of these areas is limiting educational opportunity.

9. The assessed valuation is an indication of the potential ability of a school district to support a sound educational program, but the assessed valuation per pupil is a more accurate criterion for determining actual ability. Forty-eight thousand dollars per pupil is recognized in this study as the amount needed to support an adequate educational effort in a local school district.

III. IMPORTANT CHARACTERISTICS OF SIXTY-SIX KANSAS RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS FROM 1956-61

It is the purpose of this section to examine the status of the Kansas Rural High Schools based on nine selected areas thought to be descriptive of those schools. Particular interest is directed toward the variation or change which may exist in these areas over a five year period in order to see if any particular trends occur.

The High School Principal's Organization Report was used as the primary source for data which this section contains. The analysis of these data is largely quantitative with such qualitative evaluation as is necessary for a clear understanding of the point in question.

Internal School Organization

Since most authorities agree that there is a need for some type of intermediate school to meet the needs of adolescent youth, it is clearly evident from the data in Table I that the Kansas Rural High Schools are failing to meet such needs. However, it may be said that the 8-4 plan exists to such a great extent because, by law, the Rural High School District provides for grades nine to twelve inclusive.

The 8-4 plan of internal school organization is virtually the only one used in the Kansas Rural High Schools studied. Of the sixty-six schools studied 64 were using the 8-4 plan throughout the five year period of the study. One school was using a 6-2-4 plan in 1956-57 and 1957-58, but changed to an 8-4 plan. Another school was using a 6-6 plan in 1956-57, but used an 8-4 plan thereafter. All of the 66 schools

were using an 8-4 plan from 1958 to 1961.

TABLE I
EXISTING PLANS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION IN SIXTY-SIX
KANSAS RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS
1956-1961

Plan	Year				
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
8-4	64	65	66	66	66
6-2-4	1	1			
6-6	1				
Total	66	66	66	66	66

It may thus be concluded that the Kansas Rural High Schools studied are failing to meet the need or provision for separation of the adolescent junior high student according to criterion one.

Written Board of Education Policies

Every school board has some form of policies. However policies need to be formally adopted and designated as written statements of policy in order to insure continuity, stability, and consistency of board action.

In answer to the question, "Do you have written Board of Education Policies?", thirty-two respondents said yes, five said some, and twenty-nine said no in 1956-57. The percentages were 48.4 yes, 7.5 some, and 44.1 no, respectively. Table II shows the gradual change each year in these answers. In 1960-61 fifty indicated yes, three some, and fourteen no, for percentages of 75.7, 3.0, and 20.3 respectively. The gain in the number

of schools using written board policies was eighteen which is a percentage increase of 27.3. This is considerable and indicates a trend toward the adoption and use of written board policies. Such a trend is necessary for Kansas Rural High Schools to meet the standards of criterion 2.

TABLE II
USE OF WRITTEN BOARD OF EDUCATION POLICIES
IN SIXTY-SIX KANSAS RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS
1956-1961

Year	Yes	Use Some	No
1956-57	32	5	29
1957-58	39	5	22
1958-59	39	4	23
1959-60	49	3	14
1960-61	50	2	14
Total	209	19	102

Enrollment

This study recognizes 150 students as a bare minimum and 300 students as a reasonable minimum enrollment to provide the essentials for an effective educational program.

The median enrollment of the sixty-six Rural High Schools for each of the five years studied was in the 60-80 range. Table III indicates there were no great changes in the enrollments of these schools during the five year period 1956-1961. In the school year 1956-57 twenty-seven schools

TABLE III
 RANGE OF ENROLLMENT FOR SIXTY-SIX KANSAS RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS
 1956-1961

Range	1956-57	1957-58	Year 1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
Over 250	1	2	2	2	3
176-250	2				
141-175	3	4	5	6	5
121-140	6	6	4	3	2
101-120	6	5	6	10	11
81-100	5	4	9	7	9
61-80	16	18	15	12	9
41-60	18	18	16	16	15
21-40	9	8	9	9	11
Below 20		1	1	1	1
Median	73.5	67.6	70.3	73.6	80.5

enrolled fewer than 60 students, eighteen enrolled over 100, and only three enrolled over 175 students. Again in 1960-61 twenty-six schools still enrolled fewer than 60 pupils, twenty-one enrolled an excess of 100, and three exceeded the 175 pupil mark. In the sub-marginal enrollment range of 21-40 where one would have hoped for improvement there was actually an increase of two in the number of schools from 1956-61. The median enrollment for the five year period increased from 73.5 to 80.5 for all schools.

Few Kansas Rural High Schools were meeting the minimum enrollment standards this study recognized in criterion 3.

Number of Staff Members

The number of teachers in a school is an important measure of the educational opportunity existing there. At least one teacher should be employed for each of the subject areas in order that they might specialize in that field. This would necessitate a minimum of twelve teachers and most of the Kansas Rural High Schools studied were found to employ considerably less than that number as indicated by Table IV. Five sections a day is also considered to be a maximum teaching load.

In 1956-57 only one of the sixty-six schools had over twenty staff members. Seven schools had 10-14 teachers, thirty-nine had 5-9 teachers, and nineteen had 4 or less. Some improvement in this condition occurred during the five year period. The school year 1960-61 found two schools with over twenty teachers, one with 15-19, thirteen with 10-14, forty-seven with 1-9, and only three schools with four or less staff members. The largest increase was found in the 10-14 range, while the greatest

decrease was in schools with four or less teachers. There were nineteen schools in 1956-57 which had four or less teachers, but only three such schools existed in 1960-61. This indicates progress towards the elimination of sub-standard schools in terms of number and assignment of teachers.

Very few schools are meeting the minimum standard of twelve teachers established in criterion 5, and apparently many are exceeding the maximum teaching load of five sections in order to increase the number of subjects taught. Much improvement in this area is needed in the Kansas Rural High Schools.

TABLE IV
NUMBER OF STAFF MEMBERS PER SCHOOL IN SIXTY-SIX
KANSAS RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS FROM
1956-1961

Number of Staff	Year				
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
Over 20	1	1	1	1	1
15-19	0	1	1	1	1
10-14	7	7	6	7	13
5-9	39	39	42	51	47
4 or less	19	18	16	6	3
Median	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.7	6.4

Pupil-Teacher Ratio

A simple measure of the teaching load is the ratio of the number of teachers to the number of pupils. A teaching load includes many things besides the number of pupils in a class, however, the pupil-teacher ratio is not particularly meaningful unless other factors are properly related.

One school was found in this study to operate with a load of over twenty pupils per teacher. In three cases the load was four or less. Table V indicates the median ratio in 1956-57 was 11-12, and it had dropped to 9-10 in 1960-61.

Although something may be said in favor of a smaller pupil-teacher ratio it is also apparent that since enrollment has increased during the five year period the actual teaching load has either increased because of more subject offerings, or the curriculum is suffering for lack of an expanded program. There is an evident lack of economy in such low pupil-teacher ratios which creates a financial burden on the local school community. More individual attention may be given to the pupils in small classes, however, and these schools should derive some benefit from their lack of size. Overall the program of the small school is largely inadequate based on present standards. Twenty-five to one is a generally accepted pupil-teacher ratio, but only one Rural High School in this study reached the twenty to one mark in 1956-57, and only two schools achieved this mark in 1960-61.

TABLE V
 PUPIL-TEACHER RATIOS IN SIXTY-SIX KANSAS
 RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS
 1956-1961

Ratio	Year				
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
Over 20	1	1	1	0	1
19-20	1	1	1	2	0
17-18	5	4	4	2	0
15-16	8	6	8	5	1
13-14	9	10	11	14	10
11-12	16	13	15	11	9
9-10	14	18	8	14	14
7-8	5	8	12	10	14
5-6	3	1	2	4	9
3-4				1	2
Median	11.1	11.2	11.1	11.2	9.2

Number of Subjects

This part of the study deals with the number of subjects offered but not the kinds of subjects even though both are simple measures of the curriculum. It is reasonable to believe, however, that the more subjects offered the greater the educational opportunity available to the students of that school. A greater number of subjects also indicates that the particular needs of more individual students are being met. Forty-five subjects are a minimum standard which should be the goal for a high school as established in criterion 6.

The steady trend toward a greater number of subjects being offered is shown by Table VI. In 1956-57 only two schools offered more than forty subjects in the curriculum, while eight schools were offering more than this number in 1960-61. In the group offering 30-39 subjects there were seven schools in 1956-57 and twenty-nine in 1960-61. A similar trend is seen in the reduction of schools offering 15-24 subjects. Forty-four schools were in this group in 1956-57 while only nine remained there in 1960-61. The median offering for each of the first three years, 1956-59 was 20-24, but by 1960 it had risen to 25-29, and by 1961 it was 30-34 subjects per school. The fact that the Kansas Rural High Schools are progressing in this area is evident, but they are still short of the standard of forty-five subjects per school recommended as an acceptable minimum in criterion 6.

TABLE VI
 NUMBER OF SUBJECTS TAUGHT IN SIXTY-SIX KANSAS
 RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS
 1956-1961

Number	1956-57	1957-58	Year 1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
55-60				1	1
50-54	1	1	1		
45-49				1	1
40-44	1			2	6
35-39	3	1		8	11
30-34	4	7	8	14	18
25-29	13	16	19	20	20
20-24	33	27	28	17	9
15-19	11	13	11	3	
Median	21.2	20.8	20.6	25.8	31.2

Volumes in Library

Using the standard of thirty volumes per student, established in criterion 7, a majority of the Kansas Rural High Schools studied are operating with inadequate library facilities. It was found that the median enrollment of the sixty-six schools was in a range of 60-80. The median enrollment in 1956-57 was 73.5 pupils per school which means the median school should have 2205 volumes in its library. Only six of the sixty-six schools had more than 2,000 volumes in their libraries in 1956-57, while sixty schools were substandard in this respect. There is only a slight change in this situation each year as seen in Table VII. With a median enrollment of 80.5 in 1960-61 the median school library should have possessed 2405 volumes. Nineteen schools were up to minimum standards at this time while forty-seven were still below the standard of thirty volumes per student. This was a gain of twelve, or 18.1 per cent in meeting minimum library standards during the five year period 1956-1961.

No attempt was made to determine the number of reference works or the number and variety of magazine selections. It was felt that the number of single volumes in the library was adequate for determining the extent to which the Rural High Schools were meeting minimum standards for libraries established in criterion 7.

TABLE VII
 NUMBER OF VOLUMES IN LIBRARIES OF SIXTY-SIX KANSAS
 RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS
 1956-1961

Number	1956-57	1957-58	Year 1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
Over 6000					1
5500-5999				1	
5000-5499			1		
4500-4999	1	1			
4000-4499					
3500-3999					
3000-3499	1				1
2500-2999	1	3	3	4	4
2000-2499	3	2	4	9	13
1500-1999	12	14	16	11	11
1000-1499	27	27	24	27	25
500-999	19	18	18	14	9
1-499	2	1	1	1	1

Median Group each year is 1000-1499

Number of Organizations and Activities

The High School Principal's Report contains a section asking for the names of organizations and activities. This is not a list to be checked but one to be written by the principal. Because of this it seems very likely that inconsistencies and oversights exist in the preparation of such lists. Whereas the number of activities in each school actually includes each separate club, organization, and sport it was noted that some reports listed each of these separately while others grouped all sports under the term "athletics," or the various musical groups under the term "music." The terms music and sports could include four or more separate activities each. In each case where these activities were reported as one the writer counted them as one rather than attempting to speculate as to the number of distinct activities.

In each year of the five year period of the study from three to seven schools reported no organizations and activities. During this period 22-33 schools reported from one to five activities; 24-33 schools reported six to ten organizations and activities; 4-7 reported eleven to fifteen organizations and activities; while only one reported sixteen or more. The median number of organizations and activities the first two years was one to five, but for the next three years it was six to ten which was an important improvement. Many schools are short of the standard established in criterion 8, as shown by Table VIII.

TABLE VIII
 NUMBER OF ORGANIZATIONS AND ACTIVITIES SCHEDULED IN
 SIXTY-SIX KANSAS RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS
 1956-1961

Year	None	1-5	Number			Median
			6-10	11-15	16-20	
1956-57	4	33	24	4	1	1-5
1957-58	7	25	30	4		1-5
1958-59	5	22	32	7		6-10
1959-60	6	24	29	6	1	6-10
1960-61	3	22	33	7	1	6-10

Assessed Valuation

The assessed valuation per pupil would indicate more specifically the actual ability of a school district to provide a sound education for it's pupils, than does mere assessed valuation which is more properly an indication of the potential ability of a school district to support a sound educational program. There is also an overdependence on the general property tax for school revenue which creates an uneven distribution of wealth in Rural High School districts of Kansas. Criterion 9 indicates the need for an adjustment in the local, state, and federal government financial responsibilities in Kansas schools

Table IX shows the uneven distribution of wealth in Rural High School districts in Kansas. The range in wealth is from a low of \$1,213,001, to a high of \$20,824,679. This is a difference of \$19,606,678 between districts. A wider spread exists in assessed valuations than in most of the other characteristics of the sixty-six Rural High Schools which were studied. The median assessed valuation in 1956-57 was 3.4 million, and this had risen to 4.0 million in 1959-60. The Rural High Schools receive revenues from the state sales tax, the County High School Tuition Fund, the County High School Equalization Fund, and the tax on the property within the district. Since over seventy per cent of the revenue in the school district comes from local property taxes the potential ability to support education is best measured by the assessed valuation of the School district. The valuations used in Table IX are based on actual assessments as indicated by the High School Principal's Annual Report.

TABLE IX
 THE ASSESSED VALUATIONS OF SIXTY-SIX KANSAS
 RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS
 1956-1960

Millions of Dollars	Year			
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60
Over 20	1	1	1	1
19-20				
17-18	1	1	1	
15-16	1	1	1	2
13-14				
11-12	2	3	3	3
10	1	2	1	1
9	1	1	2	
8	2	2	3	5
7	3	5	5	4
6	2	2	3	3
5	6	4	6	7
4	6	8	8	9
3	17	17	17	16
2	19	15	14	12
1	2	2	2	2
Median	3.4	3.1	3.0	4.0

The uneven distribution of wealth in Kansas Rural High School districts is also evident in the assessed valuation per pupil as shown in Table X. The median assessed valuation per pupil for each of the years studied was above the recognized minimum of \$58,000 established in criterion 9. The range was from less than \$19,000 per pupil assessed valuation to more than \$180,000 for each year of the study. Thus it is not difficult to see the need for a more equitable distribution of wealth among the school districts of Kansas.

TABLE X
 THE ASSESSED VALUATION PER PUPIL OF SIXTY-SIX KANSAS
 RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS
 1956-1960

Thousands of Dollars	Year			
	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60
10-19	2	1	1	2
20-29	8	11	9	8
30-39	12	9	8	9
40-49	8	9	10	10
50-59	9	10	5	9
60-69	4	5	10	4
70-79	7	7	6	10
80-89	5	3	6	2
90-99	2	2	1	--
100-119	2	--	4	6
120-129	4	3	1	--
140-180	2	4	4	4
Over 180	1	2	1	2
Median	53.0	52.7	59.0	54.0

IV. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Virtually all Kansas Rural High Schools are operating with an 8-4 plan of organization. The major reason for this seems to be that, by law, the Rural High School District provides for grades nine to twelve inclusive. This represents a general weakness in that the special needs of adolescent youth are not being met through a junior high school.

Many of the Rural High Schools have been operating without the benefit of written board of education policies. During the first year of the study over forty-four per cent of the schools had no written policies and seven per cent had some. The trend through the five year period was decidedly toward adoption and use of written policies. By 1960-61 only twenty per cent had none and three per cent had some, while over seventy-five per cent used written policies.

The enrollment figures for each of the five years fall far short of the minimum standards of 150-300. The trend is towards higher enrollment as shown by a median of 73.5 in 1956-57 and 80.5 in 1960-61. However the number of schools with enrollments of less than forty also increased.

The low number of staff members in many schools is cause to question the adequacy of educational opportunity in such schools. A gradual trend towards more teachers per school was evident over the five year period. However, by 1960-61 fifty of the sixty-six schools were still below the minimum standard of twelve teachers per school which is necessary to provide a specialist in each of the major subject areas.

The pupil-teacher ratio was found to be satisfactory for all schools each year except that the low ratios found in most of the schools probably mean a lack of economy. Low ratios also mean an increase in the teaching load since the number of subjects and the number of students have both increased more than the number of staff members.

A steady trend towards more subject offerings was shown over the five year period. In 1956-57 the median number of subjects offered was 21.2, but in 1960-61 it was 31.2. Both figures are short of the reasonable minimum of forty-five, but progress is evident. A greater number of subject offerings should mean that the particular needs of more individuals are being met.

Based on a standard of thirty volumes per student ninety per cent of the schools were sub-standard in 1956-57. This figure had improved 18.1 per cent by 1960-61. However with seventy-two per cent of the schools below standard in library services there is still much cause for concern over such lack of breadth in educational opportunity.

Balance is important in extra-class activities. Every school should include at least one activity in each of the areas of fine arts, athletics, student publications, and student government. From three to seven schools reported no activities each year, and 22-33 reported less than five. It is a real problem for the small schools to furnish a well rounded program of extra-class activities.

The uneven distribution of wealth in Rural High School districts was found to be an important educational problem for Kansas since over seventy per cent of the school district revenue comes from local property

taxes. Many schools were operating on what appeared to be an inadequate financial base. However assessed valuations had risen from a median of 3.4 million dollars in 1956-57 to 4.0 million in 1959-60. Although the median assessed valuations per pupil were above the recognized minimum of \$48,000 each year the fact that the range of wealth was from less than \$19,000 per pupil to over \$180,000 per pupil was further indication of the need for a more equitable distribution of wealth among the school districts of Kansas.

Recommendation

This study indicates the need for change to overcome evident weaknesses found in Kansas Rural High Schools. To effectively eliminate the weaknesses careful study should be given to school district reorganization which could: (1) Make possible organization which recognizes the junior high school student; (2) Provide leadership for written policy development in all districts; (3) Create larger county units thus solving sub-standard enrollments; (4) Increase the number of staff members in each school so that a specialist exists in each subject field; (5) Eliminate uneconomical pupil-teacher ratios; (6) Provide a minimum educational opportunity of forty-five subjects per school; (7) Expand library services to an adequate level; (8) Emphasize the necessity for a well rounded program of extra-class activities in the curriculum; (9) Distribute the wealth of the state equitably among all of the school districts.

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APPENDIX

Appendix A: Kansas Rural High Schools Selected for the Study

<u>School</u>	<u>County</u>	<u>School</u>	<u>County</u>
Alton	Osborne	Hazelton	Barber
Basehor	Leavenworth	Holyrood	Ellsworth
Bern	Nemaha	Hugoton	Stevens
Bison	Rush	Jamestown	Cloud
Bogue	Graham	Kelly	Nemaha
Burdette	Pawnee	LaCrosse	Rush
Canton	McPherson	Lansing	Leavenworth
Centralia	Nemaha	Lenora	Norton
Claflin	Barton	Lincoln	Lincoln
Colony	Anderson	Longford	Clay
Cuba	Republic	Lucas	Russell
Delia	Jackson	McDonald	Fawcins
Dover	Shawnee	Marquette	McPherson
Easton	Leavenworth	Meriden	Jefferson
Elmore	Allan	Moran	Allen
Eudora	Douglas	Moscow	Stevens
Galva	McPherson	Narka	Republic
Geneseo	Rice	Netawaka	Jackson
Goff	Nemaha	Otis	Rush
Greensburg	Kiowa	Overbrook	Osage
Haddam	Washington	Palco	Rooks
Hanover	Washington	Partridge	Reno
Harveyville	Wabaunsee	Piedmont	Greenwood

<u>School</u>	<u>County</u>
Pleasanton	Linn
Pretty Frairie	Reno
Radium	Stafford
Reading	Lyon
Reserve	Brown
St. George	Pottawatomie
Sawyer	Fratt
Severy	Greenwood
Solomon	Dickinson
Stark	Neosho
Webster	Rooks
Sublette	Haskell
Tampa	Marion
Turner	Wyandotte
Valley Falls	Jefferson
Wakefield	Clay
Westphalia	Anderson
Winchester	Jefferson
Zenda	Kingman

A STUDY OF SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS OF THE KANSAS
RURAL HIGH SCHOOL FROM 1956 TO 1961

by

BENJAMIN H. DUELL

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

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School reorganization has been a major educational problem facing those interested in improving the quality of educational opportunity in Kansas. The changes which have been made in the Kansas Rural High School from 1956 to 1961 should indicate the existing trends.

The problem was to study certain characteristics of the Kansas Rural High School which would indicate what changes, if any, were taking place over a five year period, 1956 to 1961. The characteristics selected were those which were, through study, found to be important in indicating the quality of educational opportunity available in the Kansas Rural High Schools.

Many high schools are too small to provide the kind of educational program which meets the needs of the students in the present day and age. It was believed that the selected characteristics would present a cross section view of the Rural High School which would indicate existing strengths and weaknesses.

Standards were developed from the review of literature with which the schools could be compared.

Nine characteristics thought to be descriptive of the Kansas Rural High School were selected for study. These were limited to those which could be obtained from the High School Principals Organization Report. By periodic random sampling twenty-five per cent of the schools in Kansas Rural High School Districts was selected from the 1960-61 Kansas Educational Directory, Bulletin 340. Data for each characteristic were collected from the sample selected. Only information pertinent to each selected characteristic was used.

Most Kansas Rural High Schools are operating with an 8-4 plan of

organization. This represents a general weakness in that the special needs of adolescent youth are not being met through a junior high school.

Many of the Rural High Schools have been operating without the benefit of written board of education policies. During the first year of the study over forty-four per cent of the schools had no written policies, but by 1961 seventy-five per cent used written policies.

The enrollment figures for each of the five years fall short of the minimum standards of 150-300. The trend is towards higher enrollment as shown by a median of 73.5 in 1956-57 and 80.5 in 1960-61.

A gradual trend towards more teachers per school was evident over the five year period. However, by 1960-61 fifty of the sixty-six schools were still below the minimum of twelve teachers needed to provide a specialist in each of the major subject areas.

The pupil-teacher ratio was found to be satisfactory for all schools each year except as they probably indicate a lack of economy.

A steady trend towards more subject offerings was shown over the five year period. In 1956-57 the median number of subjects offered was 21.2, but in 1960-61 it was 31.2. Both levels are short of the reasonable minimum of forty-five, but progress is evident.

Based on a standard of thirty volumes per student ninety per cent of the schools were sub-standard in library services in 1956-57. An improvement of 18.1 per cent had been made by 1960-61, but seventy-two per cent were still below standard.

Balance is important in extra-class activities. Every school should include at least five activities representative of the areas of

fine arts, athletics, student publications, and student government.

From three to seven schools reported no activities each year, and 22-33 reported less than five.

The uneven distribution of wealth in Rural High School districts was found to be an important educational problem for Kansas since over seventy per cent of the school district revenue comes from local property taxes. Although the median assessed valuations per pupil were above the recognized minimum of \$48,000 each year the fact that the range of wealth was from less than \$19,000 per pupil to over \$180,000 was indicative of the need for a more equitable distribution of wealth among the school districts of Kansas.