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ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND SUPPORT IN OREGON

A Report by the Education and Recreation Section of the City Club

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REORGANIZATION AND REFINANCING OF OREGON SYSTEM OF ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS PROPOSED BY COMMITTEE

SECTION I.
INTRODUCTION

Authorization of Study

To the Board of Governors of the City Club:

On September 29, 1933, Mr. C. A. Howard, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, appeared before the City Club and strikingly demonstrated the need for some fundamental changes in the methods of public school organization and support in Oregon. As a result this committee was appointed to study the problems of public elementary and secondary education in this state and to set up goals toward which corrective measures might be directed.

The problems of educational support which Oregon now faces are the same with which other states have struggled and which they have solved or are now attempting to solve along much the same lines. The more successful of these plans have certain elements in common. These common elements as set forth in the many state surveys of public school reorganization and support which have appeared since the inception of the business depression, have been carefully studied by this committee with the thought that they might be made to apply to the Oregon situation. The school problems of Oregon do not differ in any vital respect from those of most of the states, especially those states in the western half of the nation. Oregon's task has been complicated by the trials of her chief industries and by an unusual hesitancy to modernize her system of educational organization and support.

Objectives of Report

In this study we purpose an examination of: (1) the Oregon system as it has developed and as it stands today; (2) various general trends in the development of educational systems; (3) certain inequalities in the present system which have contributed to an increase in the costs of education in Oregon; (4) suggested changes in the present setup which the experience of other states or communities indicate would bring about a reduction in costs and improve the quality of such services; and (5) suggested changes in the manner of supporting the Oregon program of education.

Limitations of Report

A comprehensive survey of the whole field of Oregon education would exceed the limitation of the usual City Club report, and the limited time which the members of this committee could give to this research compelled the ommission of some and the very brief treatment of other material which should be found in a complete report. Only facts which have an important bearing on the aim of the report have been included and a list of the most useful references has been given for those who wish to supplement this study.

Attitude of the Public

In making this study we have encountered frequent reference to the attitude of the public toward the whole subject of education. The masses believe implicitly in the value of the educational process and the help which the individual derives from training. The average citizen does not, however, realize that the benefits the child derives are deferred benefits which do not reach their full fruition, so far as society and the state are concerned, until the subject takes his place in adult society. He is then very largely out of contact with the school as an institution. His knowledge of what the schools as a system was and is comes chiefly from his memory of the school he attended. If that school was well organized, well graded, and in the hands of capable teachers, his attitude toward education will be on a higher level than will be the attitude of his neighbor who attended a poorly organized, ungraded school in the hands of incapable teachers. This memory of what was customary plus the attitudes which were developed serve very largely as determinants in the makeup of the present system. With advancing age the influence of these forces becomes more pronounced and all too frequently we encounter insistance upon the maintenance of the old order in all that pertains to the school system. Plans for new and better forms of organization and more equitable forms of support are defeated. New subjects, changed courses of study, revised curricula frequently meet strenuous objection. The public by its attitudes and its appraisal of the benefits and services rendered very largely control the public schools. Improvements are made only as rapidly as the understanding of the public will permit or when an emergency such as the present depression arrives to force the necessity of change into the public consciousness. At such times the thoughtful citizen develops an interest in a study of the facts pertaining to the problems of education and a willingness to cooperate in their solution. To give the essential facts about schools in general and the Oregon system in particular is the aim of this report.

Need for Education in a Democracy

America is committed to democracy not only as a form of government but also as a way of life. The life of a democracy depends very definitely upon the extent to which the citizens of the state are literate and schooled in the principles of democracy. Since the establishment of our republic as an independent nation the American people have generally manifested a profound faith in public education. Even in times of financial difficulties deviations from such support have been but temporary. In a recent study of public school support in the United States through the periods of economic depression of the past one hundred years, R. S. Pitkin points out the interesting fact that the American people have always reacted to the stress of poor economic conditions by imposing further restrictions upon child labor, by enrolling more of their children in the public schools,

FRIDAY, NOVEMBER 8 **HOTEL BENSON; 12:10**

SPEAKER

JOHN FRANCIS CRAMER

Superintendent of Schools, The Dalles, Oregon

TOPIC

"Problems of State Support for Schools"

Superintendent Cramer holds an M.A. Degree in education from the University of Oregon. A short time ago he visited Australia on a grant from the Carnegie Foundation. He is a contributor to the "School Executives Magazine." In a recent article in that paper he concluded that further study in the field of state support of education "would undoubtedly yield interesting results. Students of state equalization plans, of problems of consolidation of small units into large ones, and of state support for public schools would profit by wider knowledge of state school systems in Australia." He has made an interesting comparison between the state of Oregon and Victoria, one of the six states of the Australian Commonwealth. His study reveals that the per capita cost of education in Oregon and Victoria is respectively $20.172 and $8.40, while the per pupil cost is $94.961 and $54.171.

Mr. Cramer's address will be most timely since it coincides with the publication of the extensive City Club report on education in Oregon. It is also timely because the following week is National Education Week. Don't fail to hear this excellent address.

COME EARLY! **BRING A GUEST!**

by enacting progressive educational legislation, by extending the services of the system, and by revamping the methods of educational support. There is no reason to think that the people of America will react differently at this time. To assure intelligent reaction we hold that the present need is a general diffusion of facts concerning the system as it is, the objectives toward which it is working, and the basic principles of a more acceptable organization of the system.

Objectives of Education

It is probably true that a large portion of the population does not know that the schools have definite objectives toward which they are working. The best and most concise statement of these objectives, known as the seven cardinal principles, was made by a National Committee some years ago. First, the child must be given the knowledge and habits which will enable him to safeguard his personal health and the health and safety of the community in which he lives. Second, he must be taught those habits and skills which will enable him to participate worthily in the membership of a home. Third, he must be given a mastery of the tools, the technics, and the spirit of learning which is so essential to his own progress as well as that of the state. Fourth, he must be taught the principles of democracy and given the habits of thoughtful consideration of the problems of government so that he may become a worthy and faithful citizen. Fifth, so far as it is possible each individual must be given those skills and habits which will make him vocationally and economically effective. Sixth, he must be taught those interests which will enable him to make the best possible use of his leisure time. Seventh, he must be taught those elements of trustworthiness and personality which will enable him to develop, so far as his heredity permits, into an outstanding character.

The Curriculum

The changing mores of the American people have altered the emphasis placed on much of the subject matter of the curriculum. This altered emphasis demands a revision, especially on the high school level. Educators have long been aware of this situation and have experimented with subject matter thought to be more suitable to modern life. The educational history of the past gives some assurance that it will be possible to run ahead of popular support in making this revision.

Just what should be the subject matter of a modern school curriculum? There is no unanimity of opinion. The weight of professional opinion is for a greater emphasis upon a curriculum which will prepare for more effective citizenship and a worthwhile use of the leisure time which the future seems destined to provide. Some such subjects have been in the curriculum for many years. Adults who have not yet obtained the vision of modern education have termed them "Fads and Frills" and have insisted that they be dropped. Educators contend that these subjects have valuable but sometimes deferred benefits to the individual and that greater progress should be made in the direction of a socialized curriculum.

Comparative Costs—Income and Education

The past few years of economic depression have made people so critical of all public ex-

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penditures that they have frequently charged the system of public education with being altogether too expensive and with taking too large a percentage of the people's income. The national income for 1930, as estimated by the National Bureau of Economic Research, is placed at approximately 78 billion dollars. The national costs during the same year of all types of education, as given by the United States Office of Education, was 2.6 billion dollars. This would indicate that the total expenditure for education was 3.35 per cent of the national income. In 1930 the estimated income in Oregon was $652,080,000 and it spent for education of all types $25,545,945, or 3.93 percent of which 3.1 percent was for public elementary and secondary education. Eighteen states spent a larger percentage of their 1930 income for education than did Oregon. (Arizona, California, Florida, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, North Carolina, North Dakota, South Dakota, Utah, West Virginia), .

Income and Tax Collections

In 1930 the total tax collections in the United States were $10,266,000,000, or 13.17 percent of the national income. The Federal government collected $3,468,000,000 or 4.45 percent; the states $1,780,339,561, or 2.28 percent and the local units $5,017,789,000, or 6.43 percent of the national income. In the state of Oregon the federal government collected $10,057,200, or 1.53 percent; the state government $23,784,858, or 3.64 percent; and the local units $45,403,000, or 6.97 percent of the total income of the people of the state. The total of these collections is $79,245,058, or 12.14 percent of the total income. The state and local units together collected 10.61 percent of this amount. In only six states do these units collect a larger percent of the estimated income of their inhabitants. (California, Florida, Michigan, Mississippi, New Jersey, South Dakota). Approximately 83 percent of public elementary and secondary school revenues come from taxes levied by local units while these same units collect slightly less than 50 percent of the total tax collections.

Distribution of Expenditures

It is of interest to know how the expenditures for education compare with the expenditures for other items.

America spent on education 74.20 percent as much as it spent on life insurance, 45.04 percent as much as it spent on building construction and 22.13 percent as much as it spent on passenger automobiles. The same figures for Oregon are 111.53 percent, 75.11 percent and 21.02 percent respectively.

State Responsibility for Education

Our national constitution does not mention the subject of education, but the accepted interpretation of the tenth amendment regards public education as a state function. Organization for its support has been left entirely to the individual states as their own needs justified. Most of the states organized the district system and left to these local units the obligation of financial support. In the states formed from the old Northwest territory and those which have since been added to the union the national government has contributed to a permanent

fund for education through a land donation. As early as 1795 Connecticut undertook to provide from state sources sufficient funds to meet the entire cost of education, but this did not remain a permanent policy. It was not until about 1890 when the responsibility of the state for financing education became more generally recognized that the states began to increase their contributions to education. In the five year period from 1925 to 1930 the national and state contributions to education increased over 30 percent. However, the increase for other governmental functions actually resulted in a decrease in the percent of total state revenues spent for education.

This attitude of apparent indifference on the part of the state to the welfare of the school and to its support contrasts strongly with the state's legal responsibility. By constitutional provisions, legislative enactment, and court decisions, all states have established their sovereign and final authority in this field. Because of the assumption of authority for regulation, the responsibility for financial aid logically rests with the state. However, the states have been slow in definitely providing adequate school facilities for all of their children. Because of the numerous inequalities which exist in all phases of state school systems, criticism of current conditions has been increasing and local autonomy has been yielding to forms of reorganization looking toward a more efficient and economical conduct of education.

During the past decade the problem of providing adequate equalization funds for the schools has consistently appeared before State legislatures. The usual method of solving this problem of state support has been for the legislature to establish a minimum program in terms of a certain number of months during which schools must be maintained in all districts with minimum educational standards. The state then has undertaken to finance part or all of this minimum program. If a district desired a longer term or standards superior to those set by the state, it was permitted to finance the additional costs by a local tax. Since 1921 Delaware has financed the entire cost of a prescribed minimum program. In 1931 North Carolina adopted the same policy, setting up a minimum program of six months which was increased in 1933 to eight months. Standards concerning teacher load, salaries, transportation and various other items of school administration were established and the state agreed to aid in financing a term extension of not to exceed two months.

Other states have approached the problem from a somewhat different angle. This approach is illustrated by Indiana where recent legislation provided $600 annually from State funds for each teacher required under an established teacher-pupil schedule. It is a safe prediction that most of the states will approach the problem from this angle. All the influence of past proceedure and custom will operate to prevent most states from adopting in one step the plan of complete state support for a minimum program.

It is a generally recognized fact that many of the functions of government can be more efficiently and economically administered by the state than by its smaller subdivisions. Highway construction and maintenance, institutions of higher learning, and institutions for social welfare are efficiently and economically administered and supported by states. Traditions and the jealousy of local autonomy have usually operated to prevent the adoption of the state as the logical unit in public school support and administration.

SECTION II.
DEVELOPMENT OF THE OREGON SYSTEM

Constitutional Responsibility

The Oregon constitutional convention assumed the implied duty of providing education and wrote into the constitution: "The legislative assembly shall provide by law for the establishment of a uniform and general system of common schools." A state superintendent of public instruction was provided. A permanent public school fund was to be provided through the sale of certain public lands set aside for that purpose and its investment and the distribution of the proceeds was regulated. A mandate was also placed upon the legislature to set up and provide for the maintenance of a system of free public schools. The district was selected as the administrative unit and the responsibility of maintenance was largely left to the local community. Section 1 of Article 9 provided for uniform assessment of taxation, but this provision has broken down since neither the ability nor effort to support education is uniform throughout the states.

Under its constitutional mandate the legislature has enacted many provisions for permissive or mandatory functions in the state school system. Some of these have added to the cost of education while others have merely indicated how the money should be spent.

Historical Development

We are interested in the historical development of the Oregon system of education as a part of this report only as a means of discovering the source of some of the weak spots in the present set up. Due to the conditions of settlement in America, the district system was a natural product and the numbers of districts kept pace with the growth of population. Educators of the New England states early realized that the district system was not well adapted to a populous commonwealth and initiated movements which ultimately resulted in the reorganization of the schools of these states on a township basis. By this process of reorganization the six New England states reduced the number of school districts from 13,214 to 1,411. The move was a complete success and was adopted in four other states.

The district system accompanied the westward migration and was very naturally set up in Oregon. At present there are four kinds of local school units in the state: (1) the district maintaining only an elementary school, (2) the district maintaining both an elementary and a high school, (3) the union high school district formed of several elementary districts, and (4) the county unit districts.

Growth of the Oregon System

Most features of the growth of the Oregon School system have either paralleled or exceeded the state's growth in population and

Table 1.—AVERAGE LENGTH OF SCHOOL TERM.

Country	*Term In Days*
United States—	
Rural	162
Urban	184
Average	172
France	200
Sweden	210
England	210
Japan	240
Germany	246
Denmark	246

Source of Data: Asia. March, 1935. School Life, U. S. Office of Education, December, 1933.

wealth. Between 1900 and 1933 the school census increased 95.4%, the school enrollment 129.9% and the average daily attendance 199.5%. During the same time the percent of school population enrolled rose from 67.1% to 78.7% and the percent of enrollment in average daily attendance from 74.4% to 98.8%. These data indicate that the schools have increased their efficiency and holding power very markedly. However, a critical examination of school enrollment and attendance figures indicate that the maximum increase has been made in urban schools, and that rural schools have been and are now lagging considerably behind in this respect.

Length of Term, Number of Units and Teachers

In 1880 Oregon kept its schools open for an average term of 90 days. The national average at that time was 130.3 days. With various fluctuations the Oregon school term has increased to 172 days in 1930, just .7 of a day below the national average, an increase of 91.1% as compared with the national increase of 32.4%. However, a segregation of the schools into urban and rural results in an average term in the former of 184 days against an average term of 162 days in the latter. These figures do not compare well with the average of 200 days in France, 210 days in England and Sweden, 240 days in Japan and 246 days in Germany and Denmark.

In 1875 there were 775 school districts. The number of units rose to a peak of 2,948 in 1921. During the past thirteen years the adoption of the county unit in some counties and a slow process of consolidation have reduced the number of units to 2,334, obviously still too many. Of these, 1,397 have one room schools, 224 of which were not operating in 1934.

The number of teachers employed in the

Table 2.—NUMBER OF DISTRICT UNITS, NUMBER OF ONE-ROOM SCHOOLS AND TOTAL NUMBER OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS IN OREGON, 1934-1935.

First Class Districts (1,000 or more school census)	31
Second Class Districts (200-1,000 school census)	109
Third Class Districts (less than 200 school census)	1,928
Joint Districts (containing territory in two or more adjoining counties)	164
Union High School Districts	91
Joint Union High School Districts	4
County Units	4
County High School Districts	3
Total Number of Districts	2,334
Number of One-Room Schools	1,397
Total Number of School Buildings Used	2,686

Source of Data: Oregon School Directory, 1934-1935. Issued by C. A. Howard, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Oregon Schools has increased in about the same ratio as have the enrollment figures. As the system has grown, however, the ratio of men to women teachers has altered very greatly. In 1870, 51.7% of the teachers were men. This figure has gradually dropped to a low of 11.8% in 1930. A similar but somewhat slower drop has occurred in the same figures for the nation. The major explanation for this fact seems to be that the salaries paid men teachers have not increased in the same amount as have salaries in other lines of work. Reliable figures for 1870 are not obtainable, but in 1875 men received an average annual salary of $205.56 and women $161.38. In 1934-35, the average annual salary for men and women was $787.65 in the elementary schools, and $1,132.87 in the high schools.

In times of prosperity teacher's salaries lag behind those in other professions of comparable training. Eels has pointed out that this lag is usually between two and a half and three years. However, in times of adversity school districts are usually the first governmental units to retrench by cutting salaries. Such was the case following the economic crash of 1929.

Growth of High Schools

Since 1900 the number of high schools maintained in Oregon has risen from thirty to 365, an increase of 1,116.6%. During the same time the high school enrollment has grown from 1.9 to 55.3 thousand, an increase of 2,810.5%. Between 1875 and 1930 the average annual increase in value of all property used for school purposes in Oregon was $941,479. This is an increase per census child from $6.83 to $199.56.

Table 3.—SOURCES OF INCOME FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION IN OREGON—1875-1934.

Year	*Irreducible School Fund*	*County School Fund*	*2 Mill Elementary School Fund*	*District School Tax*	*High School Tuition Fund*	*Total For School Support*
1875	$ 33,367	$ 117,182	.....	$ 92,035	.....	$ 258,871
1880	36,910	133,477	.....	79,526	.....	339,080
1885	77,938	260,142	.....	141,124	.....	578,341
1890	151,188	411,765	.....	229,472	.....	1,062,890
1895	123,728	697,412	.....	223,985	.....	1,205,100
1900	203,408	821,598	.....	399,678	.....	1,728,225
1905	239,316	860,964	.....	794,475	.....	2,627,986
1910	320,272	1,322,082	.....	2,346,556	.....	3,988,908
1915	394,274	1,695,878	.....	3,300,712	.....	8,525,213
1920	432,277	2,160,705	.....	6,055,373	.....	8,648,355
1925	407,031	2 584,722	$ 2,072,743	8,429,328	$ 701,611	14,195,435
1930	412,716	2,794,422	2,232,717	12,289,734	982,320	18,711,909
1934	294,897	2,736,390	2,064,292	10,134,605	1,115,345	16,345,529

Source of Data: Bienniel Reports of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Table 4.—TOTAL SCHOOL DISTRICT INDEBTEDNESS IN OREGON—1925-1934.

Year	Bonded	Warrant	Other	TOTAL	
				Amount	Per Cent of Assessed Valuation
1925	$ 12,762,489	$ 1,662,253	$ 486,959	$ 14,916,703	1.37
1926	16,896,149	2,230,789	547,491	19,672,430	1.81
1927	17,791,402	2,401,389	488,703	20,681,494	1.86
1928	19,549,224	2,392,081	331,424	22,272,730	1.97
1929	20,495,088	2,654,818	341,391	23,491,298	2.08
1930	20,309,913	2,255,037	253,421	22,818,371	2.01
1931	19,606,297	2,413,479	470,742	22,490,519	2.03
1932	19,558,944	4,395,388	271,079	24,225,412	2.31
1933	18,591,635	6,051,427	248,623	24,891,686	2.36
1934	17,206,773	3,353,935	238,678	20,799,386	2.13

Source of Data: Thirty-first Biennial Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. 1933-1934. Page 49.

The significance of the above figures will be discussed under trends which have increased school costs.

Expenditures for Education and Indebtedness

In 1913 Oregon spent for elementary and secondary education 6.4 million dollars. This expenditure rose to a peak in 1930 of 25.6 million dollars, or an increase of 300%. In 1913 the Oregon schools were indebted to the extent of 4.4 million dollars. The indebtedness rose to 22.3 million dollars in 1929, an increase of 406.8%.

Sources of School Revenues

In the early history of the state practically all wealth was in the form of real property and the property tax became the main source of school revenue for local districts, since the state is the only governmental unit which may levy other forms of taxes. This means that real property bears almost entirely the burden of school support. From the point of view of the property owner this practice is unjust. From the point of view of the school administrator, it is too fluctuating to provide stable revenues.

The Oregon constitution imposes the obligation of maintaining a system of free elementary schools, but Oregon has refused to assume the burden of financial support of the schools as a state function and has contributed only a small percent of the funds for their support. In 1890, 16.4% of the Oregon school revenues were derived from state and Federal sources. By 1930 this figure had been reduced to 2.3%, placing the state at the bottom of the list of states in the amount of aid given to the schools.

The State Permanent School Fund reached its peak of contribution in 1930 when it distributed to the districts $1.58 per census child. The fund now stands at 8.7 million dollars. Most of this sum is invested in farm and home mortgages. While the fund actually exists in this invested form, investigation of the value of these mortgages would indicate that between 10 and 15 percent of the amount thus invested probably could not be collected.

Disposition of School Revenues

A study of Table 5 indicates that expenditures in Oregon for functions other than actual classroom instruction have run far ahead of the national average and that salaries paid teachers have suffered in consequence. Authorities maintain that 75% of the total cost of education should go for instruction, but this figure is dropping at a rather alarming rate in Oregon. It is evident that agencies not closely related to instruction are absorbing too large a share of the school revenues.

Table 5.—COMPARISON OF PUBLIC SCHOOL COSTS—1920 and 1930.

	Per Pupil Cost on Average Daily Attendance and Percent each Item is of Total Current Expense								Percent Increase in Per Pupil Cost, 1920-1930	
	United States				Oregon					
	Cost		Percent		Cost		Percent			
	1920	1930	1920	1930	1920	1930	1920	1930	United States	Oregon
CURRENT EXPENSE—										
Instruction:										
Salaries	$36.74	$58.80	68.7	67.9	$49.58	$72.43	85.5	70.0	60.0	46.1
Books and Supplies	2.63	3.17	4.9	3.6	1.13	2.91	1.4	2.8	20.5	157.4
Total Instruction	39.37	61.97	73.6	71.5	50.71	75.34	87.4	72.8	57.4	48.7
General Control	2.20	3.70	4.2	4.3	1.16	4.11	2.0	4.0	62.3	254.3
Operation	7.16	10.16	13.4	11.7	3.97	10.71	6.9	10.4	41.9	169.5
Maintenance	1.88	3.71	3.5	4.3	1.50	6.57	2.6	6.4	96.8	338.0
Auxiliary Agencies	2.25	4.80	4.2	3.5	.37	5.42	.6	5.2	113.3	1364.8
Fixed Charges	.58	2.36	1.1	2.7	.32	1.25	.5	1.2	306.9	290.6
Total—CURRENT EXPENSE	53.52	86.70	100.0	100.0	58.03	103.31	100.0	100.0	62.0	77.9
Capital Outlay	9.51	17.44	.....	.....	14.74	17.07	.....	.....	83.0	15.9
Interest	1.13	4.35	.....	.....	1.07	5.75	.....	.....	284.9	437.6

Source of Data: Statistics of State School System, 1918-1920. Office of Education Bulletin, 1921, No. 20.
Statictics of State School Systems, 1928-1930. Office of Education Bulletin, 1931 No. 20.

SECTION III.

GENERAL TRENDS WHICH HAVE INCREASED THE COST OF EDUCATION

The whole subject of school costs is complicated by operation of a number of important factors, all of which have contributed in some way to the increase of the amount spent on education. The following is a list of these factors, the effects of which have been felt quite generally throughout the nation: (1) The rapid increase in school enrollment, particularly in the upper and more expensive grades; (2) the technological development of recent years which has caused large numbers to remain in school longer than would otherwise have been the case; (3) a more effective enforcement of school attendance laws resulting in a higher average daily attendance; (4) an increase in the average length of the school term; (5) an increase in the amount, the kind, and the quality of educational services demanded by society; (6) the demand for teachers with personality, better training and more effective teaching technique resulting in higher schedules of compensation; (7) a public demand for higher standards of school building construction; (8) an increase in the number of provisions which are mandatory upon the public school system; (9) the depreciation of the purchasing power of the dollar; (10) inadequate or inefficient systems of unit costs and cost accounting; (11) haphazard, inadequate or unsound state programs of school financing.

All of these factors have operated in Oregon in greater or less degree. A knowledge of the way in which they have affected the whole field of education is essential to an understanding of many of the recent moves made by progressive states in the field of educational reorganization and finance.

Increased Population

The population of the United States has, since 1870, increased 3.3 times. This increase was at the average rate of 1.4 millions per year. During the same time the population of Oregon has multiplied eleven times. During the decades 1890-1910 Oregon's population considerably more than doubled. The average annual increase during the 63 years has been approximately 14,500.

Increased School Census

In 1870 there were approximately 12.1 million children between the ages of five and seventeen in the American population. By 1933 this number had increased to 32.7 million, or 2.7 times. This is an annual increase of about 300,000 children for which the schools had to provide. However, in spite of the known increase in the efficiency of census enumeration, the school census has dropped 7.5 million behind the general population in the rate of increase. In 1870, 21.6% of the total population were in school while the same figure for 1930 is 21.2%. The Oregon school census for this period increased from 34 thousand in 1870 to 260.1 thousand in 1933, or 7.7 times. However, had the state school census increased in the same ratio as the total population there should now be a school census of approximately 376 thousand. This lag is generally ascribed to the decreased birth rate, the lengthened life span, and restrictions placed upon the immigration of more prolific European nationals. The state lag, although slightly less than in the nation as a whole, has acted to decrease the ratio of children to be educated to the total adult population which provides the program of education and by that fact tends to decrease the individual burden of educational support on the adult. It has already made itself felt in the enrollment of the elementary schools and will in due time be reflected in the secondary school enrollment.

Increased School Attendance

The total enrollment in the nation has increased 3.85 times since 1870 and the rate of growth has been fairly uniform. It has, however, increased more rapidly than the school census by about thirty percent. In 1870 the nation enrolled 57 percent of the school census and enrolled a high of 83 percent in 1925. In Oregon enrollment figures closely parallel those of the nation. Since 1870 her enrollment has increased 96 times, but the gain over the total census has been about 10% less than in the nation.

There are indications that the elementary enrollment of the state has probably reached a point from which future growth will largely depend upon the rate of migration to the state from the more populated sections of the east. Evidence of recent months seems to indicate that this migration may be heavy and the state will be faced with the necessity of either increasing her initial investment in elementary education or permitting the level of her educational program to drop below that now maintained. If the quality of migration is of the right type the state should not find it at all difficult to increase the initial investment and probably raise the level of the educational program through a better reorganization of the school system.

Growth of High Schools

The past forty years has witnessed an enormous growth in the number of and enrollment in high schools. Since 1870 the number of pupils enrolled in public high schools has increased fifty times. The period of greatest increase has been during the past decade when social and economic changes brought about the release of many young people from industry and resulted in many states raising the age of compulsory attendance at public schools. All signs indicate that it will continue to increase until the entire population of high school age is enrolled.

The Oregon high school development closely parallels that of the nation in all major factors except possibly the speed with which it has enrolled its young people in the secondary schools. Section 9 of the Oregon School Code of 1878 designated as one of the duties of school directors "to maintain at least six months in each school year, in all districts where the number of persons between four and twenty years of age is 1,000, as shown by the clerks yearly report, a high school, wherein shall be taught in addition to the common school branches such other branches as the directors of the district may prescribe." This was the first high school legislation in Oregon and Portland was the only community which could qualify under its pro-

visions. Astoria set up a high school under the provision of the law in 1890, and Baker, Pendleton, and Salem qualified in 1900.

The two laws which form the basis of the present high school system were enacted in 1901. At that time there were only thirty schools attempting to teach part or all of the high school curriculum. At present there are 368 recognized standard, union and county high schools in the state, an increase of 123 times. Since 1901 the Oregon high school enrollment has increased 295 times. Comparing Oregon with the nation over the period 1890 to 1933, our high school enrollment has grown 1102 times, approximately 22 times the national index.

Because of the nature of the organization necessary for successful high school instruction, the per pupil expense is greater than in the elementary grades. The state wide per pupil cost of elementary education in 1933-34 was $73.59 while the corresponding cost for the high school was $87.89. Variations from this average cost are very great and are quite largely dependent upon the enrollment in the high school and a number of other factors inherent in the type of organization. In 1931 Professor F. L. Stetson of the University of Oregon faculty issued a study of the instructional costs in 226 standard high schools of the state. His figures show that the median per pupil cost drops from $189 in a school enrolling less than ten pupils to $89 enrolling between 100 and 200 pupils. His highest figure was found to be $328 in a high school enrolling less than ten pupils while the lowest cost was found in the group enrolling from 70 to 100 pupils. This tendency for the per pupil cost to decrease with the increase in the enrollment of larger schools is also shown by tables taken from the Thirteenth Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Technological Development

The development of machine industry coupled with more stringent enforcement of child labor regulations has gradually forced up the average age of young people entering industry and has resulted in increasing numbers remaining in school. The partial collapse of our economic structure in 1929 and the resultant unemployment have crowded the secondary institutions of the country with older students and post graduates hoping to profit from further study. Although part of this is a passing phase which will be remedied by the return of prosperity, all signs seem to indicate that the secondary school has not yet reached its terminal growth and limit of holding power.

Compulsory Attendance

In considering the question of compulsory attendance laws and their enforcement, we must keep in mind that school enrollment figures are not the same as attendance figures. A school might have a large enrollment figure, but, if the attitude of the community permitted lax enforcement of attendance regulations, the average daily attendance would probably be much lower. The first compulsory attendance law was passed by Massachusetts in 1852. By 1918 every state in the union had such a law. The degree of effectiveness with which these laws have been enforced has steadily increased with the result that the percentage of children of school age found in average daily attendance has likewise increased. These laws have not only been better enforced but there has been a distinct tendency to raise the upper limit until many states now require attendance up to the age of 18 or 19 years or until the pupil has met certain educational requirements. There is, however, wide variation between urban and rural sections in the enforcement of compulsory attendance regulations. In all states the rural lags behind the urban sections. Rural is here defined as places of less than 2,500 inhabitants or the open country. For the nation as a whole in 1925-26, elementary school attendance was 85% of the enrollment in rural areas and 91% of the enrollment in urban areas. Failure to enforce attendance laws impairs the quality of education.

Oregon has enacted a compulsory attendance law for all children between the ages of 8 and 16 years for the legal length of the term in the district. Reasonable exemptions are made for physical disability and for distance when transportation is not provided. In our opinion the law is weak in that it fails to provide adequately for thoroughly trained attendance supervisors in rural sections. The position is now a part-time duty of someone in the county upon whom all the influences making for lax enforcement may play, or is the duty of a teacher burdened with the cares of a school and unwilling to court trouble by adequate enforcement of the act.

Table 6.—PER PUPIL COST IN OREGON HIGH SCHOOLS, 1927-1928.

Range of Enrollment	*Number of Schools*	*Average per Pupil Cost*
1 to 24	60	$252.96
25 to 49	70	182.21
50 to 74	47	190 26
75 to 99	21	132.32
100 to 199	28	150.07
200 to 499	32	143.47
500 to 999	6	110.06
1000 up	11	114.62

Source of Data: Twenty-eighth Biennial Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1929, page 9.

Increase of School Term

The average length of the school term in the United States as a whole increased 8.8 percent between 1914 and 1930. In Oregon the average school term in 1875 was 4.1 months while in 1930 it was 8.6 months, an increase of 2.07 times. Much of this average increase has been brought about through the action of the urban sections where schools have been kept open for a longer term than that required by law. In those states where the minimum length of term has not been specified by legislative enactment many of the rural schools have made a poor showing in this respect. This lengthening of the average school term has contributed considerably to the increased cost of education.

Improvement of Educational Service

Along with the growth of total population, total enrollment and average daily attendance, there has come a demand for an increase in the amount, the quality and the kinds of educational services provided. Measures of economy have forced the elimination of many of these subjects and services which intelligent critics of the educational system have pronounced of far more value in the development of serviceable citizenship than is a mere mastery of the traditional three R's. Music, physical education, industrial and domestic art, scientific and vocational courses, dramatic and activity programs are some of the courses which the proponents

of economy have attacked. They have likewise attacked some of the services which have in part been provided by the educational system. Among such services may be listed adult and part time education, kindergartens and nursery schools, educational and vocational guidance, employment and health services and free public textbooks and libraries. How much these extra subjects and services have added to the cost of education is shown by the study made in 1932 by the Research Division of the National Educational Association and published in a bulletin on school costs. Table – gives the result of this study for the United States. This committee by the same method of calculation determined the corresponding figures for Oregon.

More Efficient Teachers

Changes in the character of education have made necessary teachers with better training and more effective teaching technique. Added to this inner demand for better trained teachers is a popular pressure in the same direction due to the following factors: (1) better educated parents influential in the community demand teachers whose education equals or exceeds their own; (2) parents ambitious for the success of their children demand the best prepared teachers obtainable; (3) School administrative officers faced with the vexing problem of selecting good teachers favor higher educational requirements in the hope that errors of selection will thereby be reduced; (4) Normal schools because of pride in their work and a desire to expand favor higher qualifications for teachers; (5) teachers on the job favor higher qualifications for beginners in order to reduce competition; (6) increasing unemployment with the accompanying surplus of teachers has made those who are interested in the quality of education more active in demanding that teaching standards be raised.

The short summer normal with its inadequate curriculum has been replaced by a standard institution demanding at least two full years' study of a curriculum designed for professional preparation. This preparation has tended to weed out incompetants who sought entrance to teaching, but it is generally asserted by intelligent critics that requirements should be advanced to four year study in a degree-granting teachers college. Certification has generally been taken out of the hands of local authorities and placed within the state departments of education so that the qualifications of applicants from other states may be more adequately checked and the level of preparation maintained. Oregon has three standard normals giving two years of professional preparation and certification by the state department is based upon such preparation. Preparation for teaching in high schools calls for graduation from a standard college or university offering at least fifteen semester hours of education.

Ignoring the variables inherent in the heredity of the individual teacher, the factors which make him most valuable are preparation and experience. In teaching as in all professions better preparation and broader experience call for increased scales of remuneration. In 1930, 151 grade teachers and 58 high school teachers had not received high school training while 427 or 8.5% of the elementary teachers and 118 or 4.7% of the high school teachers had received less than a full four year high school course. This means that 427 elementary teachers and 118 secondary school teachers are teaching at or above the upper limit of their own schooling. It is hardly probable that the quality of their work measures up to the level of their better prepared coworkers. It is safe to say that these teachers were certified either before the requirements were raised to the present level or in the period of teacher shortage during the World War. Superannuation will in a comparatively short time eliminate this group from the ranks. Likewise 1,990 or 39.8% of our elementary teachers and 870 or 34.4% of our secondary teachers do not measure up to our present requirements of graduation from a standard normal, college, or university. Many of these teachers in normal times could meet this preparation requirement by extension, correspondence, or summer study. The 29th Biennial report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction shows that 63.2% of Oregon teachers received high school training, 36.9% college training and 44% normal training within the state. This indicates that the state is preparing a considerable portion of its teaching force and we feel confident that this percent

Table 7.—CAUSES OF THE INCREASE IN SCHOOL COSTS—1914 to 1930.

	UNITED STATES		OREGON	
	Cost	*Percent*	*Cost*	*Percent*
Cost of Education, 1930	$ 2,320,776,000		$ 25,645,192	
Cost of Education, 1914	555,077,000		7,199,471	
Increase on 1914	1,760,776,000	317.21	18,445,721	256.28
Amount Chargeable To:—				
1. Depreciation of Dollar	860,249,883	48.72	8,986,955	48.72
2. Increased Attendance	482,028,867	27.30	2,512,615	13.63
3. Increased Length of Term	.....	.....	763,864	4.14
4. Other Causes	423,420,250	23.98	6,182,487	33.51
		100.00		100.00

1. Depreciation of the Dollar: In 1930 $158.90 purchased the same amount that $100.00 did in 1914. Therefore, $25,645,192 purchased the same amount in 1930 as $16,658,437 purchased in 1914. The difference, $8,986,755, is the increase chargeable to the depreciation of the dollar.
2. Increased Attendance: The average daily attendance in 1914 was 115,208, in 1930 it was 155,267, an increase of 40,059, or 34.9%. An increase of 34.9% on the cost of education in 1914 is $2,512,615.
3. Increased Length of Term: In 1914 the average length of term was 155.5 days, in 1930 it was 172 days, an increase 10.61%. A 10.61% increase on the cost of education in 1914 is $763,864.
4. Other Causes: The increase on 1914 less the sum of the above items is $6,182,487, the amount of increase chargeable to all other causes.

will increase in the future. A comparatively small number of California prepared teachers are employed in Oregon. This situation is usually ascribed to the higher scale of remuneration found in California. The median Oregon teacher has had approximately eight years' experience in the classroom and has met the maximum requirements demanded by the present laws on preparation and certification.

Better School Buildings

A properly planned and well kept school building is a very important factor in any program of education. Because of disastrous school fires of the past and of the influence of local pride, the quality of the school plant has increased very rapidly during the last quarter century. Desire to protect children against the hazards of conflagrations in school structures have led to many legal enactments having to do with building construction and operation. In all probability community pride has played a far more definite part in the progress which has been made in providing comfortable and attractive buildings and ample grounds and equipment. Unsightly buildings of poor or low grade construction and badly in need of repair usually indicate a community deficient in local pride and initiative. Pupils require optimum conditions in the school room in order to produce optimum results. "While no definite causal relationship can be statistically proved between the value of school property and the educational results achieved, there is some evidence which suggests that pupils in schools having better buildings and equipment obtain higher scores on standard tests than those attending schools where a minimum amount is expended on the school plant." Because of this correlation between the type of school plant provided and pupil achievement, there is justification for using the per pupil valuation of school property as a measure of school efficiency. This use must, however, be based on the assumption that school officials get value received for all money spent on building construction. In 1930 Oregon, ranking 17th among the states in per pupil valuation of school property, had a valuation of $257 compared with the average of $242 for the United States as a whole. Oregon's investment in school property in 1875 was $304,727. The latest figure available is $51,985,092. It is safe to assume that this investment will increase both in the initial and replacement form and that the latter will be heavy in districts with older buildings.

Mandates

With the increasing complexity of our social structure more and more demands have been made upon the schools in the form of mandatory provisions. This trend is strikingly illustrated by the fact that in the United States the average number of mandates governing the curriculum increased 59% between 1903 and 1923. Usually such mandates dictated how the money should be spent rather than whether it should be spent.

A search of the Oregon school code reveals better than thirty mandates dealing with all phases of the educational system. While most of the mandates are necessary for the proper operation of the schools, a number of them appear to involve the needless expenditure of considerable sums. Reliable figures for the determination of the amount which they add to our education bill are not available.

Depreciated Dollar

It is a well known fact that the purchasing power of money is not fixed and that its shifting value over a period of time must be considered in making a comparison of school costs. If 1914 is taken as a base, the purchasing power of the dollar steadily decreased to a low level in June, 1920. The slow upward trend following that date has probably been halted by the recent moves of the administration toward inflation. Since the 1930 dollar value was only about 63 percent of the 1914 dollar, school supplies costing only one dollar in 1914 would cost $1.59 in 1930. Table 7 shows that 48.72% of the increase in the cost of education between 1914 and 1930 is chargeable to the depreciation of the dollar.

Inadequate Cost Accounting

Commercial and industrial groups have developed workable unit costs for many of their operations and have used them as measures by which present and future expenditures may be kept within prescribed limits. Their success in this field gives weight to the arguments of those who maintain that the absence of such units in school cost accounting leads to considerable waste in the expenditure of public funds. They argue that such units could be developed in the fields of capital outlay, plant maintenance, transportation, building utilization, and supplies and equipment. They also maintain that in all states taxes levied by school boards to provide revenue for school uses sometime find their way into general funds for the support of other functions of government. Also there are many cases where it is claimed that funds are counted two or more times as school expenditures thus increasing the apparent cost of education. Funds received from bond issues and expended for the purchase of lands and the erection of buildings are counted when the land and buildings are paid for and again when the bonds are retired. Tax money is paid out only in the second case. Tuition money from one district to another is counted as a receipt and as an expenditure by each district whereas it was a tax levy but once. Writers in this field do not ascribe this situation to dishonesty but rather to the ignorance and inexperience of many of the men charged with the handling of school funds.

State Programs of Financing Education

During recent years a number of state school surveys have emphasized the positive correlation which exists between a state method of financing schools and educational efficiency. While a good plan of financing is not a guarantee of a good educational system, high efficiency cannot be assured on a poor plan. States which have been making progress have attacked this problem from two angles. First, they have assured more adequate financial support for their educational program. Second, they have provided for a better use of funds already available through adopting more efficient forms of school organization and more acceptable methods of distributing state school funds.

These surveys have pointed out the following most common weak spots in state systems of school finance.

(1) Too large a portion of the cost of education comes from the local unit and too small a share from the state at large. Inequality in local unit ability to support education is too great to maintain a uniformly efficient system. In Oregon the wealth per child in the richest county is 6.4 times as great as in the poorest county, while among districts the spread is much greater. Such a situation denies to some children the education demanded by a democratic state. In "A Study of School Finance in Oregon" Dr. H. P. Rainey says "owing to our archaic districting for the raising of a large portion of our school funds, and the wide variations among these districts of tax-paying ability in the weaker the burden of educational support is crushing in weight."

(2) The methods of taxation used in obtaining school revenues are antiquated, inadequate and unjust. Both local and state school revenues are derived from the general property tax. In the early history of the country when wealth was largely in the form of property such a tax was borne with reasonable equality. "Wealth in modern times is derived to a continually larger extent from relations, from opportunities, and from all manner of exertions more or less indirectly, or not at all, connected with property. High salaries and large professional incomes are a common occurance today and would go entirely free under a property tax." (R. A. E. Seligman, Essays in Taxation, Page 649.) Rainey says, "If Oregon is to have increased revenues for schools it must reform its taxing system. The system of taxation on real property is filled with inequalities and unfairness. A large part of the wealth of the state is contributing nothing to the support of education." (opp. cit., Page 131.) In 1925 the committee on School Revenue and Taxation of the Oregon State Teacher's Association asserted "that the burden of school taxes borne by the school district bears no proper or reasonable relationship to capacity to pay taxes" and proved their point by correlating the assessed valuations and tax levies of all districts in counties not operating under the county unit. They found a slight tendency for a reasonable high tax levy to accompany a large assessed valuation in only four of the 33 counties studied. At that time the district assessed valuation ranged from $1,870.00 to $314,500,000.00 and the special district tax levy from zero to 63 mills. The situation is the same today except that assessed valuations have decreased about 7.61% and these districts which then imposed high levies are having a struggle to provide even less than the minimum program of education.

(3) The state contribution to educational support is frequently made in such a manner as to increase the inequalities in ability to finance schools. State distribution of funds should be made in such a manner as to enable the poorer districts to maintain a minimum program without the imposition of an excessive tax burden. All surveys have condemned the method of distribution of such funds on the basis of school population, which is the system employed in Oregon. Oregon, in 1930, supplied $2.04 for each pupil enrolled from its permanent school fund. The extent to which this fund was looted during the early history of the state is common knowledge. Due to the fact that the states of the eastern and southern portion of the United States did not receive large gifts for education from the federal government, Oregon is able to show, even with its small fund, a ranking of 16. However, Oregon ranks 47 among the states in the percent of school revenues supplied from state sources and 15 in the percent supplied from local sources. As has been pointed out these local sources are very unequal so that the net result is great inequality in the assistance given the local units in maintaining their educational program.

Summary

However enormous the increase in public school costs may seem, it is wrong to assume that it is alarming or abnormal. In fact, it may even be lagging behind the conditions which give rise to it. It is true that public school costs in 1933 were 13.9 times what they were in 1890. However, if this ratio be reduced to a per pupil basis it shrinks to 4.25 to 1. Furthermore, 48.72% of the apparent growth in costs was due to the depreciation of the dollar reducing the ratio still further to 2.5 to 1. The question now arises, is present day society in educating its youth making more than double the sacrifice that it made in 1890? Two more factors must be considered. (1) The productive capacity per worker due to our control of energy from nature has approximately doubled in the last half century. The increase in productive capacity has been 3% per annum for the last twenty years. (2) Due to the repacement of men by machines in the so-called productive industries more of the population must shift to those occupations rendering services. Education occupies a great part of this field. Therefore, it is natural to suppose that a proportionately greater share of the wealth produced in the country must be diverted to it by taxation. A more thorough study than this committee can make probably would show that school costs are not as high as conditions warrant.

SECTION IV.
SPECIFIC FACTORS WHICH HAVE INCREASED THE COST OF EDUCATION

In the sections above it has been shown that certain general trends have been at work in the educational world, operating in many cases so slowly and quietly that the friends of public school education have been unaware of them until a crisis was at hand. To have changed the form of school organization and the methods of support so as to keep step exactly with these trends would have been impossible. The result is that developments in public school organization and alterations in the methods of financial support have lagged far behind practices used by business concerns. Meantime there have also been a number of specific or local district factors whose development has affected education adversely.

These factors are: (1) inefficient and more or less antiquated systems of school organization which have resulted in unequal costs; (2) the uneven distribution of children to be educated resulting in unequal needs; (3) the uneven distribution of wealth resulting in very serious

differences in local ability to support education; (4) inadequate state aid and the failure to build up public school funds or the loss of those built up by unwise, dishonest, or incompetent financial supervision resulting in unequal assistance to local units; (5) district gerrymandering which has tended to increase inequalities in the tax base and the ability to support education.

Uneven Need and Ability

One of the greatest local problems facing school administrators is that caused by uneven distribution of population and uneven distribution of wealth. The number of children which any unit of the educational organization must educate is commonly referred to as its educational need. The growth of urban centers has resulted in widely varying needs. There is but little correlation between the tangible wealth of Oregon units and their need. We will use as illustration two districts of Multnomah County. Faloma district No. 33 happens to have within its boundaries several valuable plants resulting in an assessed valuation of $52,158 per enrolled child while Troutdale district No. 25 has a valuation of $2,719 per enrolled child.

The former district, employing three teachers for an enrollment of 52 children, maintains a splendid school with a levy of 3.4 mills while the latter, employing three teachers, maintains a poorer school for 70 enrolled pupils upon a levy of 23.9 mills. Troutdale district must tax itself 7 times as heavily to meet its needs as does Faloma.

Similar inequalities exist in every county in the state. In Sherman County the assessed valuation per pupil is $13,580, placing this county at the head of the list in the matter of per-pupil financial ability. At the other extreme is Deschutes County with only $2,120 valuation per pupil. What this means to the tax payers in these counties is very significant. The levy necessary in these counties as given by *The Oregon School Directory* for 1933-34 shows: (1) that in Sherman County most of the districts levy only three or four mills with four districts running slightly over ten, (2) that in Deschutes County more than half of the districts run above ten mills and three are above twenty-two. Schools which are being supported by comparatively little wealth have had to restrict or deny educational privileges during the last few years. Table 8 shows something of the situation in Lane County in 1930-31.

Unequal Effort To Maintain Schools

Because of the inequalities already pointed out, many districts, under present adverse conditions, found no satisfactory solution for the problem of adequate support and either dropped below a satisfactory minimum program or closed their schools entirely. Others resorted to an increase in the warrant indebtedness or to an expansion of the tax base. Even during times of prosperity some districts employed the old practice of "gerrymandering" in order to secure an adequate tax base. Probably one of the most striking examples of this practice is found in a district in one of the coast counties. A pupil living in the extreme end of the district near the crest of the coast mountains would need to travel about forty miles across the territory of four other districts in order to reach his school building located near the coast. This practice in Oregon is usually found where some valuable body of timberland with no people living thereon has, by some means or other, been attached to a school district in need of funds. It is not common in settled agricultural zones.

Gerrymandering is a device for getting something for nothing. The bad aspects of this practice are: (1) The district school tax is placed on property which receives no benefits whatsoever from being in a school district. (2) If the district school tax is sufficiently large so that it together with other county and state taxes becomes overburdensome, the timber owners tend to liquidate as soon as possible, thus cutting short taxable revenues which might otherwise be spread over a much longer period of time. (3) Often a district receives a revenue which rightfully should go to one or more other districts. (4) The early liquidation loses to the other districts their share of the county school fund, and the two mill elementary tax revenues which they might otherwise have received.

An enlarged unit would eliminate this practice and by reducing school costs would tend to prevent the early liquidation of valuable bodies of timber and their loss to the counties as taxable assets.

Unequal Results and the Primary Cause

With need, ability, assistance and effort being unequal it follows that the results will also be unequal. This fact has been repeatedly pointed out during the past decade or more by publications from the state office of education, professional journals, publications of Oregon school men, and by editorials in the lay press. As has been pointed out, these gross inequalities are generally ascribed to the defects of the district system.

The disadvantages of the district system may be summarized as follows: (1) There has always been an unequal distribution of taxable wealth. (2) The length of time during which the schools have been kept open in the different districts has varied widely. (3) It has led to the use of many poor, obsolete, or unsafe buildings. (4) Many immature, inexperienced, poorly qualified, and underpaid teachers have been retained in the rural districts where, because of the problems to be met, teachers of the highest quality should be employed. (5) It has resulted in most of the districts having very poor teaching equipment or none at all. Some districts may be over sup-

Table 8.—INEQUALITIES IN ABILITY TO SUPPORT EDUCATION—LANE COUNTY—1930-1931.

	Low	*High*	*Comparison*
District Tax Levy, Mills	.3	28.1	1 to 93
District Tax per Pupil Enrolled	$ 1.36	$ 125.08	1 to 91
District Tax per Teacher	17.68	7,838.32	1 to 443
Assessed Valuation per Pupil	794.28	108,941.50	1 to 137
Assessed Valuation per Teacher	3,930.00	1,089,415.00	1 to 183
Taxes on Property Valued at $5,000	1.50	140.50	1 to 93

149 Elementary Districts. 19 Districts levy no district tax for schools.

Source of Data: The Oregon County School Law. A Pamphlet of Information issued by C. A. Howard, Superintendent of Public Instruction, July, 1933, Page 37.

plied with such equipment, but the system prevents the transfer of such equipment to undersupplied districts. (6) It has resulted in many small and unequipped playgrounds. Play has a definite socializing influence which cannot be overlooked in modern society. To be most effective it must be directed and supervised, and proper equipment to make this direction and supervision most effective should be provided. It need not be elaborate or expensive but it should always be available. (7) There is no provision for teaching the special subjects. These special subjects have been found to have very definite values in preparing boys and girls for effective citizenship. Such subjects require a certain amount of specialization which the teacher in the small school does not have. This and the fact that each class must receive an extremely small time allotment prevent the effective teaching of such special subjects in any but the larger consolidated schools. (8) It is very likely to result in poor management and little or no supervision. The rural schools are very definitely in need of capable and close supervision because in the present setup they are very largely the training schools for the beginning teacher. The graduate of a normal may enter the profession with all the potentialities of a very capable teacher, but in attempting to meet the problems which she faces in her first rural school she may develop methods of teaching which will seriously handicap her professional progress. (9) Figures on school attendance always show that with the district system in rural sections the use of school plants is far below maximum capacity. (10) Since in many rural communities there is a conscious or subconscious knowledge that the local school is not at a high standard, community spirit and pride are seldom developed. Many laymen cannot evaluate or improve their local school situation since they are unfamiliar with modern school systems. This results in either an attitude of indifference or in destructive rather than constructive criticism. (11) School elections in small local communities are frequently the occasion for the development of local jealousies which operate to hinder the effective work of the teacher and impede the progress of the school. (12) There is frequently found in the local board a spirit of penuriousness which tends to increase the total cost of operating the school through wrong methods of purchasing. (13) Old traditions in local communities make for the ossification of ancient and inefficient policies in the conduct of the local school. This force is largely the cause for the slow adoption of the larger unit under a permissive law.

The next section of this report will be devoted to a discussion of reorganization designed to equalize support and attain better or equally efficient operation and maintainence.

SECTION V.

REMEDIAL SUGGESTIONS

Advantages of a County Unit System

The county unit would in large measure correct the disadvantages of the district system and would provide the following additional advantages: (1) It provides uniformity in the quality of education which all the children receive. (2) It makes possible the introduction of long time education policies which lead to an improvement of the results obtained without an excessive increase in the total cost. (3) It makes possible a definite salary schedule which results in longer tenure and more stability for efficient teachers. (4) It makes possible the introduction of an efficient health service. Absence because of sickness is much higher among the rural children than among those of the urban sections where there is closer supervision of the health of the pupil.

In 1930, 26 states were still using the district system while 22 states had progressed toward some form of larger unit. The most frequently advocated form of enlarged unit is the county, which had in 1930 been adopted for purposes of school administration in eleven states and has proven generally successful both from the standpoint of educational results and as a means of economy in operation. Four counties of Oregon are now organized on this plan. Their experience shows superior achievement at a substantial saving in per pupil cost. Utah has been completely organized on the plan for twenty years and its schools are rated high in all educational items. In 1930 Utah spent $71.83 per pupil in average daily attendance compared with $103.31 in Oregon. This lower cost in Utah results from: (1) a decreased payroll, (2) the operation of a smaller number of plants, and (3) ability to purchase to better advantage.

The County Unit In Oregon

In rural sections the county unit has permitted the employment of fewer teachers through increasing the average number of pupils per teacher. In 1930 Klamath County, Oregon, organized on the county unit system, enrolled 2,812 children and employed 96 teachers, an average of 29 pupils per teacher. During the same school year Umatilla County, still under the district system, enrolled 2,918 children and employed 143 teachers, an average of 20.4 pupils per teacher.

Since the richest county in the state of Oregon has approximately eight times the wealth of the poorest, the adoption of the county unit would not bring about equality in ability to support education. However, there would be far less inequality than now exists under the district system. Crook County adopted the county unit in 1921, replacing 47 local units which had made district levies for school supports ranging from no levy to 24.6 mills. Since then, the county levy for schools has dropped from 7.3 mills to 4.8 mills in 1930. Klamath County adopted the unit in 1922 and Lincoln County in 1923. The former replaced 42 and the latter 73 district units and the county levy dropped from 4.2 to 3.4 in Klamath County and 11.4 to 7.3 in Lincoln County.

For 27 out of the 36 counties in the state, the adoption of the county unit would mean an average decrease in the tax levy for the support of schools of 2 mills and a maximum decrease in some cases of as much as 10 mills. In the other nine counties, the average levy for schools would remain virtually unchanged, since those counties already enjoy an average levy less than that of the state as a whole. The effect that the adoption

of the county unit would have on individual school districts would be even more striking, since some districts now find it necessary to levy a tax of over 30 mills, and in one case 42.6 mills. In the latter case, the tax bill for the property-owner in that district would drop approximately 35.5 mills if the county unit system were adopted. Hood River County has operated on this plan since September, 1934.

Consolidation

Consolidation has long been recognized as a necessary means of raising the standard of the small rural schools. Battles have been waged to bring it about in all the states for the past several decades, but the forces of local autonomy die hard. However, the process seems to be progressing at an accelerating pace as the necessity for making such consolidation has become more generally recognized, and the conditions making it more easily possible have improved. In view of the situation in Oregon this committee feels that the smallest unit for consolidation which should be considered is the county. Since a law permitting such consolidation is already in force, we feel that all the influence which public-spirited citizens possess should be brought to bear in an effort to make its adoption mandatory.

Transportation

With the improvement of the highways and the development of the motor bus there has been a steady increase in the number of pupils transported to the larger unit schools. A number of states have made careful surveys of transportation conditions and have set up standards and rules to govern such operations. The New Jersey survey determined comparable job-units of transportation based on: (1) the yearly cost, (2) the loaded miles one way, and (3) the maximum pupil load. They found wide variations in practice due to the absence of guiding standards, the difference in the ability of the local district to pay and the ignorance of local contractors as to the reasonable cost of transportation. A table of standard costs was worked out on the basis of job-units and a percentage variation was made for the varying quality of the route. They recommended that the person or board responsible for making transportation arrangements should be far enough away from the locality to avoid unnecessary pressure for special consideration to certain individuals. A county body working with the state department of education was considered feasible. They found that the cost of transportation was only 2% of the total cost of education and that this low transportation cost encouraged the formation of larger high school districts. They recommended a state safety code for the operation of school busses and the assumption by the state of three-fourths of the cost of the bus and of its operation as a means of encouraging the elimination of the small school. Florida has likewise given this question considerable attention and has arrived at similar conclusions. The National Survey of School Finance also recommends the development of unit cost figures in terms of the service rendered. With these available the state department of education could cooperate with local boards to reveal unduly high or low costs and aid in adjustments. The use of transportation has been increasing in Oregon.

Better Supervision

The county unit law, if made mandatory, will provide for the appointment of the county superintendent of schools by the county board. His powers and duties will be enlarged beyond those of the present elected official and he will in fact become the professional leader of county consolidated schools. The board may go anywhere and pay the necessary salary to secure a person of professional standing and ability. Such a person, if given proper freedom within his field, should develop a properly graded and supervised school system markedly superior to the one which it replaces. This has been the history in all states where the larger unit has been adopted and such superintendnets secured and properly supported by the unit board.

Fewer High Schools

The adoption of the larger unit has stopped the formation of small high schools which are both inefficient and expensive. Most of the counties of Oregon could very well care for all their high school pupils in one centrally located school building with a material decrease in total cost to the taxpayers. Such a school could supply suitable equipment to care for the specialized subjects of the high school curriculum without the necessity of duplication now found in the many little schools. The increased number of pupils would permit teachers to remain in their specialized fields rather than to spread their efforts into fields for which frequently they have had no preparation.

Lower Costs

Data in other sections of this report show the substantially lower cost of education brought about by adoption of the larger unit of schoo l administration.

Larger Units and Teaching Results

Wherever the larger unit has been adopted there has been a marked improvement in teaching results. This improvement is inherent in the system and comes from a number of opportunities made possible for the improvement of the professional status of the teacher. The important factors entering into the professional status of the teacher are: training, maturity, experience, tenure of position, and salary. On all of these items rural teachers of Oregon suffer by comparison with urban teachers. A very large percent of the inexperienced, immature and underprepared teachers are found in the rural schools which soon lose the better prepared teachers because of low salaries paid and because of the comparatively short period of tenure permitted. This committee is convinced that satisfactory improvement in this condition cannot be made until a larger unit of administration is adopted. The county unit has always produced better graded consolidated schools, better teaching standards and increased periods of tenure for the qualified teacher. In the county unit system professional superintendents have placed teachers in accordance with needs, and small rural schools have thereby secured far better teachers than under the old district system. If the county unit were adopted a satisfactory salary schedule, provisions for long time contracts and for satisfactory retirement of superannuated teachers could all be worked out.

School Insurance

The cost of school insurance is frequently mentioned as one of the points at which economies might be effected in operations. Two methods of caring for this problem are open to a state: it may use commercial insurance or set up a fund which will enable it to replace losses. Both methods have ardent advocates. In 1905 the cost of public school insurance in Oregon was $17,058.44, but this figure has increased over 800% to date. While the figure is not a large one in comparison with the total cost of education yet it is of sufficient size to add materially to the overhead cost of operating the school plant.

J. C. Werner in an article in the School Board Journal for July, 1934, reviews the history of insurance in a number of states which have undertaken to carry their own insurance. South Carolina created its own fund in 1900 and provided for free insurance on all property on which five annual premiums had been paid when the surplus amounted to one million dollars. The rates charged the districts were the commercial rates for the same risks. Since 1926 the surplus has permitted 60% of the property to be carried free and during the year ending September 30, 1931, exactly 70.1% of the total insurance in effect was carried free. Wisconsin established a similar fund in 1903. Sixty percent of the commercial rates were collected. During its operation the fund has saved the state 90% of the cost of insurance under the commercial form. Ten other states have similar funds and report savings ranging from 50.2% to 90% of the cost of using commercial insurance. Those states using commercial insurance had losses ranging from 3.5% to 77% of the premiums paid.

The efficient conduct of an insurance program when commercial insurance is used demands; (1) an accurate appraisal of all school property at reasonably frequent intervals, (2) the installation of automatic sprinkling systems or changes in construction methods or materials which will justify lower rates, (3) the writing of policies for a term of five years using the co-insurance clause for 80% of the insurable value of the property, (4) the dating of policies in such a way that the same amount of insurance expires each year, (5) the keeping of an adequate insurance record, and (6) the periodic inspection of all school buildings.

Regulation of School Building

While the quality of education offered in a school is more important than the quality of the school building, the subject of location and erection of school buildings should receive careful attention for the following reasons: (1) the physical plant may either detract from or contribute to the success of the educational program; (2) the plant is directly related to the safety and health of the school children through provisions for fire-escapes, toilets, positions and size of windows and various other features of construction; (3) greater economy may be obtained if expert consideration is given to such features as the time chosen for construction, type of building, materials, insurance rates, and heating efficiency; (4) intangible though aesthetic qualities may be, they are vitally important in the effect they have upon the community and the school child.

To control the planning and erection of school buildings, resort is often had to building codes. Two types of such codes exist so far as school buildings are concerned. One provides for regulation through statutes or ordinances, the other regulation through rules issued by a state school building director in the Department of Education.

In Oregon there is no state school building code of either type, and but few scattered provisions in the general code concerning school construction. Among these isolated provisions are the following:

(a) Section 35-411: "The county superintendent shall advise and consult with the board of directors relative to the construction, warming, ventilation, and arrangement of school houses; the improving and adorning of school grounds; . . . the conditions of school houses, sites, and outbuildings and appendages of the district generally. It shall be illegal for any school district of the third class to erect a school building until the plans for the same have been approved by the county superintendent of the county in which the district may be situated."

(b) Section 35-1111, requiring clean toilets.

(c) Section 59-2101, requiring doors of public buildings, including schools, to swing outward.

Cities, and sometimes even smaller towns, have local building codes (type 1) applicable not only to school buildings but to other types of buildings. Reliance on these as a means of controlling school construction fails because (a) such codes do not exist in rural communities; in small cities and towns they are wholly inadequate; (c) even good local codes control only those features relating to health and safety and leave largely untouched (since police power will not reach) the factors of economy, suitability to educational functions, and aesthetic qualities. Even where local codes have special school building provisions, these are not successful because in most local communities officials who draft and enforce the code do not understand well the nature of the educational program and its demands upon appropriate plant characteristics.

The Building Code of the City of Portland is probably more detailed in its school building requirements than is the building code of any other Oregon city. Yet even in Portland, the code controls merely such safety features as fireproof construction of two story schools, number and width of stairways and halls, push-bar devices on doors, etc., with some special provisions as to artificial ventilation, cubical content of rooms, and areas of windows. There is no control of economy factors, suitability to educational functions, or aesthetic qualities.

The Uniform Building Code, 1930 edition, of the Pacific Coast Building Officials' Conference has been adopted in Oregon by the cities of Salem, Eugene, Medford, Klamath Falls, Cottage Grove, and Marshfield. This uniform code puts school buildings in group C, along with auditoriums, churches, lodges, clubs, museums, dance halls, armories, gymnasiums, libraries, passenger stations, and administration buildings of city, county, or state. The same provisions, with one or two special ones for construction of stairs and corridors in school buildings, apply to all the types of buildings in the group. Safety provisions for schools are not so detailed as in the Portland Building Code, and again no con-

trols are provided for economy, educational suitability, and aesthetic qualities.

Where both local and state authorities have responsibilities in connection with the school building code, one of two evils results: either there is a division of authority among the various departments of the state and community governments, such as labor, sanitation, health and education, presenting a needlessly complicated and cumbersome system; or there is a concurrent jurisdiction, requiring approval of the same features and supervision by several different departments, leading to delays, added costs, and, if some departments approve and others disapprove a plan, to confusion.

State Board of Education

Efficiency and economy will be increased by the organization of a non-partisan state board of elementary and secondary education appointed by the governor. The board should consist of at least seven members each of whom could be considered as representative of certain groups and interests in the state; such as the professions, industry, the merchant, the laboring class, womens' organizations, agriculture, and higher education. The duties of such a board would be: (1) to select a State Superintendent and staff; (2) to disburse state educational funds; (3) to choose textbooks; (4) to supervise and regulate the budgets of school districts or of county units; (5) to supervise and regulate school building construction; (6) to accredit institutions for the preparation of teachers; (7) to certify teachers; (8) to supervise and/or administer the operation of provisions for the improvement of teacher standards such as state wide tenure and retirement features; (9) to administer any other educational laws which apply to the state as a whole.

This board should be predominately a lay body representing the state at large and should have no ex-officio members for, as the Indiana Survey Report declares, such boards "do not command public confidence." The tendency in other states is toward boards of seven members, smaller boards being exposed to the danger of dominance by one man—either within or without the board—while larger boards do not secure the most expeditious action. The term of office should overlap and should be for five years as a means of preventing political interference and providing for a continuity of policy. Members should receive no salary or remuneration other that travelling expenses and a small per diem for a fixed maximum number of days. Large salaries have been found to tempt board members to undertake work which should be delegated to its paid professional executive and small salaries prove attractive for petty politicians and office seekers. This board should appoint the chief state school officer and should be free to select the best possible man, wherever found, and to pay sufficient salary to attract and hold such a man. A study made by the Research Department of the N. E. A. of the organization of state departments of education shows that of the 17 possible types, overwhelming approval has been given to the type of board just suggested.

A Cadet Teaching System

If such a board be established with adequate administrative powers and if a schedule of salaries be adopted of a commensurate order, a system of cadet teaching combined with higher educational qualifications for teachers might be established along the following lines.

1. All teachers should have one year of cadet teaching between their last and their next to the last years of advanced schooling, during which time they would be under the scholastic supervision and direction of the department or school of education from which they are seeking credit. This provision should not be construed to conflict with the administrative control of county or city superintendents.

2. High school teachers should have five years of advanced schooling and elementary teachers four years at institutions approved by the state board of education.

3. Graduates who, after completing the requirements stated above, could satisfactorily complete three years of teaching would be given permanent (life) certificates by the state board of education, provided that at some time after their first year of advanced schooling they take the Columbia University Test of General Intelligence or some comparable test selected by the state board of education and fall in the upper half of the standard distribution.

4. All teachers not now holding life certificates who have not had five years advanced schooling in case of high school teachers and four years in case of elementary teachers should, from the passage of such a law, be considered cadet teachers.

5. Cadet teachers should not make contracts to teach for periods to exceed one year, but must be advanced in the salary schedule according to years of experience.

6. Cadet teachers could not teach more than two school years before taking their final year of advanced schooling, unless the state board of education because of scarcity of teachers would issue a special permit valid only so long as such proved scarcity exists.

7. In order that highly qualified young people of limited means may be enabled to enter the teaching profession, all those taking the test mentioned in paragraph 3 whose scores place them in the upper one-fourth of the standard distribution may apply for a scholarship entitling them to free board and room, and to exemption from all dues and fees of the state institution of higher education which they may be attending. This scholarship would be granted on evidence of good character and of financial need. Each year such scholarship students would give a note to the state board of education covering the value of the scholarship for that year. A receipt for one-fifth of the total obligation would be given for each year that he teaches in Oregon until the obligation evidenced by these notes shall have been cancelled. The above scholarship student shall be freed of obligation if he does not receive a request to teach or if he repays to the state the amount of the scholarship received.

No amount of raising qualifications of teachers nor skill in their selection will induce large numbers of the most desirable of our youth to enter the teaching profession. Nor with the present organization of society will it be possible to offer salaries high enough to accomplish this result. Only one other inducement is possible. Good conditions of work including security of income and tenure of office may influence a sufficient number of highly qualified young people to

choose teaching as a profession in a society which idealizes financial success.

Salary Schedules Based On Index Figures

In the past privation has invariably occurred among teachers whenever the cost of living either rose or fell. As previously stated teachers' salaries always lag behind any rise in the cost of living, and when a depression occurs their wages are disproportionately cut at about the time when living costs have fallen to their salary level. On this account some educational authorities argue that the use of an index figure in calculating teachers' salaries would, if combined with long term contracts and provisions for pensions, give that security and expectation of simple justice needed if an efficient, well staffed system of education is to be established. Such a plan might contain the following features:

1. An index figure is to be used in the calculation of total salary of teachers, supervisors, and administrators regardless of source of funds.
2. Basic year for both the salary schedule and the calculation of index figure is to be 1914.
3. Index figure is to be computed by Federal agency in Portland.
4. Index figure is to be computed from data of August in order to be available for budget making in the fall.
5. Index figure and salary schedule are to be administered by State board of education.
6. Components of index figure are to be based on research in budgets of professional people.
7. Salaries are not to be raised or lowered except in ten dollar units per year.
8. A study should be made to determine the necessity for subdividing state for purposes of establishing index figure; however, it is not likely that any subdivision will be necessary or advisable.

Adequate and Comparable Accounts

To be effective modern school administration must be based so far as possible on objective facts. Guesswork should be reduced to a minimum and decisions should be based upon the best statistical data obtainable. A uniform statewide system of cost accounting based upon well developed unit costs as used by private industry is a definite need in securing this statistical material. It provides for accurate comparison between schools and communities, detects waste or misuse of school funds and provides the foundation for a sound and reliable budget. Our state department of education has made progress in developing a set of forms which will provide this information, but their use is frequently made ineffective in many local districts, especially in rural sections, because of the inexperience or inability of the local board to deal with accounting problems. Further extension is largely blocked until adoption of a larger unit makes possible the employment of an experienced and capable clerk to apply the system in locating waste, excessive expenditure or loss of funds for other reasons. This committee feels that further study should be made in this field of school administration.

The Minimum and Defensible Program

The National Survey of School Finance in its report on state support for public education established a *minimum* and a defensible program for each state in the Union. This report defined the *minimum* program as the total current expenditure per classroom unit made by the district as the lowest ten percentile level and found this figure for Oregon to be $1,203. The *defensible* program is defined as the cost of the program in total current expenditures per classroom unit which the people living in the district of average wealth in the state have found themselves able and willing to provide. This program for Oregon is found to be $1,942. Both these programs were determined from 1930-31 expenditures. The minimum program would require $41.48 and the defensible program $66.97 per weighted elementary pupil. Equalization is defined as the process of distributing the burden of supporting the minimum program equally among the people in all localities according to tax paying ability. Other than the receipts from the permanent school funds Oregon provides nothing for equalization. The method of distributing these receipts defeats equalization. The two mill elementary tax law was passed with the aim of equalization but has served rather to increase the differences in ability to support education.

It was estimated that the new expenditure necessary to bring the districts on the low level up to the minimum program in Oregon in 1930 was $142,109. To bring them up to the defensible program required $1,216,056.

There are two general schemes of school support equalization in use. The small fund plan provides that the district levy a local tax provided by law and that the state supplement the yield of this tax by the amount necessary to bring the district up to the minimum program. This plan requires the least amount of contribution by the state since the wealth in 50% or more of the districts, depending upon the program determined upon, will be sufficient to raise the total amount required and hence these districts will require no aid. The large fund plan provides for the complete support by the state of the minimum program and is a flat grant to the district by the state. New York has been very successful in the use of the small fund plan while Delaware and North Carolina have adopted the large fund plan. The operation of a school support equalization plan in a state having its schools organized on the county unit system is carried out on a county wide basis rather than the district basis. Utah has adopted the principle of equalization and distributes funds to the county districts on the basis of the weighted classroom unit, the weightings taking into consideration the grades and the element of transportation.

A commission appointed by Governor Meier wrote a bill providing for a county equalization fund in each county to be made up of monies received from the permanent school fund, the elementary school fund, other state funds which may be provided and a tax levied on the county by an equalization board was set at five mills on the estimated true assessed valuation of the county. A state equalization fund of $1,500,000 raised from sources other than a general property tax was provided. This fund was to be apportioned by the State Superintendent in such manner as to provide the guaranteed program in all districts in case the county equalization fund was insufficient. The remainder of this fund was to be distributed to the counties on the

basis of the ratio of county levy to the total of such levies within the state.

The State Grange also sponsored a bill for purposes of school equalization. The bill proposed a county school equalization district made up of all elementary school districts except those of the first class. The county equalization fund was to be made up of revenues from the same source and handled in the same way as was provided in the commission bill. The minimum equalization level was fixed at $800 per elementary classroom unit with a minimum of 27 pupils. The county equalization board might exceed this minimum of $800 at their own discretion. No provision was made for the high school, and there was no limitation set upon the tax which might be levied by the county equalization board. This bill did not provide for state participation in support of the minimum program nor for any tax relief for real property. This was contrary to the tendency of the times since it did not place any responsibility upon the state which has available sources of revenue other than the property tax. The equalization level was a good feature, but the amount provided was too low to affect any but the small rural schools. Because of these features this committee, while endorsing the grange bill as providing for improvement in conditions of rural schools, favored the commission bill since it set up the small fund plan in Oregon.

Occupancy of Marginal Lands

Much of the present cost of operating Oregon schools is brought about by the necessity of maintaining schools with low enrollment in remote sections. At the present time Oregon is operating 276 elementary schools with enrollment below 10, and 511 with enrollment between 10 and 19. While this committee subscribes to the idea that the state should provide equal educational opportunities to all of its children so far as possible, yet we do not feel that society should be obligated to provide at excessive expense education for children whose parents insist on living in remote districts or in occupying submarginal lands. The adoption of the county unit, the use of equalization and transportation and school consolidation will do much to remedy this situation.

SECTION VI.
CONCLUSIONS

In the light of its study of conditions in the Oregon school system, your committee is convinced that the schools are suffering chiefly from an antiquated and outgrown *form of organization* which is relatively inefficient and uneconomical; that in its present form it cannot be patched up to improve conditions to any great extent; that a major, yet comparatively simple, operation in the field of reorganization is necessary and that in this reorganization a number of proven elements new to the state will need to be made a part of the program of education. The *method of supporting education* fails to provide equality throughout the present system; therefore, it should be revamped at the same time that the system is reorganized. Since the two are largely complementary, it will be impossible to consider one without the other.

SECTION VII.
RECOMMENDATIONS

Your committee recommends:

A State Program

1. That a state defensible program, applicable to both the elementary and secondary schools, be determined and adopted;
2. That local districts be permitted to supplement this defensible program by local taxes;

Financing the State Program

1. That a state equalization fund be established to support this program;
2. That this equalization fund be drawn from the state general fund;
3. That the state, in order to provide this fund, devise a balanced system of taxation to spread the tax load equitably;
4. That funds for education be earmarked as a matter of expediency if the earmarking of funds for other purposes makes more desirable methods of stabilizing educational support impractical;
5. That the cost of transportation be included as a part of the state program of equalization;

Larger Administrative Units

1. That there be state-wide adoption of the county unit system;
2. That local schools of less than 20 pupils in average daily attendance be consolidated into larger units unless special features of topography prevent;
3. That the state, contingent upon the adoption of the larger unit, raise the standard of teacher preparation to a four year teacher's college with a system of cadet teaching and provide scholarships to aid exceptional candidates for the profession;
4. That county or local boards be permitted to give contracts for longer than one year;
5. That a salary schedule, possibly based on an index figure of the cost of living of professional people in Oregon, be adopted and maintained at a level commensurate with salaries of equally prepared people in other professions;
6. That the curricula of both the elementary and high schools be critically examined and revised to bring them into line with modern needs;

The Administrative Organization

1. That a state Board of Education be established and that one of its duties be the appointment of the State Superintendant of Public Instruction;
2. That the district be required to use the pay-as-you-go method in financing capital outlay (as a means of saving interest charges) below a millage requirement to be determined by the state Board of Education, and that the school law be amended to permit school districts to accumulate such building funds at the discretion of the State Board over a period not to exceed five years;
3. That the state Department of Education

further build up or extend its system of comparable unit and cost accounting to provide against unwise expenditures or loss of funds;

4. That the county treasurer be made the custodian of all district funds as a means of further safeguarding school funds;

5. That the state Department of Education investigate the feasibility of a state insurance program;

Miscellaneous Recommendations

1. That a state building code be enacted providing for a determination of building needs, the type and materials of construction, and building utilization;

2. That a school building section be established in the state Department of Education to administer the operation of this school building code;

3. That the state Department of Education make a study of legislative mandates and their effects on educational expenditures;

4. That a more widespread use of transportation be adopted as a part of the school program, and that a commission working out of the state Department of Education, or in connection therewith, be appointed with power to make an exhaustive study of the problem in each county of the state and make recommendations for the efficient and safe operation of transportation therein;

5. That eventually the position of attendance officer be made a state office, and that his territory be enlarged to include two or more contiguous counties and his duties enlarged to include the taking of a continuous school census in the territory under his supervision.

Respectfully submitted,

HORACE J. ANDREWS,
CLARENCE L. FARIS,
E. L. HOSKIN,
ROYCE MCCANDLISS,
FRED A. TICE,
RALPH C. HOEBER,
HORTON E. WEBB, *Chairman.*

Approved by Ralph C. Hoeber, Chairman, Section on Education and Recreation.

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