

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
BUREAU OF EDUCATION

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THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM
OF SOUTH DAKOTA

REPORT OF A SURVEY MADE UNDER THE DIRECTION
OF THE UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION



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LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, October 21, 1918.

SIR: I am submitting herewith for publication as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education the manuscript of the report of a survey of the educational system of the State of South Dakota, made under my direction at the request of the South Dakota Educational Survey Commission created by the legislature of the State, as set forth in the body of this report. The survey includes the State and local educational organization and administration in South Dakota; the elementary and secondary schools of the State and the preparation of teachers for these schools; and the higher educational institutions of the State, including the University of South Dakota, the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, the State School of Mines, the four State normal schools, and such accredited private colleges and schools for special classes as it was found necessary to include to make this a comprehensive study of the entire educational system of the State.

The survey was made by Dr. H. W. Foght, specialist in rural school practice, who had charge of the field work and the preparation of the manuscript; Dr. Samuel P. Capen, specialist in higher education; Mrs. Henrietta W. Calvin, specialist in home economics; Dr. Chester D. Jarvis, specialist in agricultural education; Miss Edith A. Lathrop, assistant in rural education; Dr. H. B. Wilson, superintendent of schools, Topeka, Kans.; Dr. William F. Russell, dean of the school of education, University of Iowa; and Dr. Alexander J. Inglis, professor of secondary education, Harvard University. The report and conclusions of the committee were approved by me and were transmitted to the South Dakota Educational Survey Commission June 16, 1918.

Accompanying this report is a brief report by the South Dakota Survey Commission to the Governor of the State, approving and accepting in full the conclusions of the survey committee.

Respectfully submitted,

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

REPORT AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE SOUTH DAKOTA EDUCATIONAL SURVEY COMMISSION.

In these days when efficiency is demanded of every person and organization, the more progressive States have begun to ascertain whether all is being done to make their schools as effective and efficient as possible, as the best means of meeting the crisis of reconstruction that is certain to come to the average American State at the close of the world war.

The Legislature of South Dakota, being desirous of keeping the State in the vanguard educationally and believing that the strength and weakness of the present educational system can best be disclosed by careful survey of the educational departments and institutions of the State, in its fifteenth legislative session, 1917, passed the following act:

(S. p. 130) Chapter 226, 1917 Session Laws.

AN ACT Providing for a State educational survey and appropriating money therefor.

Be it enacted by the Legislature of the State of South Dakota:

SECTION 1. The governor shall appoint a commission of three members, all of whom shall serve without compensation; to make a survey of the public educational system of South Dakota, including all schools and educational institutions supported by public funds, to determine the efficiency of the same, and to report his findings with recommendations for increased efficiency and economy to the governor on or before July 1, 1918.

SECTION 2. The said commission shall employ an expert or experts nominated by and to work under the direction of the United States Bureau of Education, who shall not be residents of the State of South Dakota, to make such survey, and shall supply such assistants and equipment as shall be necessary. The said commission shall, after consulting with the United States Bureau of Education, fix the compensation of such expert or experts and assistants.

SECTION 3. The said commission and its employees shall have free access to all public records. All public school and educational institutions, teachers, instructors, faculties, officers, and employees shall furnish all information and assistance in their power to and in making such survey. The members of said commission, experts or assistants, shall have the production of papers and records and are hereby empowered to administer oaths. In case any person summoned by any member of such commission, experts, or assistants shall fail or refuse to obey such process or to testify before such commission, experts, or assistants, the said commission, experts, or assistants may apply to the circuit courts of this State to compel obedience and testimony, and the circuit courts are hereby empowered to enforce obedience to such process.

SECTION 4. The said commission shall, in addition to other work specified by this act, direct special attention to the matter of the number of available teachers

In the State, their qualifications and to the feasibility and advisability of consolidating any of the existing State educational institutions or departments thereof.

SECTION 5. There is hereby appropriated out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated the sum of \$6,500, or so much thereof as may be necessary, for the purpose of defraying the cost of such survey as is hereinbefore provided, including the personal traveling expenses of members of said commission in connection therewith, which money shall be paid upon warrants of the State auditor issued upon vouchers duly approved by the State superintendent of public instruction: *Provided*, That in no case shall the total expense of such survey exceed the sum of \$6,500.

SECTION 6. An emergency is hereby declared to exist, and this act shall be in force and effect from and after its passage and approval.

In accordance with this law, Gov. Norbeck on September 6, 1917, appointed as members of the State educational commission Mr. A. M. Anderson, of Sturgis; Mr. C. E. Swanson, of Sisseton; and Miss Ruth E. Sabin, of Lake Andes. The first meeting of the survey commission was held at Pierre, October 6, 1917, at which time plans for the survey, outlined by Dr. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, were discussed and adopted. A second meeting was held at Sioux Falls, November 27, 1917. In this meeting the Commissioner of Education was represented by Dr. Harold W. Foght, specialist in rural school practice in the Bureau of Education, who further outlined the plans of procedure and presented to the commission the list of educational experts appointed by the Commissioner of Education for the survey. The survey committee, comprising five Bureau of Education experts and three additional experts from different States and educational institutions, were formally accepted by the survey commission. They were:

Dr. Harold W. Foght, specialist in rural school practice, in charge of the survey.

Dr. Samuel P. Capen, specialist in higher education.

Mrs. Henrietta W. Calvin, specialist in home economics.

Dr. Chester D. Jarvis, specialist in agricultural education.

Miss Edith A. Lathrop, assistant in rural education.

Assisted by the following educational experts:

Dr. H. B. Wilson, superintendent of schools, Topeka, Kans.

Dr. William F. Russell, dean of the school of education, University of Iowa.

Dr. Alexander J. Inglis, professor of secondary education, Harvard University.

A final conference was held at Pierre from June 16 to 18. In addition to the members of the State commission there were present the presidents of the State's higher educational institutions and the presidents of the accredited denominational colleges, the State superintendent of public instruction, the State historian, and others professionally interested in the conference. The final report of the Commissioner of Education was made at this meeting by Dr. Harold W. Foght, of the Bureau of Education.

After thorough discussion and careful consideration the survey commission unanimously accepted all but one of the recommendations made by the survey experts. This one exception was the section referring to the disposal of the school of mines. Upon this section (substitute recommendation 1, chapter 20) Mr. Swanson and Miss Sabin voted to accept the recommendation made by the survey experts, and Mr. Anderson voted no.

The State survey commission urge upon the governor and the sixteenth legislative assembly that the administrative and legislative plans and recommendations laid down in the body of this report be enacted into law at the earliest opportunity or shaped into administrative policy by the State board of regents and other boards and the State department of public instruction.

To the end, finally, that the legislative recommendations may be enacted into law, the commission recommends that the following amendments to the constitution be adopted at the present session:

1. Amend section 3 of article 14 of the constitution to enlarge the powers and duties of the State board of regents of education.
2. Constitutional amendment providing that the legislature may determine the method of selecting the State superintendent of public instruction and county superintendents of schools, and fixing their qualifications, compensation, tenure of office, and powers and duties, anything in the constitution to the contrary notwithstanding.
3. Amendment to section 3 of article 8 of the constitution to provide that the interest and income of the school fund shall be apportioned to the school districts on the basis of aggregate daily attendance of pupils and the number of teachers employed.
4. Amend sections 1, 2, and 3 of article 14 of the constitution to relieve the State board of charities and corrections of the control of the State School for the Blind, the State School for the Deaf and the State Training School, and to place these institutions under the control of the State board of regents of education, anything in the constitution to the contrary notwithstanding.

The commission desires to express its appreciation of the generous and whole-hearted help given the work by the State superintendent of public instruction, the State historian, the heads of educational institutions, the county superintendents and teachers throughout the State; and to Dr. P. P. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, for the painstaking and thoroughgoing survey of education made under his direction, and particularly to Dr. Harold W. Focht, who had charge of the field work and the general preparation of the report, for his untiring efforts and courtesy.

Respectfully submitted.

RUTH E. SABIN,
C. E. SWANSON,
A. M. ANDERSON.

INTRODUCTORY.

Steps leading to the survey.—The present educational survey of South Dakota is the direct result of a demand by the people of the State for a school system to meet in every way the modern requirements of organized, efficient industrial life, as it is lived in the great agricultural Commonwealths of the United States. There has been a deep-seated public feeling that the schools of the State—especially the rural schools—have not kept pace with the economic development of this great agricultural State. The people of South Dakota seem determined that the young State shall not allow itself to become afflicted with the extreme conservatism and inertness that have sometimes shown themselves in the older sections of the country.

This desire has found expression in the present survey of the educational system of the State. The State Teacher Association of South Dakota has repeatedly gone on record in favor of educational improvement. In 1915 the association appointed a committee of educators to create sentiment in favor of a school survey. The work thus begun culminated in the survey act of 1917, which is given in full in the preceding report of the State survey commission. The proposed survey was strongly indorsed by the Hon. Frank M. Byrne, retiring governor, and the Hon. Peter Norbeck, present governor of the State. It had also the hearty indorsement of the State superintendent of public instruction, superintendents and teachers of the State, and of farmers' organizations, business men's clubs, and women's clubs throughout the State.

The act contains the following provisions:

1. The actual work of the survey shall be done by or under the direction of the United States Bureau of Education.
2. The State commission and the survey experts shall have free access to all public records.
3. The State commission and survey experts shall have the assistance of all public schools and other educational institutions, teachers, officers, and employees.

It was further agreed by the State commission and the Commissioner of Education that the survey report should be published as a bulletin by the Bureau of Education.

Organization of the field work.—Immediately after its organization at Pierre, October 6, 1917, the State survey commission called upon the Bureau of Education to furnish the expert assistance agreed upon and to take charge of the survey. The Commissioner of Edu-

education immediately took steps to organize the necessary staff, which began its preliminary study in December, 1917, by placing in the hands of supervising officers, public-school teachers, and faculties of the higher educational institutions questionnaires and other outlines to procure such data as could not be procured from State records or in other ways. The actual field work began early in January and continued till late in March.

Dr. H. W. Foght had general charge of the field work and preparation of the manuscript. He spent 70 days on work in the field, studying particularly State and local school organization, administration, and supervision; school statistics; school support; preparation of public-school teachers; and school consolidation and rural high schools. He prepared the following chapters of the report: I, to VIII, inclusive; XI, XVII to XIX, inclusive; and XXI.

Drs. Samuel P. Capen, Alexander J. Inglis, Chester D. Jarvis, and Mrs. Henrietta W. Calvin made a searching study of all the higher educational institutions in the State, which it is hoped may be published by the bureau as a separate bulletin. A condensed form of this study appears as Chapter XX in this report.

Mrs. Henrietta W. Calvin studied home economics as a phase of the entire educational system and prepared Chapter XIII and portions of other chapters. She devoted 45 days to field study.

Miss Edith A. Lathrop spent 70 days in the State devoting the time to survey of rural and village schools. She prepared Chapters X; XII, and XIV.

Dr. H. B. Wilson gave his time to town and city schools, which study is embodied in Chapter XV.

Dr. William F. Russell surveyed the high schools of the State and made a study of financial maintenance of the normal schools. In this study he had the assistance of several members of the faculty of the school of education, University of Iowa. The high-school study forms Chapter XVI of the report.

Dr. Walton C. John, specialist in charge of land-grant statistics in the Bureau of Education, prepared Chapter IX, on school support, in cooperation with Dr. Foght; he also prepared several sections of the report on higher education.

Acknowledgment.—The bureau survey committee wishes to acknowledge its obligation to the members of the State survey commission for their many courtesies and hearty cooperation throughout the study; to the State department of public instruction for valuable help in procuring and compiling educational statistics; to the State historian for valuable documentary information; and to the heads of the State's higher educational institutions and the private colleges and the county and city superintendents and the teachers of the State for valuable advice and constant cooperation.

THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

Chapter I.

SOUTH DAKOTA, THE LAND AND PEOPLE.

General topography.—South Dakota is a mighty domain, measuring 380 miles from east to west and 248 miles from north to south. It has a total area of 77,615 square miles, of which 76,868 square miles are land and 747 are water surface. In size it ranks as fourteenth among the States of the Union.

Excepting the Black Hills region, the State is a great rolling plain—the eastern portion forming a part of the lower prairie-plains section, the western lying in the Great Plains. The land rises gradually from an altitude of about 1,000 feet along the eastern border to 3,500 feet in the west, culminating with an altitude of 7,242 feet (Harney Peak) in the great domelike Black Hills. The mean elevation is nearly 2,200 feet.

The Missouri River divides the State into two sections of almost equal size but greatly divergent in topographical features. The eastern half has been scoured down by the ancient ice sheet, which has left it gently rolling and traversed by two flat river valleys with somewhat higher intervening watersheds. In the northeast of this section lies the Coteau de Prairies, a ridge of low moraine hills, which form the watershed between South Dakota and Minnesota. This section is dotted with small lakes of glacial origin. Southward lies the fertile James River Valley—the remains of the ancient “Dakota Lake,” and the Great Sioux Valley. West of these fertile valleys lies the Coteau du Missouri, a hill region with a mean elevation of about 1,800 feet. This ridge forms the watershed between the Missouri and the James. The soil of the eastern section is a deep alluvial loam overlaid with a rich vegetable mould. This half of the State is therefore particularly well adapted for diversified agriculture.

The land west of the Missouri is rugged and broken by stream erosion. The continental ice sheet left it untouched, by reason of which this part of the State has a most perfect drainage system, being gullied deep by shallow streams, giving it a highly broken

contour of plateau lands cut by steep narrow valleys, weird towering buttes, and, in the extreme southwest, the picturesque Bad Lands, or Terres Mauvaises of the early French voyageur. The latter are still in a state of soil erosion, so that much of it is devoid of vegetation and practically useless. Finally, on the western border, lie the Black Hills, a great mountain uplift 125 miles long and 60 miles wide.

The great plains west of the Missouri are best adapted for grazing purposes. The soil is composed of a variety of clays overlaid with some alluvial loam, but lacking in vegetable mould. By reason of their higher altitude, certain areas in the western half of the State have an insufficient annual rainfall to assure the farmer of good crops. Dry farming is utilized successfully, and, wherever practicable, irrigation is resorted to. The most notable project of this kind is on the Belle Fourche River in the northern spurs of the Black Hills, where 100,000 acres have been reclaimed by irrigation.

South Dakota has a continental climate with great extremes of temperature. In summer the temperature often rises above 100° Fahrenheit, and in winter occasionally falls to more than 40° below zero. But, fortunately, the dryness of the atmosphere mitigates these extremes and renders the climate, on the whole, invigorating and pleasant.

The amount of rainfall has been a great determining factor in the life and occupations of the people. The average rainfall is about 20 inches, being upward of 25 inches in the eastern third, 17 to 28 inches in center, and 12 to 17 inches in the western third, which latter is insufficient to assure crops. The middle section suffers from occasional droughts, and never produces such abundant crops as are common to the eastern third of the State. The eastern half of South Dakota is a natural agricultural region. The plains west of the Missouri are a natural grazing region which should be devoted in the main to stock raising. The Black Hills region offers a variety of occupations, such as mining, lumbering, stock raising, fruit growing, and agriculture under irrigation.

Economic and industrial conditions.—Of the entire population, 78½ per cent live in the open country and in rural villages of less than 1,000 population, and gain their livelihood directly from the land. Only 125,404 persons, or 21.5 per cent (1915), live in places of more than 1,000 population. Fully three-fourths of the people of South Dakota may, therefore, be classed as rural population, whose chief occupation is agriculture and stock raising. Gold and silver mining and lumbering are minor occupations, limited to the Black Hills. Stone quarrying is also a profitable occupation in limited areas. A variety of manufacturing industries engage a small portion of the people in the larger towns and cities. But, after all, agricul-

ture is the chief industry, about which all the other occupations revolve as subsidiary.

Table 1 contains an enumeration of persons over 10 years of age (1915) engaged in useful occupations. The chief occupations alone are included:

TABLE 1.—Occupations of population.

Agents.....	1,031	Stationary engineers.....	680
Agricultural laborers.....	1,211	Farmers.....	96,726
Bankers.....	1,277	Housewives.....	118,110
Blacksmiths.....	1,027	Common laborers.....	19,532
Bookkeepers.....	738	Machinists.....	1,023
Carpenters.....	1,811	Masons.....	745
Clergymen.....	916	Merchants.....	6,849
Contractors.....	836	Miners.....	1,010
Commercial travelers.....	319	Nurses.....	741
Dairy men.....	302	Officials.....	1,449
Dress-makers.....	887	Patrons.....	1,040
Druggists.....	109	Railway employees.....	2,589
Electricians.....	124	Salesmen.....	2,865
Teachers.....	5,913	Servants.....	1,210
Stenographers.....	978	Stockmen.....	2,418

At the top of the list numerically stands housewifery, with a total of 118,110. Next come farmers with 96,726, to which group might be properly added agricultural laborers and certain others enumerated under sundry occupations. The group designated as stockmen is limited to "ranchmen" in the larger sense. This number is small, as is also the group devoted to mining.

Agricultural development.—The total land area in acres is 49,185,520, of which 23,820,433 acres were in farms in 1915, as against 16,442,322 in farms in 1905. The total number of farms was 101,224 in 1915, and the average size per farm 235 acres, as against 52,376 farms in 1905, with the average size per farm 314 acres. Not alone is there a tendency to reduce the size per farm, but the acreage of improved farms has increased from 15,827,208 in 1910 to 23,532,770 acres in 1915. A large proportion of the farms is still operated by their owners, although this class unfortunately has increased only slightly during the last five-year period. The tenant farmer, on the other hand, is increasing rapidly, as may be ascertained from Table 2. This is an unfortunate circumstance which can not be remedied until life in the open country becomes stabilized through a new kind of educated leadership, culminating in more wholesome, complete living in agricultural communities than is now possible.

TABLE 2.—Agricultural development by years.

	1915	1910	1905
Area of State, in acres.....	49,185,520		
Acres in farms.....	23,820,433	16,442,322	16,442,322
Acres improved.....	23,532,770	15,827,208	
Number of farms.....	101,224	77,644	52,376
Average size, in acres.....	235	335	314
Operated by owners.....	59,030	57,948	30,322
Operated by tenants.....	41,235	19,231	22,050

The farmers of the State are becoming well-to-do, some of them wealthy. Many of the latter class are retiring to the larger towns and cities, where the educational facilities and social opportunities are greater than in the open country. The production of new wealth from the land is quite marked. Thus in 1908 the production in grain, hay, fruits, live stock, dairy products, wool and hides, etc., reached a total of \$185,434,000; in 1917 the value of the production from the soil amounted to \$465,350,000, or an average of \$4,498 produced by each farm during the year, a very large average as compared with other States.

The production of wealth is not uniformly distributed over the 101,224 farms. The average for the eastern half of the State is far above that of the western half. Where production of ordinary farm crops is attempted in the semi-arid western and northwestern sections, the net income is often very small. These folk must be kept in mind when discussing school education of these regions, in later chapters.

A good idea of this unequal distribution of wealth or ability to produce new wealth, acre for acre, may be ascertained by studying the accompanying map issued by the South Dakota tax commission. It gives the assessed land valuation by years.

Distribution and racial composition of the population.—According to the State census taken May 1, 1915, South Dakota has a population of 582,765, a decrease of 1,123 persons from the Federal Census of 1910. Table 3 shows a substantial growth in population since 1890, when it totaled 348,600.

TABLE 3.—Urban and Rural population, 1890-1915.

Census year.	Population.			Per cent of total population.	
	Urban.	Rural.	Total.	Urban.	Rural.
1890.....	28,555	320,045	348,600	8.2	91.8
1900.....	40,916	360,634	401,570	10.2	89.8
1910.....	76,673	507,215	583,888	13.1	86.9
1915.....	84,762	498,003	582,765	14.5	85.5

The per cent of population, urban and rural, has changed from 8.2 urban and 91.8 rural in 1890 to 14.5 urban and 85.5 rural in 1915.¹ However, on the basis of aggregate increase, urban centers have added only 56,207 during the 25-year period, while rural districts have increased 234,165.

¹ In this statement the population of cities of 2,500 and over are counted as urban.

The slight drop in population since 1910—

is due to the fact that the census of 1910 was taken when the homestead movement into the trans-Missouri region was at the crest. In a great measure the homesteaders who located at that time did not remain to till the lands but left them after securing title from the Government.¹

Under the definition of urban and rural as used by the Federal Census Office, South Dakota would have only 13 urban centers, i. e., places of more than 2,500 population. However, for the convenience of the present survey the State's own classification has been adopted. This classifies as urban all places of more than 1,000 population, everything else being rated as rural. The latter classification gives the State six cities ranging downward in population from 21,000 to 5,000; 10 cities from 5,000 to 2,000; and 23 places of less than 2,000 and above 1,000 population.

Racial composition of the population.—Only 15.5 per cent of the people now living in the State are foreign born. Foreign immigration has practically ceased. The immigrants of recent years have come in the main from other American States, very few coming direct from overseas. The percentage of foreign born to the whole population has declined, decade by decade, since 1880, as follows: 1870, 31.7 per cent; 1880, 34 per cent; 1890, 27.6 per cent; 1900, 22 per cent; 1910, 17.5 per cent; 1915, 15.5 per cent.

Of the foreign-born population now in the State over 56 per cent have resided in the United States more than 20 years, and over 43 per cent have resided in South Dakota more than 20 years. Finally, less than 10 per cent of South Dakota's foreign-born population have resided in the United States less than 5 years. From this it appears that the problem of the foreign born and the question of final assimilation and Americanization should not have been of serious consideration had the commonwealth always been alert, and through school education and in other ways had hastened the Americanization of these aliens.

Figure 2 shows graphically the race origin of the people who dwell in South Dakota. It is based on the third census of South Dakota. The classification is based on ethnic or ancestral origin instead of political allegiance, as is usually followed in the Federal census. All are classed as American who "come from families so long settled that knowledge of foreign origin has been lost." It will be noted that the ethnic group marked "German" ranks second to the "American" only. This includes many thousand German-Russians who in the Federal census are classed as "Russian."

The assimilation process of the foreign elements in the population has been retarded because the foreign born have gathered largely in

¹ Third census of the State of South Dakota, p. 12.

settlements, some of them extending over several counties. Some counties, Hutchinson for example, are largely peopled by German stock. A large portion of the school population attend German Catholic or German Lutheran parochial schools in which German has been used largely as a medium of instruction.¹ In this county

RACE ORIGIN
OF SOUTH DAKOTA POPULATION

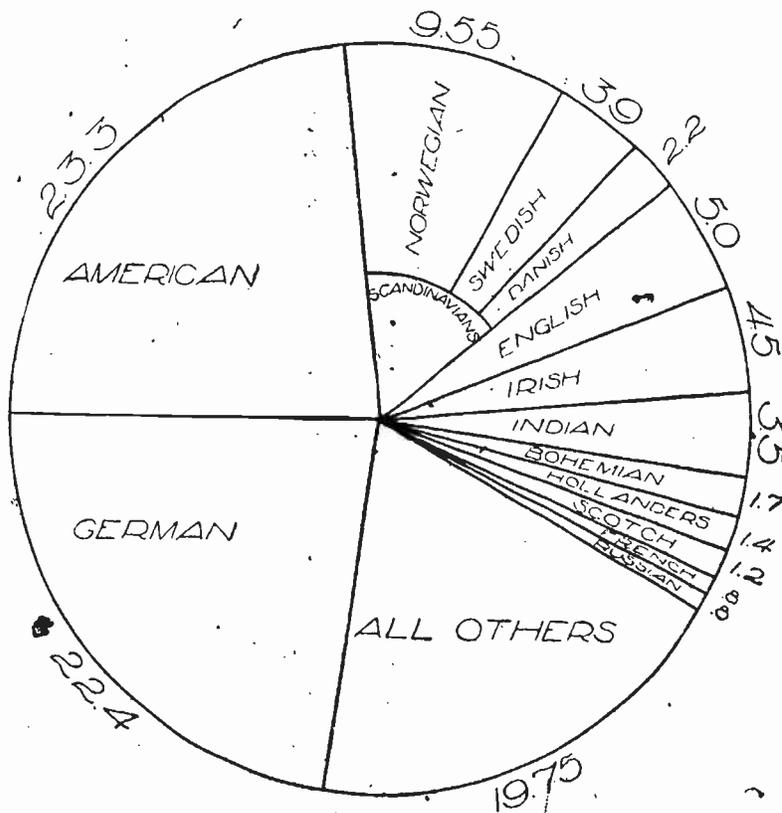


Fig. 2.

and in Hanson County the German-Russian Mennonites still live the quaint community life brought with them from Russia: German, not English, is the language of the villages, although in most of the schools English is the medium of instruction. The German-Russians have settled chiefly in the north-central and northwestern parts of the State, where they have spread over many counties. Because

¹ Recently stopped by order of the State council of defense.

of numbers, more than for other reasons, have these people been slow to become Americanized. Scandinavians and Swedish Finns comprise a large per cent of the population. They settled the State at an early date and became possessed of the best land; from the first they have taken a leading part in the political and economic life of the State. By reason of their close kinship to people of Anglo-American origin, in tradition, history, and ideals, they are easily Americanized and so form no special problem.

Illiteracy and school education.—The Federal census of 1910 places the number of illiterates in the State 10 years of age and over at 12,750, or 2.9 per cent of the total population. However, only 0.4 per cent of the native whites are classed as illiterates, and 5 per cent of the foreign-born whites. More than one-half of the persons included above as illiterates were Indians and therefore were wards of the National Government. They should not have been included. The State census of 1915, on the other hand, gives the total number of white illiterates, native and foreign born, at 3,134, or 0.72 per cent of the whole population. This places South Dakota close to the first rank in low per cent of illiteracy.

Whatever of illiteracy there is seems limited to a few of the older settlers of foreign origin and to some youth that grew up in comparative poverty in the days of early settlement. In some sections a condition of "near illiteracy" prevails, due to the scattered homesteading west of the Missouri River, with long distance to nearest school, bad roads and severe winters. Conditions like these are found in all pioneer communities. They must be met and remedied through the organization of a new type of school education, quite different from the system that now prevails.

A study of the whole population above 18 years of age—i. e., 340,124 people—discloses the fact that 296,052 persons have had at least an elementary school education; 27,345 have attended high school; 3,178 have attended or have graduated from normal school; 7,371 have had some college education; and 5,006 are college and university graduates.¹

Wealth of South Dakota: How well it is utilized for educational purposes.—South Dakota is a State of thrifty, well-to-do middle class people; it has few poor people and few of great means. Wealth is equitably distributed. For a comparatively young commonwealth the State makes an excellent showing. In 1915 the assessed valuation of all classes of property reached the great sum of \$1,271,573,249, or an average of \$2,182.01 for each man, woman, and child in the State. On the basis of estimated actual valuation it would amount to

¹ See Third Census of South Dakota, p. 48.

\$4,386.48 per capita. On a fair estimate basis this would amount to \$4,970.89 per capita, an increase of \$584.41 per capita in two years.

The bank deposits in the State increased from \$14,732,983.71 in 1900 and \$87,783,967.78 in 1910 to \$179,822,797.37 in 1917. There is no better evidence of prosperity than this. In 1917, furthermore, the gross production from all South Dakota farms amounted to \$17,350,000, or about \$4,355 of gross wealth produced for each farm in the State.

The total resources available for the education of each child in the State, 5 to 18 years of age, is (1917) \$11,821. This average amount is exceeded by six States in the Union only. But the State's actual investment in public school education is not so satisfactory. As appears in Table 4, South Dakota ranks as thirteenth among the North Central and Western States in actual school expenditure on

TABLE 4.—Amount expended on public schools per capita of total population (1915-16)—North Central and Western States only.

1. Montana.....	\$11.14	13. South Dakota.....	\$4.23
2. California.....	10.93	14. Oregon.....	8.04
3. Arizona.....	10.14	15. Wyoming.....	8.01
4. Utah.....	10.03	16. Ohio.....	7.89
5. North Dakota.....	10.25	17. Michigan.....	7.88
6. Idaho.....	9.65	18. Colorado.....	7.83
7. Iowa.....	9.45	19. Nevada.....	7.18
8. Minnesota.....	9.17	20. Illinois.....	7.15
9. Washington.....	8.53	21. Wisconsin.....	6.67
10. Indiana.....	8.53	22. Missouri.....	5.21
11. Nebraska.....	8.51	23. New Mexico.....	4.86
12. Kansas.....	8.41	United States.....	6.28

a per capita basis of the total population, and (Table 5) as nineteenth, on a school population basis. This calculation is based on the 23 North Central and Western States only. The State thus ranks in the lower half of the list. From this it may be concluded

TABLE 5.—Amount expended on public schools for each child 5 to 18 years of age (1915-16)—North Central and Western States only.

1. Montana.....	\$65.71	13. Minnesota.....	\$33.87
2. California.....	56.21	14. Colorado.....	33.46
3. Nevada.....	43.73	15. Ohio.....	33.37
4. Arizona.....	42.60	16. Michigan.....	32.03
5. Washington.....	38.91	17. Kansas.....	31.79
6. Wyoming.....	38.81	18. Nebraska.....	31.37
7. Oregon.....	36.61	19. South Dakota.....	29.72
8. Idaho.....	36.55	20. Illinois.....	29.07
9. North Dakota.....	36.45	21. Wisconsin.....	24.30
10. Iowa.....	35.60	22. Missouri.....	19.97
11. Utah.....	35.51	23. New Mexico.....	16.76
12. Indiana.....	34.13	United States.....	23.87

that the State has not in the past utilized its great resources for educational investment as fully as most of the States of the Middle West and West. It is fair to assume, finally, that the rich young State will be willing to invest much more in school education in years to come, provided it can be shown that the investment is made in the right type of education.

Chapter II.

FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE STATE.

The salient facts brought out briefly in the foregoing pages indicate in a general way the educational needs of South Dakota. The State is primarily agricultural. The soil is the foundation and mainstay of its wealth. The three-fourths of the population living on the land are, in the last analysis, the chief wealth makers of the Commonwealth. Their capacity for leadership, their ability to produce scientifically from the land, and their native desire for wholesome, happy living on the land, will be determined chiefly by the kind of school education provided by a thoughtful Government.

The population is largely native born, though a majority come of foreign ancestry. They are a heterogeneous people, who have, in addition to their native American traits and traditions, a great inheritance from foreign shores. With fair appreciation and utilization, these double gifts may be expected to produce a Commonwealth of loftiest ideals and successful in material ways. As a whole the people are upstanding and forward-looking, with a fair margin of wealth. Poverty is practically unknown. Most of the farmers own the land they till; tenant farming is not yet, at least, much of a menace. Democratic ideals prevail; ability and thrift are the criteria by which men's worth is measured. Such a people offers the best opportunity for a universal education of high standards, cultural, scientific, and practical. This calls for an efficient system of modern school education. The highest cultural level must be maintained, for without appreciation for the noble and beautiful in life and without ability to think and act for oneself, real democracy is impossible. Similarly, the life and occupations of the people must be made to reflect modern science and business efficiency, if they are to have a happy, wholesome existence in the open country, in town, and in city.

Determining factors in a modern educational system.—An efficient school system, whether in South Dakota or elsewhere, should be planned to enable the people to get the greatest good out of life for themselves and their fellow men. Does the type of education provided keep the people in the enjoyment of good health and sanitary surroundings? Do the schools teach the children and their parents the great responsibilities and opportunities as members of the greater

social group—the community and State? Do they prepare people to earn a good living on the land and in the industrial centers? Do the schools instruct people in such a way that they will dedicate their wealth and leisure to ethical and esthetical pursuits, to improve themselves and help upbuild the community and the race?

This conception of modern education is more comprehensive than the old. The whole farm place with all its many interests becomes an important part of it. The city's industrial activities are utilized. The business man, the bank president, the shop foreman, the practical scientist, the expert accountant, and the housewife are all concerned in this modern education: they are accordingly consulted to help make the school a vital factor in everyday life.

Agricultural life, the great determining factor in South Dakota education.—It is assumed that the three-fourths of the population living under rural conditions are eager to bring about an era of real scientific farming. This kind of farming goes hand in hand with intelligent, educated leadership. To produce such leadership, in good measure, there must be set up in rural districts distinctive community schools in every way equipped to help the rural population to wholesome, joyous living on the land. This kind of school is yet practically unknown in South Dakota.

But the study of agriculture should not be limited to the men who plow, and sow, and reap. Whatever the people who live in the towns and cities of South Dakota accomplish toward success in life is sure to depend largely on the agricultural prosperity with which they are surrounded. In agricultural States one does not always find the bond of sympathy and understanding there should be between town and country people. This operates to the loss of all classes. School education can be of help here also. Secondary schools in incorporated towns and cities should offer practical courses in agriculture, in rural sociology, and farm economics. This would ultimately place agriculture on the high plane which it should occupy in the esteem of all South Dakota people.

Chapter III.

OUTLINE OF THE PRESENT EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

This chapter contains a brief statement of the most important phases of the present educational system, and is intended as a basis for the discussion in later chapters of this report. The topics included are: State boards and departments, county supervision, school district organization, the public school system, school maintenance, teaching staff and teacher certification, normal schools and professional preparation of teachers, and higher institutions of learning.

State boards and departments.—Public education in South Dakota is administered through four distinct departments or boards: (1) The State department of public instruction; (2) the State board of regents of education; (3) the State board of charities and corrections; and (4) the State board of education.

(1) *The State department of public instruction* is presided over by a superintendent of public instruction. His administrative functions are defined by the laws of the State. They embrace "general supervision of all the county schools and high schools, and of all the city and county superintendents of the State." This article of the code is comprehensive and would give the State superintendent the requisite power to determine the general outlines of a liberal State administration of public education were it not that he is in other respects limited through statute particularization and hampered for lack of financial support, short office tenure, and party politics.

(2) *The State board of regents of education.*—The control of the higher educational institutions of the State—the university, the college of agriculture, the school of mines, and the four normal schools—is vested in a board of five regents, appointed by the governor and ratified by the senate. The regents of education are a body corporate charged with managing the property of the State schools and with administering their educational affairs. The regents are empowered to delegate provisionally to the presidents and faculties of the schools such of the authority given them by law as they may deem wise. The regents constitute a perpetual body clothed with liberal authority. They are chosen from the prevailing political parties and receive compensation for their services. This board has always upheld the best traditions of the State by attracting to its

service only men of known probity, wisdom, and honor. In practice, unfortunately, there is no link between this important body and the State superintendent of public instruction, who is not even an *ex officio* member of the regents, although he is by law charged with certificating all graduates of the State schools who expect to become public school teachers.

(3) *The State board of charities and corrections*, as indicated in the name, is charged with management of the State penal and charitable institutions—the penitentiary, the two asylums for the insane, the industrial school, the school for the deaf, and the school for the blind. This board, like the regents, is composed of five members appointed by the governor with the consent of the senate. They are remunerated for their services and hold office for a term of six years. The most important function of this board also is educational. The schools for the deaf and blind are exclusively educational and need most expert supervision; the industrial school likewise is organized to teach wayward boys and girls to become good members of society. Even the penal institution and the asylums for the insane have educational features which demand expert professional attention. In some progressive States the charitable and corrective institutions are placed under the same educational direction as the other educational institutions. As now organized the State board of charities and corrections is not an educational board in the professional sense.

(4) *The State board of education* is of recent origin. It was organized by the last legislature, to comply with the requirements of the Smith-Hughes Act. The State superintendent of public instruction is the *ex officio* president of the board; the other members are the presidents of the university and the college of agriculture, and four persons appointed by the governor, "two of whom shall be members of a State normal school, one a superintendent or a principal of a city or town school, and one a county superintendent." The term of office is four years. The members of the board receive no remuneration for their services. This board has all the necessary power to cooperate with the Federal Board for Vocational Education in the administration of the powers of the vocational education act.

County supervision.—The county is the unit of school supervision for all except independent school districts, which provide their own local superintendents. The county superintendency is political rather than professional. The superintendent is elected at the regular biennial election for a two-year period and can not by law hold the office more than two consecutive terms. His compensation ranges from \$900 to \$2,000 per annum, with not to exceed \$400 for necessary traveling expenses. In counties having more than 75 schools the superintendent may appoint a deputy or clerk.

The county superintendent is "charged with the general supervision of the schools in his county. In towns having less than 1,000 inhabitants he shall have authority of direct supervision." He visits schools, keeps records of schools and reports the same to the State superintendent annually; he issues special certificates between periods of State examinations, holds teachers' conventions, annual institutes, summer schools, and annual meetings of school trustees; he encourages reading circle work, industrial exhibits, and in sundry other ways promotes education in his county. In practice he has little real authority in guiding the educational interests of the county, the effective unit of administration being in practice the school district and the district board.

School district organization.—The exact number of school districts in the State can not be ascertained, although it is approximately 4,500, with 5,041 one-teacher rural and 287 independent and consolidated schools. In organization the South Dakota districts are unique, ranging, as they do, in size from a single schoolhouse district to a whole county with many schools. Each unorganized county constitutes a single school district; organized counties are divided into school districts along township lines, i. e., into township districts of one or more congressional townships; and township districts are subdivided into smaller local districts whenever there is a popular demand for such subdivision. A number of counties have been subdivided into these ineffective, small one-school districts; others are wholly organized as township districts; and still others have a mixture of small districts and township districts. As now organized, none of these organizations is wholly satisfactory, as will appear in a later chapter.

Every school district, not an independent district, is administered by a board of three members, elected at the annual school meeting, who hold office for three years. This small board manages all local school matters within certain legal limitations and under instructions from the annual school meeting. The boards employ teachers, determine the length of the school year, and prescribe what subjects may be taught in addition to those determined by law—in a word, they have full charge of the school, and on their ability as administrators depends the success or failure of the county schools.

All cities, towns, and adjacent territory are organized as independent districts and are governed under special legislative provisions. Such districts are administered by larger boards of education and have, for the most part, their own superintendents of schools.

The public school system.—South Dakota has a free school system of 16 years or more, embracing 8 years in elementary school, 4 years in secondary school, and 4 or more years in the University of South Dakota, or courses of varying length in the State College of Agri-

culture and Mechanic Arts, the State School of Mines, and the State normal schools.

The 5,298 rural schools are practically all elementary schools, 86,785 of their pupils attending the grades, with only 2,057 in high school. In independent districts there are 35,827 pupils in elementary schools and 9,467 in high schools. A large majority of rural children of secondary school age either do not obtain high-school instruction at all, or they are obliged to attend town schools. Township high schools may be organized under law, open to all children of school age in the school township; but very little advantage has been taken of this opportunity to establish secondary schools within reach of all children.

Some progress has been made recently in the reorganization of the 12-year school plan. A number of the larger towns and cities have begun to plan the schools on the "six-and-six" plan and are making good strides in organizing junior and senior high schools.

School maintenance.—The public schools draw their support from several sources. The most important of these is local taxes levied on all taxable property within the school districts. In 1916, 76.14 per cent of all school revenues expended during the year came from local taxes. The income on the State permanent fund of nearly \$14,000,000 is a second source of revenue. This produces a considerable portion of the school maintenance. Certain other sources—to be defined in later sections—produce the balance of the school revenue. In 1916, 17.85 per cent of the total public school maintenance came from the State permanent fund, and 6.01 per cent from "other sources."

The State's higher educational institutions are supported by direct legislative appropriations, from the income on endowment lands held in trust by the State, and in case of certain of the institutions, from Federal appropriations.

South Dakota levies no regular State tax for the public schools; nor does the State levy a permanent millage tax as a permanent endowment for its higher educational institutions.

Teaching staff and teacher certification.—It requires more than 7,000 teachers to fill the teaching positions in the public elementary and secondary schools of the State. Of this number 5,374 are needed (1916) in "common" school districts and 1,683 in independent districts. The teaching staff varies in academic and professional preparation from practically no preparation at all to college and university graduation, together with good training preparation in normal school or school of education. Public education in the State suffers, as is true of many other States, because the schools are manned largely by immature persons of meager preparation and limited professional outlook. Conditions which were bad enough

before the war have become accretuated in recent months, and now call for serious consideration by lawmakers and parents.

Teacher certification, in this State, is controlled through the State department of education, which has charge of the examinations, grades the papers, and issues the certificates. The only exception to this rule is in case of the so-called special certificates issued by county superintendents to candidates "who present proof that they were unable to be present at the last regular public examination." Such certificates are valid only until the next regular examination is held.

Professional preparation of teachers.—The State maintains normal schools at Aberdeen, Madison, Spearfish, and Springfield, which supply about 450 teachers¹ annually for the public schools of the State. The school of education in the university and the department of education in the State college prepare about 25¹ annually. Accredited denominational colleges furnish another 200,¹ which makes the annual output from all these schools 675.¹ The annual wastage in the teaching profession is, however, so large that other States and sources must be drawn upon to supply large numbers to fill vacancies.

There can be no real professionalizing the profession before all teachers are required by law to complete courses in the normal schools or other professional institutions. This will require the normal schools to enlarge their output greatly, or that the efforts of the normal schools be supplemented by teacher training in high schools or from other sources.

Higher institutions of learning.—South Dakota supports three higher educational institutions, not including the normal schools. They are the University of South Dakota, at Vermillion; the State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, at Brookings; and the State School of Mines, at Rapid City. Unfortunately all these schools are situated on or near the borders of the State, and are not easily accessible.

There are in the State also a number of well-established denominational colleges and academies that have done great service in the State during its formative period. Many of the colleges are fully accredited by the State department of education, with legal authority to grant teachers' certificates. The following are on the accredited list: Augustana College, at Canton; Dakota Wesleyan University, at Mitchell; Huron College, at Huron; Yankton College, at Yankton; Lutheran Normal School, at Sioux Falls; Sioux Falls College, at Sioux Falls; and Wessington Springs Junior College, at Wessington Springs. The following academies are accredited to grant lower grade certificates: Notre Dame Academy, at Mitchell; and Ward Academy, at Academy.

¹ This includes graduates only.

Chapter IV.

GENERAL STATE ADMINISTRATION OF EDUCATION. . .

The superintendent of public instruction is the chief educational official in most of our States. He is charged with enforcing the educational law in spirit and in fact; he is the professional adviser of the supervisory and instructional staff of the State. In a word, he organizes and directs the educational forces within his State. The State superintendency is a big man's or a big woman's job. It is hard to conceive of a more important office, or a more difficult position, if one takes into consideration the legal and other limitations usually met with in the average western Commonwealth. At all times it calls for a person of great tact, good initiative, and much executive ability.

The State superintendency in South Dakota weakened by legal limitations.—In this State the office of superintendent is limited in its administrative efficiency by constitutional and legal provisions. The office is not popularly considered the highly important position that it is. It is a political office; the salary is limited by the constitution to \$1,800 per annum; and the term of office, while not fixed by law, is limited by custom to four and, occasionally, to six years.

To leave this professional office to the caprice of party politics is, to say the least, unwise. Many of the strongest professional educators would not care to enter a contest for the office, if for no other reason, because an election is not always determined by professional fitness, but often by aptness in vote-getting. The superintendency should be removed from politics and be made appointive.

Moreover, the short term of service keeps many from seeking the office. Progress in education requires a continuous policy, not limited by short tenure or subject to the accidents of politics. The office should be held subject to good behavior, and the incumbent should be removed for good cause only.

The salary is limited by the constitution to \$1,800 per annum. Fifty dollars per month is added to this sum to pay house rent, provided the superintendent makes the State capital his home. No other State in the Union, save one comparatively poor Southern State, pays such a beggarly salary. The office can not expect to attract really strong men until it pays a salary commensurate with the importance and dignity of the office. Certainly, the State super-

intendent should be remunerated at least as well as the heads of the State's higher educational institutions and the leading city superintendents, which is now far from being the case.

Again, the constitution and laws are silent on the matter of the superintendent's educational qualifications. Every teacher in the service and every supervising official in city and county must have certain legally prescribed qualifications. It is assumed, of course, that the State superintendent will be a well-prepared educator; but this has not always been so.

Other States and permanent professional superintendencies.—In 16 States the head of the State school system is appointive. In most of these States there are no limitations in regard to previous residence of the superintendents, who are appointed solely for their professional worth from the country at large. This practice has long been followed in the important city superintendencies in the State, and should, likewise, be followed in filling the more important office of State superintendent.

Two different plans are pursued in selecting the heads of State educational systems. The governor may appoint them, or they may be appointed by State boards of education. Of these two methods the latter is the more satisfactory. Where the selection is left to the governor there is at least the old danger of continuing the office in politics. On the other hand, if chosen by a nonpolitical State board of education, these difficulties would be overcome (see page 23). The first appointment might be probational, for a term sufficiently long to demonstrate the official's fitness for the place. Reappointment should be for an indefinite term, the State board retaining the right to remove the incumbent from office for misfeasance or malfeasance. Under such a permanent organization the State superintendent could raise the State school system to a high point of administrative efficiency.

It is further suggestive that the States which have organized their State departments of education on a professional basis pay better salaries than the elective States do. The following are a few of the States which place a premium on scholarship, experience, and general fitness by appointing their superintendents, and the salaries paid: New York, \$10,000; New Jersey, \$10,000; Massachusetts, \$6,500; Vermont, \$5,000; Rhode Island, \$5,000; Pennsylvania, \$5,000; Minnesota, \$4,500; and Ohio, \$4,000.

Organization of the State department of public instruction.—The law charges the State superintendent with supervision of the State's elementary and secondary schools. He has great supervisory and inspectorial duties. The county schools and county superintendents are nominally under his direction; the same is true of city and town schools and their superintendents, and other independent school dis-

tricts. He examines all persons who desire to teach in the public schools, and validates certificates issued by other States; he gives instruction and advice to institute directors, and helps manage the State reading circle. He is president of the State free library commission, and ex officio president of the new State board of education. He prepares and presents a biennial report to the governor; he has a voluminous correspondence covering interpretation of school law, appeals by teachers, school boards, and superintendents. So many and so varied are these duties and responsibilities that unless the superintendent has a large well organized "inside" and "outside" staff, there can be little time or energy left in which to plan and push progressive school legislation. It is well for the State to realize that it avails little to charge the superintendent of public instruction with supervisory, inspectorial, judicial, administrative, and similar duties, unless he is provided with an adequate force of helpers who can form the necessary trained organization through which to exercise the will of the State.

Now what are the facts in regard to the organization of the State superintendent's office in South Dakota? The total office force at the present time consists of a deputy State superintendent, two clerks, and one stenographer. The cost of maintaining this office during the biennium, 1914-1916 was as follows:

Item	1915	1916
State superintendent's salary	\$1,800	\$1,800
Salary of deputy and stenographer	2,440	2,440
Two clerks	2,400	2,400
Office expense, supplies, and incidentals	4,715	4,799
Traveling expense of superintendent and deputy	522	801
Total	11,877	12,240

The State superintendent receives, in addition to this, \$50 per month for house rent.

The State maintains no specialized educational staff to carry out the requirements of the law. The State superintendent and his deputy spend as much time as they can spare in field work. But no real forward-looking educational policies can be realized under these conditions. While they are devoting their energies to field work, office tasks accumulate, requiring overtime and long hours to clear up the accumulations. The department has no State high-school inspector (the deputy superintendent gives what time he can spare to this office); it has no elementary school inspector; and no supervisor for consolidated and other rural schools. This department organization is wholly inadequate for a State of South Dakota's size and wealth. It is probably true that for its size and population South Dakota has a smaller staff in its superintendent's office than has any other State in the Union.

A larger conception of the State department of public instruction.—The public conception of the functions of the old State superintendency has undergone marked changes in recent years. The public is beginning to realize that this office—under whatever name it may have—must be de facto head of the entire State system of schools, not alone the elementary and secondary schools, but as well of all higher educational institutions and specialized phases of education. The State has unquestionably suffered great educational loss because its State department of public instruction has been limited by reason of poor financial support in the main to the mechanical side of school administration. In justice to the present superintendent and his staff it should be said, however, that the work is efficiently done, so far as it can be done at all with the present small staff. But no important constructive educational policy has yet been initiated, including the various educational agencies in the State. Under prevailing laws and with the present meager legislative appropriations little can be done toward centralizing the professional leadership in the State superintendent's office. In fact, a comprehensive reorganization of the department is highly desirable, to make it part of the proposed system of State-wide school administration outlined in Chapter V.

The State board of regents of education is organized under a constitutional provision (art. 14, par. 3), which reads:

The State university, the agricultural college, the normal schools and all other educational institutions that may be sustained either wholly or in part by the State shall be under control of a board of five members appointed by the governor and affirmed by the senate under such rules and restrictions as the legislature shall provide.

The political code makes specific provision for the selection, term of office, continuation in office, powers, duties, etc., of the board of regents. Their term of office is six years; vacancies are filled by the governor. They must be persons of "probity and wisdom" and selected from among the best-known citizens, residents of the different portions of the State, none of whom shall reside in the counties in which any of the State educational institutions are located. The traditions of the board of regents are enviable, as exceptionally strong men have invariably held this important trust. The portion of the section placing limitations on the place of residence of members is a wise provision, as it removes the possibility of local pressure and other ulterior influence.

The board of regents elect a president from among their own members, and a paid secretary and stenographer who shall not be chosen from among the members. They hold two regular meetings annually, and as many special meetings as they may deem necessary. The regents are each paid an annual salary of \$1,000.

The functions, powers, and duties of the regents are many. They have full control of the affairs of the university, the college of agriculture, the school of mines, and the four normal schools. They are a board of laymen comprising the best business ability of the State, well fitted to give the higher educational institutions a good business administration. On the other hand, many of their prescribed functions are purely professional, requiring the interpretation of the educational expert. This means that many important tasks of a professional nature must at the present be left for final determination with the presidents and faculties of the said institutions. This is in a measure wise. But a better plan would probably be to make the professional State superintendent an ex-officio member of the board of regents (see p. 25), to represent the professional policies of the regents before the presidents and faculties, at the same time that he represents the interests of the public schools of the State in these higher institutions. At the risk of repetition it may be stated here that no real educational link, at the present time, binds intimately the head of the State's public schools and the heads of the State's higher educational institutions. This has led to considerable embarrassment and some misunderstanding, and much loss of efficiency. How this may be remedied is explained in the next chapter.

The State board of charities and corrections is a purely lay board. At present it is composed of business and professional men of good ability, but without the special qualifications required to administer successfully important educational institutions. This board has complete management of the State penitentiary, the two asylums for the insane, the training school for boys and girls, the school for the deaf, and the school for the blind. The board of charities is appointed and organized on the same plan as is the board of regents. The members each receive an annual compensation of \$1,500 and necessary expenses. But in functions and duties this board differs materially from the former. The regents administer a group of purely educational institutions. The board of charities have control of two schools that are wholly educational—the schools for the deaf and the blind; of one which is both educational and corrective—the training school for boys and girls; of two which may be classed as charitable; and of one which is penal and corrective.

The State board of charities and corrections should be continued as at present, but the three above-mentioned educational institutions should be placed under the jurisdiction of a board organized to care for educational institutions to make the schools more effective than now. (See p. 24.) Details of this proposed reorganization are explained in the next chapter.

Chapter V.

IMPROVEMENT IN STATE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION.

The last few years have brought about a great change in the place and importance of public school education in the United States. This enlarged conception of education has added new importance to the chief educational office in the State—the State department of public instruction. The office as originally created in the older States was chiefly clerical and statistical, much akin to the now passing ideas of the functions of a middle-western county superintendency. Almost any person chosen from the general electorate could fill the place to the satisfaction of the public.

But the demands of to-day require a new type of educational leadership, able to master the manifold problems of modern school organization and administration, general instruction, school sanitation, industrial and vocational education, interrelation of the public and higher schools and educational legislation.

The State in new educational leadership.—The great problem in South Dakota is how best to manage the State's growing educational business; how best to create an educational organization strong enough to do the work efficiently and economically, and in a large, constructive way. The present State department of public instruction was organized when the more limited conception of school education prevailed. The great problem now confronting the State is how best to reorganize its educational administration, how to centralize it for greater effectiveness in capable hands, without taking away from the smaller educational units their local initiative and administrative efficiency.

The survey committee is convinced that the needed reorganization can best be brought about by enlarging the powers of the present State board of regents of education and give it central control of the educational affairs in the State. The enlarged board should retain all its present powers and duties, and in addition thereto have general oversight of the public elementary and secondary schools, the schools for the deaf and the blind, and the training school for boys and girls, and, finally, to absorb the functions of the State board of education

created to meet the requirements of the Smith-Hughes Act. The State board of charities could continue as a State board to administer the State asylums for the insane and the State penitentiary.

Enlarged State board of regents of education.—The enlarged board should be primarily a lay board, representing the larger educational policies of the public, delegating the professional side of education and the administration of their general policies to their appointive executive officials, the State superintendent of public instruction, and the presidents of the higher educational institutions. The board should be composed of eight members to be appointed by the governor, by and with the consent of the senate, the term of office to be eight years, not more than two members to retire each biennium, thus perpetuating the board's continuance and making it permanent. Vacancies should be filled by the governor as at present. The same care should be exercised in selecting the members as in the case of the present board of regents. The appointment should be for absolute worth and regardless of residence—provided that no regent be chosen from the county in which a higher institution of learning is situated—occupation, party affiliation, religion, or sex. The members should serve without remuneration, except actual traveling and other necessary expenses.

The general powers and duties of the enlarged State board of regents of education should be:

(1) To retain and continue the powers and duties now held under law for the administration of the State university, the State college, the school of mines and the State normal schools.

(2) To have general oversight and control of the public-school system of the State.

(3) To select a State superintendent of public instruction, to be the executive official of the board.

(4) To require uniform records and reports, in form to be prescribed by the superintendent of public instruction, from all educational institutions supported by the State, and from all other organizations doing educational work receiving State accreditation and recognition.

(5) To classify and standardize, under the direction of the State superintendent, the public schools of the State.

(6) To prescribe the standards and courses of study for the State normal schools, the educational departments of the denominational colleges and academies accredited under State law, and such other teacher-training institutions as may be established by law.

(7) To adopt rules and regulations for the sanitary inspection of schools and for the physical examination of school children; and, in conjunction with other State authorities, to see that the rules relat-

ing to school health, compulsory education, and child conservation be enforced.

(8) To have general control of the schools for the deaf and the blind and the industrial school for boys and girls.

(9) To act as a board of control for the State library and the State historical collections.

(10) To transmit to the governor and the State legislature a biennial report covering all the activities of the university, the State colleges, and of the State department of public instruction in its relation to all public elementary and secondary schools and the above-mentioned higher educational institutions of the State.

(11) To perform such other duties and functions as are prescribed by law.

The State superintendent of public instruction.—Under this proposed reorganization the Superintendent of public instruction would become the executive official of the State board of education to carry out in detail the educational policies of this board. He should be appointed by the State board for professional ability and successful educational experience, regardless of residence or party affiliation. After a probational service to prove his ability, he should be reappointed for an indefinite term of years. His salary should be commensurate with the importance of the office, and in keeping with what is being paid for this service by the most progressive States in which this official is appointive.

(1) The State superintendent of public instruction should be the executive official of the State board of regents of education and executive head of the State department of education, and should enforce all the rules and regulations made in conformity to law by the State board for the public elementary and secondary schools.

(2) He should have supervision of all the different divisions of the State department of education and should be held responsible by the State board for the proper administration of the duties of each such subdivision.

(3) He should, in cooperation with the heads of the State's teacher training institutions and in conformity with law, prescribe courses of study for these training schools, methods and standards for the certification of teachers and validation of teaching credentials from other states.

(4) He should personally direct all educational activities wherein the State department of education, under law, cooperates with the presidents and faculties of the higher educational institutions of the State.

(5) He should have such other powers as under law belong to the office of superintendent of public instruction.

The State department of education.—As may be seen from the following illustration (Figure 3), the reorganized State department of education is comprehensively planned on lines of approved business principles. The most important business in South Dakota is education. Its State school administration should no longer be obliged to continue the present haphazard, cheap way. If the State is to get full returns on its great educational investment, the methods, ways, and means utilized must be of the most approved known to experts in school administration.

The proposed department outlined above is organized into administrative divisions, each in charge of an expert in his particular edu-

PROPOSED PLAN FOR ORGANIZATION OF
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

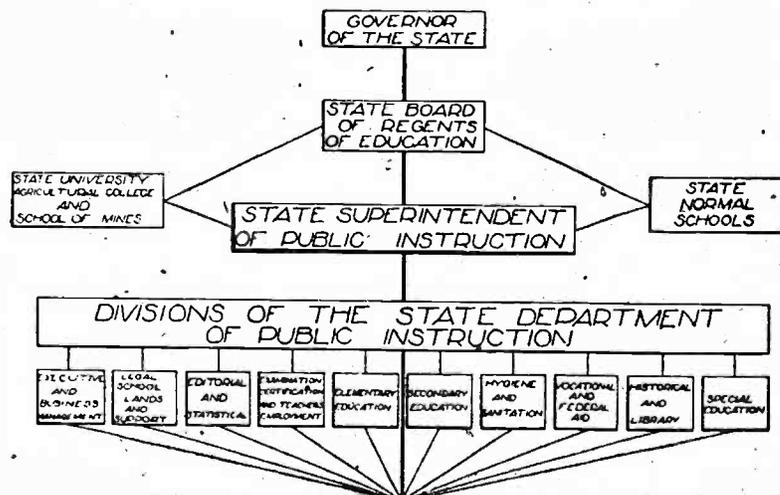


FIG. 3.

ational field. It is proposed that all such divisions be organized at once, although several may be combined under one head until additional staff officers are required by the increased volume of work.

The executive division should have charge of the business management of the department and keep all the books and records of the State board of regents of education. The head of this division could act as secretary for the State board of regents of education. He might also apportion the State school funds, under the direction of the State superintendent.

The legal school lands and maintenance division might, for the present, remain in personal charge of the superintendent of public instruction. This division should edit and annotate the school code—an important task at the present left to publishing houses through-

out the State. The superintendent has the power under law to interpret the school code and decide matters of controversy arising under it.

The elementary education division should have charge of educational measures in open country districts and in places of less than 1,000 population. It should study the means for improvement of the schools aforesaid and through field propoganda and in other ways be of assistance to school patrons; it should especially devote its energies to school consolidation, to introduction of agricultural instruction, home economics, manual training, etc.

The secondary school division should classify and accredit the high schools of the State, and inspect them from time to time to see that they comply with State requirements.

The vocational education division would do the work of the State board of education which was recently organized to accept the benefits of the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act.

The hygiene and sanitation division should be intrusted with the enforcement of legislation on school hygiene and sanitation. It would have charge of the health inspection of school children, and prepare and sanction plans and specifications of all public-school buildings to be constructed in the State.

The historical and library division should be directed by the present State historian and should include the present State historical collections and State museum and the State library.

The special education division should be intrusted with all correctional education, with instruction of the deaf and blind, and of subnormal children, which work would be done under the immediate direction of the superintendent of public instruction.

Steps in the reorganization.—To the end of consummating the reorganization proposed in this chapter and other changes outlined in later chapters the survey committee recommends:

(1) A constitutional amendment to enlarge the powers and duties of the State board of regents of education.

(2) A constitutional amendment providing that the legislature determine the method of selecting the State superintendent of public instruction and county superintendents of schools, and fixing their qualifications, compensation, tenure, salaries, and powers and duties.

(3) A constitutional amendment to place the State Training School, the State School for the Deaf, and the State School for the Blind under the control of the State board of regents of education.

Chapter VI.

LOCAL SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION.

Present tendency in school district organization.—The State is subdivided for local administration of education into school districts which, in organized counties, vary in size from a few square miles supporting a single school to several townships supporting many schools. In this particular the school organization of South Dakota is quite unique, as in most other States only a single type of school district organization prevails.

The code under which public school districts are organized provides (Art. III, Sec. 68) that "townships shall be made the boundary lines of the districts." Again, that the county commissioners "may, at their discretion, when for the best interests of the schools, organize one or more congressional townships into one school district." Provision is also, unfortunately, made for further divisions of these one or more township districts into smaller districts at the pleasure of the patrons concerned. (Art. III, Sec. 69.) At the present time the tendency is toward smaller and smaller units of organization for local support and school administration.

A study of South Dakota's educational map shows that the one unorganized county, Todd, forms (Art. III, Sec. 68) a single county-wide school district; that many of the newer, sparsely-peopled counties west of the Missouri River are divided into school districts containing one to five, or even more congressional townships. East of the river some counties have retained the township district intact; others have a mixture of township and single school districts; while still others contain only the small local districts.

History of school district organization.—It is important to determine the effect of this gradual disintegration of the large school districts into smaller and smaller areas on the economy and efficiency of the schools. Are these small districts suitable units of administration for a great agricultural State seeking in its schools effective preparation for agricultural life? Are they conducive to the organization of larger, effective schools of elementary and secondary type? Or do they tend to perpetuate the pioneer system of three R's schools? The queries can best be answered after making a brief statement of the evolution of school district organization elsewhere.

The local schoolhouse district originated in New England in the early days of English colonization, whence it spread westward wherever the settlers penetrated the wilderness. It was purely a community enterprise, each group of families organizing and supporting its own school as best it could. The district organization usually preceded school legislation, which later sanctioned it as the only practicable organization for the settlement.

Throughout the United States people have begun to realize that the small district has about outlived its period of usefulness, and that it ought to be supplanted by a more effective unit of organization. In New England the more compact township organization has already driven out these local districts. The same is true in Pennsylvania, Indiana, and other States in the Middle West. The Southern States generally are organized under the county unit, with one board of trustees for all the schools in a single county. Eighteen States have already adopted the county unit in one form or another, and 13 are using township organization in whole or in part. In all the rest there is a strong movement under way to supplant the pioneer district with one or the other of township or county organization, with the latter generally in the ascendency.

The chief reason for discontent with the local district is that it has become an almost insurmountable obstacle to the type of school organization required by a modern rural population. As a tax area it causes untold injustice and inequality. School consolidation and the maintenance of rural high schools have proved exceedingly difficult where local boards and district lines have to be considered. Finally, local jealousy and closefistedness and individual indifference have often resulted in short terms and underpaid teachers, a meager course of study with the usual results—non-enrollment of a large proportion of the school population, irregularity of attendance, and early dropping out of school.

Local administrative units.—This State has not in every respect followed the natural trend of local administration outlined above—i. e., beginning with the small district and later turning from it to something more practicable for an up-to-date agricultural commonwealth. The first territorial superintendent of schools, Gen. W. H. H. Beadle, himself reared under the township system in Indiana, anticipated the organization of small districts by having the present township system included in the code. However, the great mistake made in this State was to give the township unit the same kind of school administration as in the one-school district. In this respect the South Dakota township district differs from that of Indiana, which may explain the doubtful success of the unit in South Dakota.

The evolution in local administration in the State, as it appears to the casual student, may finally be summarized thus: The large un-

organized county forms a single county district under control of the governor. In the organized counties the settled portions are divided by the county commissioners into township districts of one or more congressional townships. In the older settled counties these large township units are disintegrating into small one-school districts (1) because of immoderate desire to have the school as near one's own home as possible, or (2) because the administration of the larger districts has occasionally proved unsatisfactory in practice. A reaction is beginning to set in against the small districts; but usually this does not take place until after the community has suffered from all the inherent weaknesses that belong to the small, helpless district. Consolidation of small districts is finally being resorted to as the ultimate solution of a very difficult problem.

The township district is managed by a school board of three members, who have complete control of all the schools within the district. If the district happens to contain three or four schoolhouses, educational advantages are usually fairly equalized among them; but if they have more than three schools, some of these are likely to be neglected. The explanation is not far to seek: the three board members are usually distributed over the district so that each member lives near his own school. In the board meeting he is inclined to use his influence to the end that this school gets "what is coming to it," to the serious loss of the unrepresented schools. Because of this the unrepresented portions of the large districts are prone to start a movement to organize small districts of their own. This statement is not meant as a condemnation of all township districts, as the committee found many well-administered township districts. The township organization is assuredly preferable to the local district; but neither seems adequate to present needs.

The study of the prevailing school districts has disclosed that:

1. *Small school boards are ineffective and impracticable.*—South Dakota has approximately 4500 school districts, each in charge of three local trustees. This makes a small army of about 13,500 men. A well-settled county has from 50 to 300 or more trustees. Such an organization is inexcusable. It is unreasonable to expect that half a hundred men can be found in an ordinary county suited by temperament and training to fill all these positions. Even if the men could be found, there is neither business reason nor educational reason for bringing such a large force into the management of the schools.

2. *Board members often misdirect their efforts.*—Many board members give their time freely to the schools, and in some instances to good purpose. But, generally, their efforts spent are misdirected because they lack knowledge of educational needs.

3. *Inequality of school support.*—Wealthy districts are sometimes controlled by men whose chief aim is to keep taxes down. In neigh-

poor districts, with smaller aggregate wealth, it may happen that the school plant is modern and satisfactory because the men there tax the community to the limit.

On general principles the whole wealth of the State should be made available for educating all the youth of the State. This is both right and just, for education is a State function, to be supported like other similar functions. While it is the conviction of the survey committee that the State should levy a State tax for school purposes (see p. 55), the same principle should be applied to the county. The school district has proved too small to be intrusted with final legislation in such matters as taxation. Taxation for general educational purposes should be vested in the larger natural unit of civil administration—the county.

4. *Selection of teachers.*—Teachers are chosen by the local boards, who do much as they please in these matters. Some counties which have superintendents of exceptional personality allow these educators a free hand in placing teachers, but this condition is unfortunately exceptional. The prevailing practice of selecting teachers by local boards has led to serious abuses that need not be mentioned here. Suffice it to reassert that the average school board in rural districts is unable to choose teachers wisely. This duty should be vested in some educational authority in closer touch with the teachers and with the schools that are training the teachers.

5. *Small districts are unable to meet modern community needs.*—The small one-teacher district does not have within its boundaries what is necessary to make a modern community school (see p. 71). The district school in South Dakota devotes its energies to the tool subjects almost wholly. Few pupils complete the prescribed course of study. The schools are not organized to attract and hold the larger boys and girls, and most of the schools are unable to provide the social aspects required of modern education. The small one-teacher district is unquestionably responsible for the following fundamental weaknesses from which all are suffering: Nonattendance of a large per cent of the school population; irregularity of attendance; and great wastage in attendance due to lack of interest in prescribed school work.

Proposed plan of school district reorganization.—The survey committee recommends the following reorganization of existing common school districts in the State:

1. Legal disestablishment of all common school districts as now organized in all counties with a school population of more than 2,000 children of school age outside of present independent districts, and the establishment in lieu thereof of the county as a single school dis-

Or in lieu thereof a certain number of persons of school age per square mile in the county to be determined by law.

trict; permissive disestablishment of similar districts in all other counties, and their reestablishment as single county districts.

2. Election of a county board of education for each county in the State to supplant the present district boards in all counties organized on the county-district plan and to have such powers and duties in all other counties as are set forth in Chapter VII.

The recommendations explained.—The first recommendation provides for an effective plan of school organization. The "county unit organization," by which name it is commonly known, has proved the most satisfactory of all forms of organization, wherever it has been properly safeguarded. In one or two States it is not satisfactory, because under it the people have been deprived of all the rights they formerly had. This is not true of the plan proposed for South Dakota in the present and the following chapter.

1. Under the proposed plan the members of the county board are elected by the people from among the leading men and women of the county. This allows the people to retain the reins of government in a large way.

2. In all counties reorganized under the county-unit plan each school community will be represented before the county board by one subdirector. (See Chapter VII.) This is really more than is true of some schools under the present system, as the schools in township districts of more than three schools are often grossly neglected if a board member does not live near such school. This is of course not invariably true, but altogether too often.

3. Under the county plan the county will become the unit of taxation, which is eminently fair; but this is not done to the exclusion of local tax rights. For extraordinary purposes the school community retains the right to levy taxes and issue bonds. (See Chapter IX.)

4. The most vital phase of the whole problem is just where to draw the line between counties to be classed under "compulsory" and "permissive" county unit. This form of government operates most satisfactorily in well-settled counties. Judged by the experience elsewhere 2,000 children of school age should be the minimum measure for a congressional county of 16 townships, or about three and one-half persons per square mile. A basis of not less than *three and one-half persons of school age per square mile* would probably prove more satisfactory than the flat minimum of 2,000 persons of school age, as the latter would exclude some of the small but well-populated counties, and include several of the large but sparsely settled counties.

Chapter VII.

COUNTY ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION.

For the greatest administrative efficiency in education the unit of administration should conform geographically to the unit used for civil administration. In South Dakota the county is the civil administrative unit; it is also the legal unit for supervision of schools. But the legal school districts administer all matters of vital importance in public-school education. While local school administration is, in theory at least, the most democratic, it has proved in practice both wasteful and inefficient.

The present chapter deals with two important factors in county school organization: (1) The present county superintendency; and (2) a more practicable county system of administration and supervision.

The South Dakota county superintendency.—In this State county superintendents have charge of the professional management of all schools in villages of less than 1,000 population and in the open-country districts. This means that county superintendents are charged with the supervision of 5,205 schools in a total of 5,492, and 88,842 pupils enrolled in a total of 134,136 pupils. The office is elective and political. The term of office is two years, and no superintendent may hold office for more than two consecutive terms. To be eligible for the office, the candidate must be "the holder of a regular first-grade certificate or a certificate of higher grade valid in the State." The minimum salary prescribed by law is \$900 per annum and the maximum \$2,000. An amount not to exceed \$400 per annum is allowed for necessary traveling expenses.

The law provides that the board of county commissioners may, when in their judgment it shall be necessary, authorize the county superintendents of counties having more than 75 schools to appoint deputy superintendents during such time and at such salary or compensation as said board of commissioners may determine. This means, in practice, that a deputy superintendent may or may not be appointed, according as the county commissioners are or are not interested in educational matters.

The powers and duties conferred on the county superintendent do not make this official the leader he should be in county educational

matters. He is by law "charged with the general supervision of the schools of his county. In towns having less than 1,000 inhabitants he shall have authority to direct supervision." The superintendent's specific duties are to visit each school in his county as frequently as possible; to supervise the teaching process; to inspect grounds, buildings, etc.; to keep a complete record of his acts, and a register of all the teachers employed; to make annual and special reports to the State superintendent; to encourage and hold annual teachers' institutes and occasional teachers' associations; to encourage higher standards of teaching and employment of better teachers; to encourage reading circles; and to conduct annual contests in agriculture, industrial arts, and home economics.

Who the South Dakota county superintendents are.—Members of the survey committee met the county superintendents in groups at called meetings or saw them as individuals at work in their counties. There are many strong, well-prepared men and women among them, but also some who could never obtain the office of a county superintendent were it not for the ups and downs of party politics.

The following data are gleaned from questionnaires answered by each of the county superintendents in the State, a detailed tabulation of which appears in the appendix of this bulletin.

1. *Tenure.*—There are 64 superintendents, of whom 36 are women. Thirty superintendents have held office one year only, and one superintendent alone is in her ninth year (having begun a third term, though the terms have not been successive). In other words, there is absolutely no permanency in this important office. The State law makes the office a political plum to be passed around with the rest of the lay offices of the county, when in fact it is a professional office of the highest importance, to be held for an indefinite tenure by professional educators only.

2. *Age.*—The average age of the present incumbents is 38.68 years for men and 35.54 years for women; the median ages are respectively 37 and 33 years.

3. *Salaries.*—The amount paid for county superintendents' salaries during the past year was \$87,565.08. The travel allowance varied from \$85 to the legal maximum of \$400 per annum. Forty-three of the county superintendents reported the maximum allowance. The average annual salary of the county superintendents was \$1,368.23, the average total expense for the office, \$2,400.05. The total expenditure for maintenance of the office, including salaries for deputies and clerks, was \$153,603.22. Four counties, Brown, Day, Pennington, and Perkins, have deputies with salaries placed respectively at \$1,020, \$780, \$1,000, and \$850. Thirty-seven counties reported clerical help, 25 being for full time and 12 for part time. The salaries paid these helpers varied from \$8 per day to \$900 per annum.

4. *Education.*—Fifty-two superintendents reported high-school attendance—28 having completed four-year courses; 11 have had three years' work in high school; 13, two years or less; while 12 have had no high-school education at all.

Forty-eight superintendents have had additional preparation—25 in university or college, and 23 in normal schools. Twelve hold degrees from college or university; of these, 4 have the degree of A. B.; 3 the degree of B. S.; 2, M. A.; 1, Ph. G.; 1 B. L.; and 1 M. E. Of the 23 who have had professional preparation, 8 have had three years or more; 12, two years or more; and 3, less than two years.

Twelve superintendents have had high-school courses only; 7 have attended high school and college; 14, high school and normal school; 5, high school and university; 7, college and normal school; and 3, high school, college, and university.

5. *Time devoted to classroom supervision.*—Eight superintendents reported devoting one-half of their time to classroom supervision; 8 gave one-third of their time; 11, one-fourth; 21, one-sixth; 12, one-tenth; and the rest none. Sixteen of the 64 reported just enough time to classroom practice to meet the requirements of the law.

It appears from the above that the office tenure is too short to make possible the initiation and prosecution of concerted, well-organized policies to upbuild the schools. No sooner has a superintendent got big plans under way than he must yield to a successor, who, likely as not, is pledged to some other policy. To remove the office from party politics and make its tenure indefinite is the only sure way to make the superintendent the chief educational official of the county as he should be.

The salaries are insufficient to attract well-prepared, experienced men and women to the office. Many superintendents receive only the minimum of \$900. At all times, but particularly in these war times, such an allowance is scarcely enough to hold body and soul together, to say nothing about using a part of the income for professional improvement.

The academic and professional qualifications required to qualify for the office are too low. Only educators of long successful experience, holding college or university degrees, or advanced-course, normal-school diplomas and State certificates or life diplomas should be eligible.

The superintendent should finally have an adequate working staff to aid him in giving the county an efficient system of administration and supervision such as the law assumes that he gives.

Increasing importance of the county superintendency.—The first county superintendencies in the United States were organized to administer and apportion the school funds, to keep records of school population and attendance, to enforce the school laws, and in other ways carry out the will of the people. These duties did not require

any particular qualities or training; therefore, the positions could be filled in the same way as other civil offices in the county, through seasonal election by the general electorate.

The rapid changes in rural life have thrust new responsibilities on the county superintendent as well as on his teachers. He still retains the clerical and financial duties given the office at the time of its founding. The instructional work in the schools has grown vastly in scope and importance and should receive much of his time. The improvement of teaching staffs by means of reading-circle work, institutes, and teachers' associations is another new task falling to him. He should, finally, be a rural and agricultural expert who can inspire, guide, and assist in organization for rural leadership.

Such a multiplicity of school work is quite beyond the abilities of a person chosen merely for clerical aptness from the general electorate. It demands, in a word, a good organizer, a person of exceptional business ability, a professional supervisor with good ability to assist his teachers, a person of unlimited energy and the courage of his convictions.

A proposed county system of education.—The important position of chief county educational officer in South Dakota can, in the conviction of the survey committee, best attain its highest efficiency and most effectively influence school education through a complete reorganization of the whole system of county schools. This can be done effectively and economically without in any way interfering with genuine democracy in education.

The survey committee, to this end, recommends:

1. The organization of a county board of education to have the management of the educational affairs of each county.
2. The election, by the county board of education, of a professional county superintendent to be the chief educational official of the county and executive officer of the board.

The county board of education.—This board should in organization and functions be a prototype of the State board of regents of education. It should be composed of five citizens selected from the county at large, known for their ability and probity, elected for a five-year term from at large over the county, one member to retire each year. Vacancies on the board should be filled by the county board of commissioners for the unexpired term. The board should receive all necessary traveling expenses and a reasonable per diem to compensate them for their time. The board should be strictly legislative, leaving the executive duties to the county superintendent.

The chief powers and duties of the county board of education may be summarized as follows:

1. To enforce the laws relating to education, and the rules and regulations of the State board of regents of education, within their respective counties.

2. To elect the county superintendent, and appoint a deputy superintendent and all necessary supervisors and office assistants; also

PROPOSED PLAN FOR ORGANIZATION OF COUNTY SYSTEM OF EDUCATION

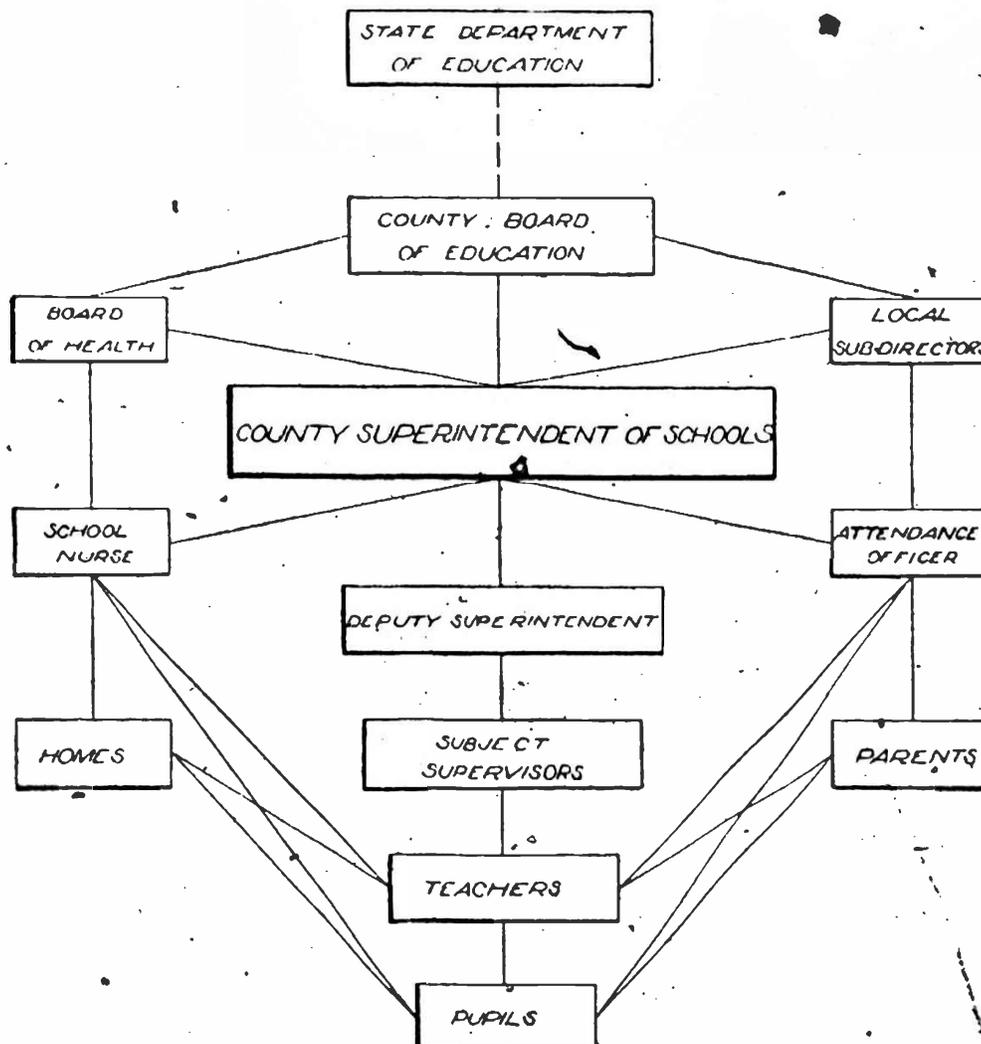


FIG. 4.

to elect one subdirector for each school community within their jurisdiction, provided the county is organized on the county unit plan.

3. To have direct charge of all county schools in counties of more than 2,000 children of school age, and in such other counties as may take advantage of the county unit act, including the closing of unnecessary schools, building new schools, consolidating schools and conveying children to school, and organizing rural high schools.¹

4. To elect all teachers needed in the county schools on nomination by the county superintendent.

¹ See note on page 80.

5. To levy a uniform school tax on all the taxable property of the county, under legal limitations; and to expend the funds thus procured to equalize educational advantages among all the school children of the county.

6. To exercise all other powers and duties not enumerated above, but which are prescribed by law.

The county superintendent of schools.—In electing its chief executive official, the county superintendent, the county board of education should not be restricted to the county or even the State. The best candidate from anywhere in the country is none too good. Neither should the board be restricted by a candidate's religion, party affiliation, or sex. The term of office should at first be probationary, though never less than four years. Thereafter it should become permanent. The salary should be not less than \$2,500 per annum in all county unit counties, and not less than \$1,500 in counties not so organized.

The chief powers and duties of the county superintendent of schools should be—

1. To act as executive officer of the county board of education, and to execute, under their direction, the educational policies determined upon by the board.

2. To act as chief educational official of the county, in which capacity he should represent the county board of education.

3. To see that the compulsory attendance act is enforced and the child welfare laws obeyed.

4. To nominate, for appointment by the county board of education, one deputy superintendent or professional supervisor for each fifty schools within his jurisdiction.

5. To supervise the classroom practice of all county schools, either in person or through his assistants.

6. To carry out all policies of the county board, and have charge, under direction of the board, of all schools, including continuation school activities, night schools, part-time schools, short courses, etc., undertaken for promotion of vocational and other education within the county.

7. To have charge of health education in the county, including health inspection done in conjunction with the county board of health, and to direct the work of the county nurse, if such a one is appointed.

8. To keep full records of all educational activities in his county, and to make reports from time to time to the county board of education, and to the State superintendent of public instruction.

9. To examine candidates for special teachers' certificates.

10. To perform such other duties as by law belong to the office.

Chapter VIII.

SCHOOL POPULATION, ENROLLMENT, AND ATTENDANCE.

The best evidence by which to judge the effectiveness of a school system is the extent to which it is utilized by the people of the community or State. If a school system is well organized and firmly administered, a large per cent of the school population will be enrolled in the schools. If the teachers in charge understand their tasks well, treat the children as they should be treated, and teach subject matter well adapted to the needs of the children, a large per cent of the enrollment will be regular in attendance. If, on the other hand, the people neglect to make full use of the schools, or the children lack interest in their studies and attend school irregularly, it is fair to assume that the schools are poorly organized and managed, and are not well adapted to community needs.

The present chapter discusses the topics of school population, enrollment, and daily attendance in South Dakota. From the discussion it is easy to decide whether or not the schools meet the reasonable expectations of the people.

The school population.—The schools of South Dakota are legally open to children over 6 and under 21 years of age. The compulsory school age includes all children between 8 and 18 years. A considerable number of children enter school before they are 6 years, though very few continue in the public schools till they are 21. In this State the total range of school population is estimated by the United States Commissioner of Education at 193,417. Several thousand children under 6 years of age are enrolled, although the legal school age is "over 6 years, and under 21 years." This group includes 176,867 children and youths. Unfortunately, the department of public instruction does not divide the school population into elementary, secondary and higher school groups. To obtain the required data considerable work was entailed on the survey committee. The elementary school group is 119,104. This group and the other groups given below are based on figures obtained from the county superintendents and are at least fairly accurate. The high school population is 42,655 and the college group, 15,018. Figure 5 shows the range in school population graphically.

The rural school population has made little change in the past five-year period, showing, indeed, a slight decline between 1911 and 1914, due probably to the land rush and later "proving up" on claims

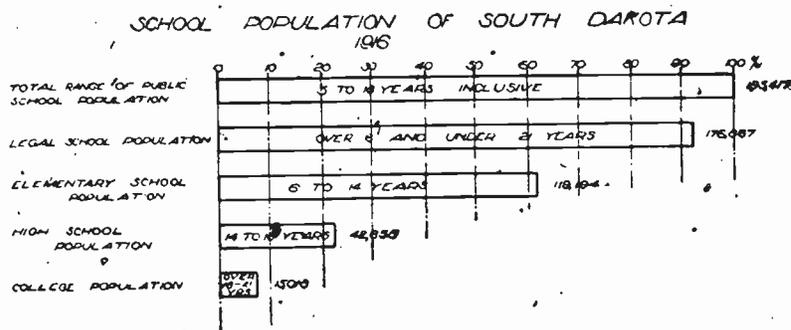


FIG. 6.

and returns to town and homes in other States. Since 1914 there has been a gradual increase in school population. The independent schools have shown a regular increase for the five-year period, being

INDEPENDENT SCHOOL POPULATION
AND ENROLMENT BY YEARS

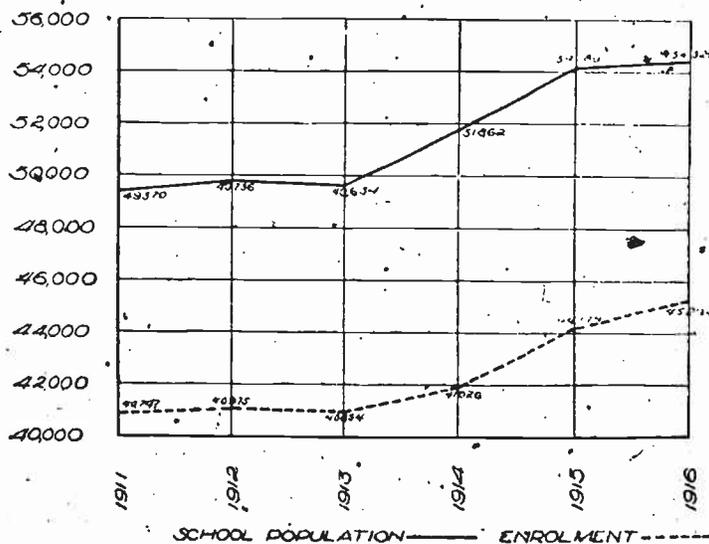


FIG. 7.

49,370 in 1911 and 54,325 in 1916. It appears (figs. 6 and 7) that a considerable percentage of this school population makes no use of the schools placed at their disposal by the State. Thus in 1916 only 72.4 per cent of the rural school population and 83.4 per cent of the in-

dependent school population attended school. If the South Dakota schools were 100 per cent efficient and the people were 100 per cent able and willing to utilize the schools, a somewhat larger per cent of the school population would be enrolled in the schools; although it could not reach 100 per cent, since, as was stated above, a considerable number of these people are already engaged in life activities.

Figured on the basis of the school population between 5 and 18 years of age, the enrollment is even less satisfactory, being 81.04 per cent in 1889-90; 74.49 per cent in 1899-1900; 77.70 per cent in 1909-

RURAL SCHOOL POPULATION AND
ENROLLMENT BY YEARS

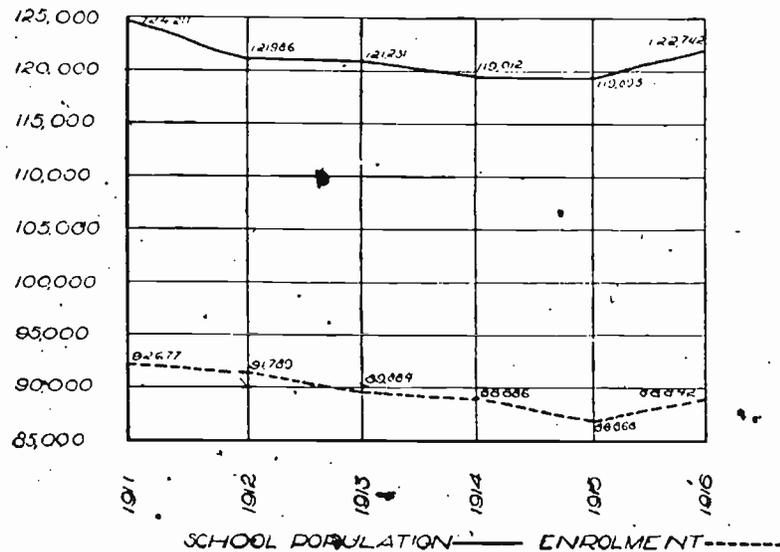


FIG. 7.

10; and only 69.35 per cent in 1915-16. This gradual decline in enrollment may be accounted for by a stricter enforcement of the legal entrance age than formerly, although there is no evidence at hand to prove the assertion. But just how does South Dakota compare in school enrollment with other Middle Western and Western States? Table 6 is the answer to this query. The State ranks twentieth in a group of 22 States. It would seem therefore that more of the school population would be enrolled if the schools had the requisite drawing power, and if the compulsory attendance laws were enforced without fear or favor.

TABLE 6.—Per cent of school population (children between 5 and 18 years) enrolled in the North Central and Western States, 1916.¹

1. California	94.47	12. Indiana	80.19
2. Iowa	90.11	13. Minnesota	78.01
3. Wyoming	88.04	14. Oregon	77.61
4. Utah	85.06	15. Nevada	76.27
5. Nebraska	84.84	16. Ohio	74.34
6. Idaho	84.68	17. Washington	73.01
7. Kansas	83.28	18. North Dakota	72.90
8. Michigan	82.62	19. Illinois	71.64
9. Colorado	81.94	20. South Dakota	69.35
10. Arizona	81.54	21. Wisconsin	66.75
11. Missouri	81.08	22. New Mexico	64.79

Compulsory school attendance.—The compulsory attendance period in this State includes children from 8 to 16 years of age. The compulsory period is longer than in some States, though none too long, as may be seen from the age-grade tables (pp. 45), according to which several thousand children between the ages of 16 and 19 years are still in the elementary grades.

The real question is, Can the attendance law now on the statute books be satisfactorily enforced? In the towns and cities, yes; but in rural districts it is more difficult. The law provides for a paid truant officer for towns and cities, who works under the direction of the city superintendent and local board of education. For the rural schools the county superintendent is *ex officio* truant officer. Enforcement of the act here depends on the superintendent's initiative and fearlessness. In the first place, it is difficult to discover habitual truancy cases till they are of long standing; in the second place, the votes of these people are cast in the biennial election for or against the county superintendent, which makes the whole a delicate matter to handle. Of the 64 superintendents, 35 reported the law well enforced; 5 reported that it was not enforced in their counties; and 24 declared it was not as well enforced as it might be.

Under the reorganization proposed in Chapter VII these difficulties could be obviated. The superintendent would become responsible for his acts solely to the county board and the State department of public instruction, and he would have clerical assistants to help him administer the county school system on a modern plane. The teachers, also appointed by the county board, could be directed to make monthly reports to the county superintendent, on specially prepared blanks, stating just what number of children and who, coming within the law, are not enrolled. The county superintendent, on behalf of the county board of education and the State department of education, should then begin immediate proceedings under the law.

Daily attendance and school enrollment.—An efficient school system not alone enrolls a large per cent. of the children, but it holds all

¹ Montana not reported.

who are physically and mentally fit in daily attendance until they have at least finished the elementary-school course. Inclement weather, long distance to school, bad roads, and, particularly, lagging interest in school work contribute to irregularity of attendance. In an efficient system, such as the county unit can provide, schools are erected where they are needed and nowhere else; the schools are larger, the teachers better—because better paid; and the work is made interesting and attractive enough to sustain, in the children, a desire to be regular in attendance.

That school conditions in South Dakota are far from satisfactory is evidenced by the poor daily attendance on the already small enrollment. In 1910 the average daily attendance in all the schools was only 64 per cent; in 1913 the attendance reached 75.5 per cent; but in 1915-16 it was down to 70 per cent. With the enrollment at 69.35 per cent of the school population, the actual attendance on the basis of school population (1916) would be 48.54 per cent. In other words, less than one-half of the school population actually use the schools of the State, day by day, throughout the short school year. In daily attendance South Dakota again ranks in twentieth place in a group of 23 States, Illinois standing at the head of the list with

LENGTH OF SCHOOL TERM IN MONTHS
RURAL SCHOOLS ONLY

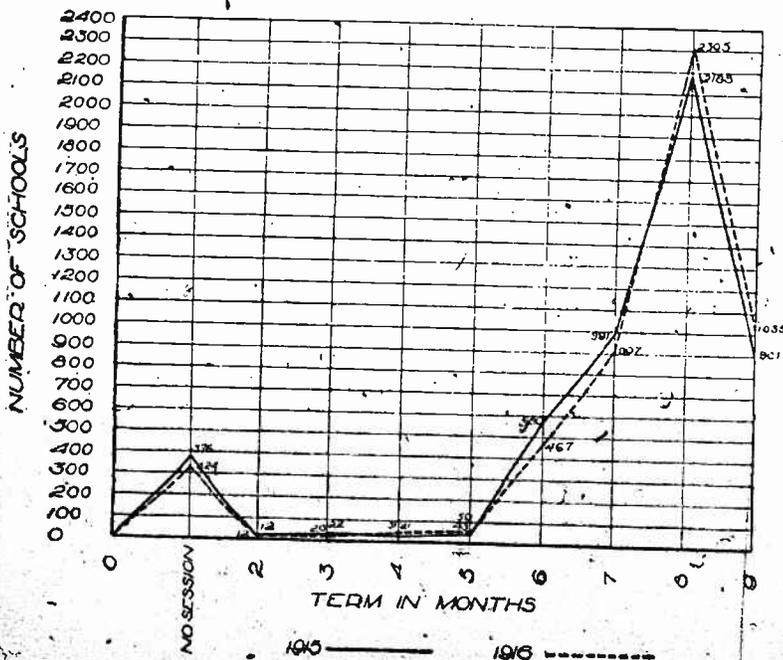


FIG. 8.

an attendance of 89.8 per cent and Oregon second with 89.7. The average for the United States is 75.5 per cent, which is 5.5 higher than for South Dakota. Low daily attendance, even more than poor enrollment, can be traced directly to an ineffective teaching process, due perhaps more to the small unit organization and all the weaknesses that go with it than to anything else.

Length of the school year.—The next question is, How many days in the year are the schools kept open for teaching purposes? In 1889-90 the schools of the State were kept open 145 days; in 1899-1900 they were open only 129.1 days; in 1909-10 this increased to 165.9 days; and in 1915-16 to 170 days. The actual average attendance of each person enrolled was only 118.9 days. Figure 8 shows graphically the length, in months, of 2,400 rural schools.

This important factor in school administration has been approached by the committee from another angle. A study was made, with the help of the county superintendents and teachers, of two rural schools in each county, one school being classed as "good," the other as "indifferent." The study included a calculation from the school registers for the last eight years, and shows exactly how many or how few days these children have spent in school. Figure 9 makes the standard of nine school months for eight years the basis of the graph. On this basis it is seen that the 30 schools are open for pupils, on the average, only 88 per cent of the time of the standard; and the average number of days in the school life of these 177 pupils is only 68 per cent of the standard.

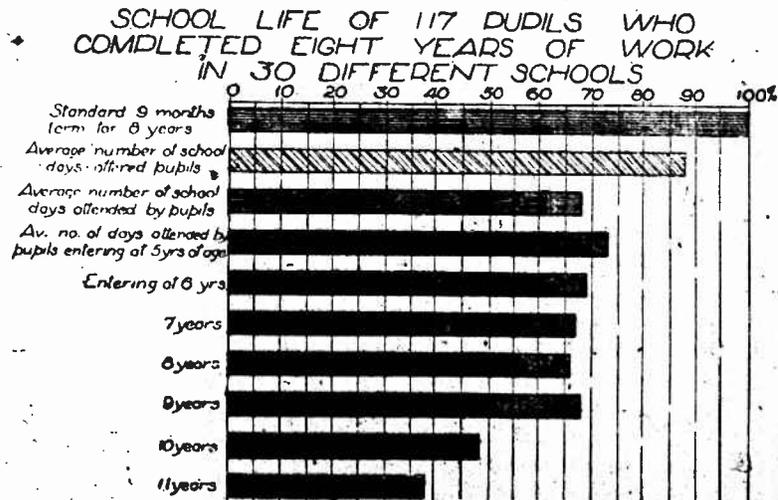


FIG. 9

This fundamental weakness in South Dakota's public-school system is contrasted in the following figures with the length of the school year in all the different kinds of schools in the Canadian Province of Saskatchewan.

Rural, town, and village schools.

1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916
155.0	148.61	146.46	157.89	154.17	158.0	151.09	157	163	167	195
204.0	205.40	208.08	202.20	193.57	187.0	192.00	192	197	201	202
179.5	177.00	152.63	160.10	158.59	163.0	165.44	183	188	184	198

Saskatchewan was carved out of the old North West Territory about 12 years ago. It has realized from the inception of its provincial life that to utilize liberally the school-plants which have been provided at great outlay is good policy. The Saskatchewan schools are annual schools, most of them being open throughout the growing season of the year. The longest vacation—about four weeks—comes usually immediately after the Christmas holidays, when the winter is most severe. Schools for an agricultural population should be in operation during the summer season, to make possible a utilization of the land for gardening and agricultural experimentation—out of which the new curriculum must largely spring. South Dakota would be wise to emulate the example of Saskatchewan in these matters.

Tables 7 and 8 give the enrollment and attendance by months for each of two groups of children: 32,000 rural children and 15,000 village children in South Dakota. The tables represent the best schools in the State. The 32,367 rural children enrolled in November, 1916, are reduced to 13,478 in May, because the schools close so early in the season. In these respects, at least, the village schools make a much better showing.

TABLE 7.—School attendance by months—rural.

Attendance.	November, 1916.	December, 1916.	January, 1917.	February, 1917.	March, 1917.	April, 1917.
Number enrolled.....	32,367	32,342	31,357	29,773	28,159	25,063
Average attendance.....	24,783	24,932	22,817	21,353	20,933	18,696
Percentage of attendance.....	76	77	72	72	78	74

Attendance.	May, 1917.	June, 1917.	July, 1917.	August, 1917.	September, 1917.	October, 1917.
Number enrolled.....	13,478	881			23,760	28,134
Average attendance.....	10,216	665			18,500	22,187
Percentage of attendance.....	74	78			77	78

SCHOOL POPULATION, ENROLLMENT, AND ATTENDANCE. 45

TABLE 8.—School attendance by months—village.

Attendance.	Novem-ber, 1916.	Decem-ber, 1916.	January, 1917.	Febru-ary, 1917.	March, 1917.	April, 1917.
Number enrolled.....	12,925	15,525	15,468	15,197	14,728	14,110
Average attendance.....	10,338	13,012	12,415	12,328	12,251	11,896
Percentage of attendance.....	79	84	79	82	83	86

Attendance.	May, 1917.	June, 1917.	July, 1917.	August, 1917.	Septem-ber, 1917.	October, 1917.
Number enrolled.....	12,610				15,019	15,839
Average attendance.....	10,793				13,326	13,704
Percentage of attendance.....	86				88	86

Advancement of children in school.—Normal children are expected to enter school in this State at the age of 6 years. If they advance one grade each year, they should finish the elementary school course in their fourteenth year. Any average school, reasonably well taught and open for 8 to 9 months annually, should be able to prepare the pupils for their eighth-grade examinations in 8 years' time.

The survey committee has made an age-grade study of nearly 53,000 rural children and nearly 23,000 children in village schools, to ascertain just how early in life the children enter school, how rapid is their advancement, and how well sustained their attendance in school. The results are tabulated in Tables 9 and 10 below. Table 9 enrolls 52,923 children; of these 10,496 are in Grade I. Seventeen hundred and ninety-eight entered school before reaching the sixth year. They are under age and ahead of their classes. Four thousand nine hundred and sixty children are of normal age and grade; while 2,277 are one year behind normal grade; 648 are two years behind; 171, three years, and so on. A similar analysis can be applied to Table 10, with just as interesting results.

TABLE 9.—Age-grade of 53,000 rural pupils.

Grades.	Under 6.	Over 6 years up to 7.	Over 7 years up to 8.	Over 8 years up to 9.	Over 9 years up to 10.	Over 10 years up to 11.	Over 11 years up to 12.	Over 12 years up to 13.	Over 13 years up to 14.	Over 14 years up to 15.	Over 15 years up to 16.	Over 16 years up to 17.	Over 17 years up to 18.	Over 18 years up to 19.	Total by grades.
I.....	1,708	4,960	2,239	891	294	126	66	51	43	22	0	4	2	0	10,496
II.....	18	1,010	2,422	1,755	708	269	125	61	27	20	0	1	0	0	6,528
III.....		105	855	2,171	1,507	865	305	153	77	42	16	8	3	1	6,108
IV.....		9	108	884	2,148	1,690	958	438	215	107	44	22	8	1	6,632
V.....			19	106	814	1,866	1,560	985	481	247	104	32	5	5	6,225
VI.....				11	142	799	1,600	1,703	1,013	558	295	90	26	3	6,340
VII.....					6	89	438	1,208	1,378	1,042	521	186	69	24	4,959
VIII.....						16	149	685	1,297	1,608	1,130	605	190	58	5,738
Total of ages.....	1,816	6,093	5,743	5,818	5,619	5,720	5,199	5,284	4,531	3,646	2,110	919	333	92	52,923

TABLE 10.—Age-grade of 23,000 village pupils.

Grade	Under 6.	Over 6 years up to 7.	Over 7 years up to 8.	Over 8 years up to 9.	Over 9 years up to 10.	Over 10 years up to 11.	Over 11 years up to 12.	Over 12 years up to 13.	Over 13 years up to 14.	Over 14 years up to 15.	Over 15 years up to 16.	Over 16 years up to 17.	Over 17 years up to 18.	Over 18 years up to 19.	Total by grades.
I.....	492	2,277	648	171	58	10	3	2	3	0	2				3,696
II.....		480	1,395	585	180	48	19	9	1	1					2,525
III.....		40	519	1,290	663	238	80	13	9	11	5	0	1		2,908
IV.....		26	364	1,178	718	335	191	54	26	6	2				2,933
V.....				11	323	925	718	341	151	65	26	6			2,599
VI.....				3	24	326	861	689	353	183	91	33	5		2,611
VII.....					3	274	777	716	395	155	47	22	7		2,461
VIII.....						3	48	264	687	778	440	268	61	28	2,186
Total.....	490	2,823	3,626	3,280	1,999	1,930	2,200	2,159	1,956	1,399	760	294	89	37	21,489

Tables 11 and 12 summarize the data contained respectively in Tables 9 and 10. These summaries show conclusively that the rural and village children have not made the normal advancement in school that might have been expected. The tables disclose these two facts: (1) That an unusually large number of children—rural 51.17 per cent and village 39.87 per cent—are over age, and one or more years behind normal standing; and (2) that the wastage up through the grades is very large.

TABLE 11.—Rural children under age, normal age, and over age.

Grade.	Number in each grade.				Per cent in each grade.		
	Under age.	Normal age.	Over age.	Total.	Under age.	Normal age.	Over age.
I.....	1,798	1,960	3,738	10,496	17.13	47.26	35.61
II.....	1,037	2,322	2,966	6,325	15.90	38.65	45.45
III.....	860	2,171	2,957	6,108	15.71	35.54	48.74
IV.....	1,001	2,148	3,183	6,632	15.08	32.39	52.52
V.....	930	1,866	3,420	6,225	15.09	29.97	54.94
VI.....	952	1,690	3,688	6,240	15.26	25.64	59.10
VII.....	531	1,208	3,220	4,959	10.71	24.36	64.93
VIII.....	820	1,267	3,591	5,738	14.31	22.09	62.59
Total.....	8,068	17,172	27,083	52,323	15.25	33.88	51.17

TABLE 12.—Village children under age, normal age, and over age.

Grade.	Number in each grade.				Per cent in each grade.		
	Under age.	Normal age.	Over age.	Total.	Under age.	Normal age.	Over age.
I.....	492	2,277	907	3,696	13.42	62.11	21.47
II.....	487	1,465	843	2,825	17.23	52.03	29.84
III.....	550	1,290	1,050	2,908	19.23	44.67	36.10
IV.....	1,548	748	617	2,933	53.46	25.51	21.03
V.....	367	925	1,307	2,609	14.12	35.50	50.29
VI.....	353	864	1,484	2,511	13.66	33.65	52.69
VII.....	322	777	1,402	2,501	12.89	31.06	56.05
VIII.....	315	687	1,484	2,466	12.68	27.83	59.09
Total.....	4,463	9,072	8,954	22,489	19.85	40.34	39.87

Table 13 gives the grade range of rural children who, under normal conditions, should have reached the eighth year. Out of a total of 4,531 children who should have reached the eighth grade, all except 1,297, or 28.62 per cent, are still below that grade.

TABLE 13.—Grade range of rural children who under normal conditions should be in eighth grade.

Grades.	In Grade I.	In Grade II.	In Grade III.	In Grade IV.	In Grade V.	In Grade VI.	In Grade VII.	In Grade VIII.	Total.
Number of pupils	43	27	77	215	481	1,013	1,378	1,297	4,531
Per cent	0.94	0.59	1.69	4.74	10.60	22.35	30.41	28.62	100

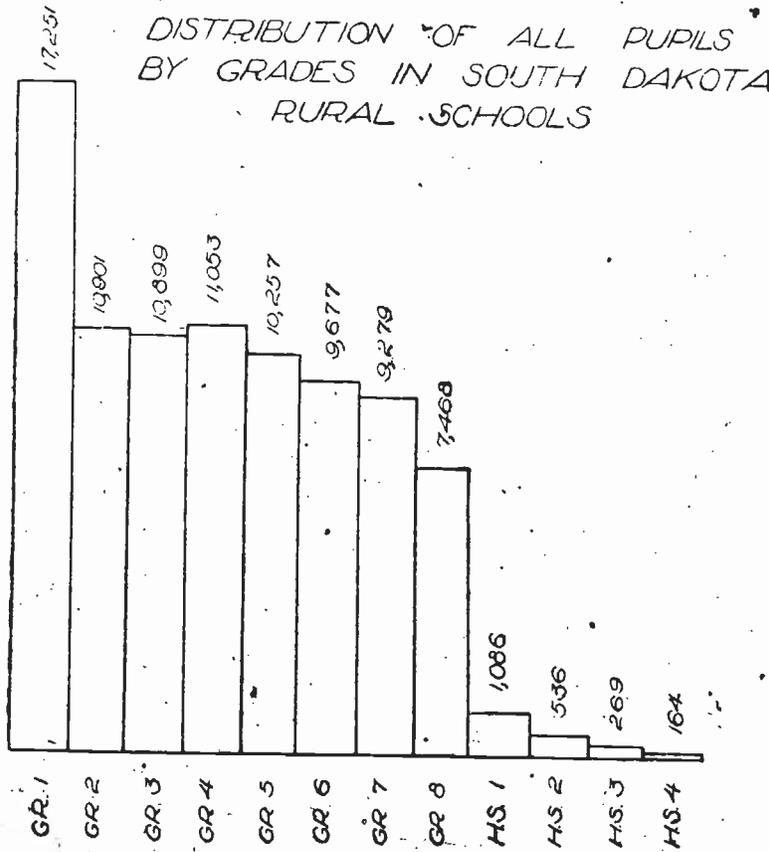


FIG. 10.

Figure 10 shows graphically the wastage up through the grades. This graph is based on the whole number of children enrolled in the rural schools. Grade 1 contains 17,251 pupils; this drops to 10,899 in Grade III, after which it increases to 11,053 in Grade IV. This

great variation is due to loose classification of the beginners, who are often held as repeaters in the first grade and are later promoted direct to the third grade. When the eighth year is reached only 7,468 children remain out of the much larger total which was enrolled in the first grade. But now comes the most serious break; of all these children, only 1,086 enter rural high-school courses, dwindling finally to 164 students in the last year. To be sure some rural pupils do manage to attend high school in town.

As the educated leadership of rural communities must come from the schools, agricultural South Dakota must either seek this education away from the open country or go without the leadership.

Summary.—The State has invested millions of dollars in permanent school plants. This great investment is not utilized as fully as it should be. The chief cause is indifferent school organization and administration, and a teaching process that does not give the children the kind of instruction needed in this great agricultural State. This is proved by the comparatively small enrollment of school population and the low daily attendance. In enrollment of school population the State ranks twentieth among the 23 States comprising the Middle Western and Western groups; in daily attendance likewise it is twentieth. If the daily attendance were reckoned on the basis of school population instead of on enrollment, less than one-half of the school population would be in school daily. The school year is 170 days long. This is more than in the poorer States, but behind the better States. The schools ought to be reorganized as all-year schools, in keeping with the new kind of school proposed later in the report. An average pupil's school life is surprisingly short, because of late enrollment and irregular attendance. Very few rural children, unfortunately, get the advantages of secondary and higher schools. Nearly all the culture and all the technical and practical education of South Dakota farm folk must be acquired in these small schools, during the short period now allotted to school life. Every thoughtful person will agree that the level of cultural and practical leadership can not be raised much before radical changes are made in the organization of the small schools, chiefly the rural schools.

Recommendations.—The survey committee recommends: 1. A careful annual census of the school population in all school districts of the State, to be made by the authorities now provided by law, but under immediate supervision from the State department of public instruction, on uniform blanks to be furnished by the State. The census should classify the school population as follows: 5 to 18 years; 6 to 21 years; over 8 and under 16 years; 6 to 14 years; and over 14 to 18 years. This would give the desired basis for a complete classification for State and Federal uses.

2. The compulsory attendance act to be enforced by, and responsibility for enforcement placed on, the State department of public instruction working through the county boards of education.

3. A system of records to be perfected by the State department of education, to be used in transferring pupils from community to community, that will make evasion of school attendance impossible.

4. A practical reorganization of the school year as follows: The school year to open January 1 of each year, at which time new teachers are to be hired and school work begun. This would make it possible to retain the same teachers for both spring and fall of the year, and make easy the utilization of the school premises for gardening and agricultural experimentation (see p. 70).

5. Appropriate legislation to lengthen the teaching year to a minimum of 9 months of 20 teaching days each: provided that the teaching hours may be shortened during the season of the year when the pupils' labor is essential to agricultural and other industrial work.

Chapter IX.

SCHOOL SUPPORT: WHAT THE STATE PAYS FOR EDUCATION.

Sources of support.—The sources of school support in the State of South Dakota are local taxes levied by the local school districts and township school district, county taxes, and sundry income from the State permanent fund. In addition to these sources recourse may be had to the sale of bonds when the schools require funds for the purchase of school sites and the construction of school buildings. South Dakota is one of a small group of States which do not levy a general State tax for education. The other States of this group are Idaho, Oregon, and Wyoming.

Rate and amount of taxation.—The local taxes are levied by the district school board, which may, under law, raise for all purposes not to exceed 20 mills on the dollar yearly; but the regular annual tax levy must not exceed 10 mills of the assessed value of property in common school districts, nor exceed 15½ mills in independent school districts. Boards may issue bonds not to exceed 4 per cent of the assessed valuation of the property, with the approval of the governor. The money thus raised, as previously mentioned, is to be used solely for the purchase of school sites and the building of school-houses.

The county tax is placed by the county commissioners, who levy a tax of \$1 on each elector of the county. The proceeds of this tax go to support the common schools. The money is distributed in proportion to the number of school children between 6 and 21 years.

Additional funds are secured from fines collected in the course of enforcing the laws, such as the laws that deal with the removal of timber or wood from school, public, or endowment lands; the general compulsory school attendance; child labor; and laws which prohibit the making of false reports by district school board clerks or treasurers, or which penalize the failure of the State superintendent or district officers to report.

The State permanent school fund consists of the proceeds from the sale of school lands, which are invested in farm mortgages, county, school, and municipal bonds, and of deferred payments on outstanding contracts.

The State permanent school fund.—The schools of South Dakota are especially fortunate in the way they have been endowed with school lands. Through a policy of wise forethought the State has conserved for school use 2,339,912 acres of common-school land, and 597,285 acres of endowment and public-building lands, making a total of 2,937,197 acres. At the close of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1917, the permanent school fund amounted to \$9,112,076.07, while the deferred payments on school land contracts amounted to \$4,820,226.94, making a grand total of \$13,932,303.01. All this amount is drawing interest at the rate of 5 and 6 per cent. The interest and income apportioned to the common schools on December 1, 1917, was \$1,113,324.02, or \$6.22 per capita for each child of school age in the State. Besides this, there was apportioned to the higher educational institutions and schools for defectives and the industrial schools for the fiscal year 1917, \$111,925.89.

The source of this income has been wisely protected by law, which prohibits the school lands from being sold at less than \$10 per acre. It is believed that when all the school lands are finally sold there will be a permanent fund of at least \$90,000,000, as the present price paid for these lands averages from \$17 to \$40 per acre.

Growth of receipts and expenditures.—Tables 14, 16, and 19 show the general tendency with respect to receipts and expenditures of funds used in the support of the public schools in the State for the past four years.

TABLE 14.—School monies received during the last four years.

Year.	Income of permanent school funds and rental of school lands.	From State tax or appropriation.	From local tax or appropriation.	From other sources, State and local.	Total, excluding balances on hand and proceeds of bond sales.
1912-13.....	\$79,005	\$2,280,214	\$250,098	\$3,287,157
1913-14.....	392,944	3,061,650	211,020	5,299,528
1914-15.....	1,092,655	4,277,781	337,092	5,618,304
1915-16.....	1,010,274	1,716,029	328,254	6,060,557

The table above indicates that there has been relatively little increase in the income from the permanent fund during the last three years, the principal gain being in the amount of local tax levied. A slight loss is indicated in the amount derived from other sources.

TABLE 15.—Sources of receipts during the years 1915 and 1916.

Sources.	Rural districts.		Independent and consolidated districts.		All districts.	
	1915	1916	1915	1916	1915	1916
Balance on hand, close fiscal year.....	\$1,155,603.62	\$1,257,064.08	\$413,146.77	\$824,476.76	\$1,568,450.39	\$2,081,540.84
Received from appropriation.....	668,173.23	707,998.57	306,479.27	308,271.06	1,002,654.50	1,016,273.53
Received from tax.....	2,562,749.39	2,516,586.76	1,713,034.65	1,819,442.95	4,277,784.04	4,716,029.71
Received from sale of bonds.....	131,610.33	239,762.59	716,515.61	282,578.48	848,126.17	522,341.07
Received from all other sources.....	109,575.43	120,881.19	228,347.04	207,372.41	337,922.47	328,253.60
Total.....	4,655,414.20	5,172,293.19	3,379,523.37	3,492,145.56	8,031,937.57	8,664,438.75
Total, excluding bond sales.....	3,500,110.58	3,915,299.11	2,966,376.60	2,667,668.80	6,466,487.19	6,582,897.91
Total, excluding bond sales and balance on hand.....	3,368,500.05	3,665,466.52	2,250,860.96	2,385,090.32	5,618,316.01	6,060,556.84

It appears from the above table that the amount received from the sale of bonds in 1915 was more than 10 per cent of the total receipts; in 1916 this proportion was nearly 6 per cent.

Expenditures.—While no attempt has been made to compare the relative growth of receipts and expenditures, Tables 16 and 19 are included to show the growth of expenditures for public education in the State during the last quadrennium.

TABLE 16.—Expenditure for public school education, based on school enrollment.¹

Year.	Total expenditure.	School enrollment.	Per capita expenditure.	Year.	Total expenditure.	School enrollment.	Per capita expenditure.
1914-13.....	\$4,109,642	132,764	\$30.96	1914-15.....	\$5,065,508	130,842	\$38.72
1913-14.....	4,538,028	130,812	34.68	1915-16.....	5,784,086	134,136	43.12

¹ Based on the Annual Report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1915-16.

If one compares South Dakota with the other 22 States in the north central and northwestern sections, the position of the State is not so favorable.

TABLE 17.—Amount expended on public schools for each child 5 to 18 years of age (1915-16).

1. Montana.....	\$65.71	14. Colorado.....	\$33.46
2. California.....	58.24	15. Ohio.....	33.37
3. Nevada.....	43.73	16. Michigan.....	32.03
4. Arizona.....	42.60	17. Kansas.....	31.79
5. Washington.....	38.91	18. Nebraska.....	31.37
6. Wyoming.....	38.81	19. South Dakota.....	29.72
7. Oregon.....	36.61	20. Illinois.....	29.07
8. Idaho.....	36.55	21. Wisconsin.....	24.80
9. North Dakota.....	36.43	22. Missouri.....	19.87
10. Iowa.....	35.60	23. New Mexico.....	16.76
11. Utah.....	35.51	United States.....	28.87
12. Indiana.....	34.13	Average.....	35.50
13. Minnesota.....	33.87	Median.....	34.13

TABLE 18.—Amount expended on public schools for each child 5 to 18 years of age in average attendance (1915-16)—North Central and Western States only.

1. Montana	\$86.37	14. Iowa	\$52.15
2. California	78.17	15. Indiana	51.77
3. Arizona	77.85	16. Utah	50.84
4. Nevada	76.28	17. Nebraska	50.06
5. North Dakota	69.62	18. Kansas	49.40
6. Washington	68.33	19. Michigan	47.60
7. Idaho	63.26	20. Illinois	45.18
8. South Dakota	61.26	21. Wisconsin	44.90
9. Wyoming	57.65	22. New Mexico	38.79
10. Minnesota	57.22	23. Missouri	33.65
11. Colorado	55.90	United States	41.72
12. Ohio	52.88	Average	57.50
13. Oregon	52.59	Median	52.88

TABLE 19.—Growth of expenditure per capita of population and relative rank of South Dakota among the Middle Western and Western States.

Year.	Amount per capita.	Relative rank.	Year.	Amount per capita.	Relative rank.
1912-13	56.99	27	1914-15	7.45	16
1913-14	6.86	32	1915-16	8.23	14

According to the Annual Reports of the United States Commissioner of Education, upon which Table 19 is based, in the year 1912-13 South Dakota ranked twenty-seventh among all the States in expenditure for public schools per capita of total population. In 1913-14 the State ranked thirty-second, the ratio of increase in expenditure per capita having fallen considerably. In the year 1914-15 the State ranked sixteenth, and in the year 1915-16 it was the fourteenth in rank, with an expenditure of \$8.23 per capita of total population. Montana ranks highest in per capita expenditure of total population, with \$14.14, which exceeds the expenditure of South Dakota by nearly 70 per cent.

According to Table 17, South Dakota ranks nineteenth among the 23 States under comparison with respect to the amount expended on public schools for each child 5 to 18 years of age (1915-16). A glance at the table shows that the State is considerably lower than either the average as represented by Utah or the median as represented by Indiana. Compared with Montana, California, and Washington, States which are giving much attention to the development of good public-school systems, the showing of South Dakota is very poor.

According to Table 18, however, South Dakota ranks much higher, although the amount expended on each child 5 to 18 years of age, based on average attendance, is only \$3.61 more than the average, which is approximately \$57.65, or that of Wyoming. Washington is expending over 11 per cent more than South Dakota, and California exceeds the latter State by over 27 per cent in this type of expenditure.

Readjustment of the basis for division of taxation.—According to Table 20, three important features in the present tax system deserve special consideration. The first is the relatively large proportion of income derived from the permanent funds as compared with the other States, South Dakota being exceeded in this respect by Nevada with 21.91 per cent and Wyoming with 38.8 per cent (1915-16).

TABLE 20.—Percentage analysis of school revenue.

Year.	Derived from permanent funds.	Derived from local tax, etc.	Derived from other sources.	Year.	Derived from permanent funds.	Derived from local tax, etc.	Derived from other sources.
1912-13.....	23.33	68.79	7.91	1914-15.....	17.85	76.11	6.01
1913-14.....	18.71	76.64	4.62	1915-16.....	19.50	71.20	6.30

This proportion of 19.50 per cent is high, compared with the average for the North Central division of States—3.12 per cent and the average of the western division—7.95 per cent.

The second feature is the absence of a general State tax for public-school support. This State tax averages for the entire country 15.03 per cent of the total school revenue. In the North Central division of States it amounts to 10.72 per cent, in the North Atlantic division 12.51 per cent, in the Western division 18.57 per cent, in the South Atlantic division 24.91 per cent, and in the South Central division 29.87 per cent.

The third feature is the relatively large proportion of school revenue which is raised by local district taxation, the county tax being of little significance. It is of interest to note that the taxpayers of the local districts are defraying about three-fourths of the public-school expenditure of the State. While this proportion differs but slightly from the average proportion for the entire country, yet in the light of the peculiar characteristics of the State there is evidence of the need of a redistribution of the burden and responsibility of taxation.

If the school districts were homogeneous in character, if there were a general equality of population, industrial activity, and wealth, as well as in educational aims, the district method of taxation might receive less criticism. But such equality of conditions does not hold to any great extent in any State, and certainly it does not hold in South Dakota.

South Dakota may be roughly divided into four geographical sections: The first includes 10 western counties with no railroads, few, if any, important tax-producing industries, and a meager population of 21,946 inhabitants; the second section includes 24 counties

with a small railroad mileage, a corresponding amount of taxable industries, and a population of 127,337; the third section includes 20 counties with considerable railroad mileage, a fair proportion of taxable industries, and a population of 200,032; the fourth section, which is largely in the eastern part of the State, includes 13 counties which have an extensive railroad mileage, a corresponding large proportion of taxable properties and industries of importance, and a population of 208,746.

It is perfectly natural to expect under the conditions mentioned above that there will be great difference in the character of the school districts of the State. It is evident that the school districts which are on the railroads will tend to be more populous, industrial, and to a certain extent more prosperous than those situated more distant. The schools of these wealthier and more populous districts can be operated to a greater advantage than can those which are in poorer and less populous communities. The larger average attendance and the correspondingly low per capita cost are not possible in the more remote and less-favored regions. The fluctuating population in many of the rural centers also tends to retard continuous and consistent development of the public-school support.

In many districts where consolidation of schools has been effected a lack of financial means still causes inefficiency, hardships, and a slowing up of educational progress of the community.

State and county taxes.—Notwithstanding the generous attitude of the people of the State toward public education, it is apparent that the present plans of school support are antiquated, inadequate, and entirely unsuited to a progressive, wealthy, and growing commonwealth of the rich Northwest. There is need of definite plans of support which will insure the successful carrying out of the best educational policies throughout the entire State. Especial attention should be given to the weaker, pioneer districts.

It is the conviction of the committee that a sound and progressive State policy of public education will be materially helped by shifting the burden of taxation. First, the county should be the responsible unit of local educational support in harmony with the plans of the State as a whole. In this manner it will be possible to equalize the conditions of taxation and expenditure within the constituent districts. The local districts should be allowed to supplement the county tax in order to more fully realize local ideals, because the county tax may not always be sufficient for that purpose. The county tax tends to insure a fair taxation and expenditure throughout its borders, but at that point it reaches its limitation.

In order to safeguard the interests of the State as a whole and develop the larger sections which are in need of help, a permanent

State tax is necessary. While South Dakota is blessed with an excellent income from its permanent funds, this is not a sufficient amount to meet the needs of an aggressive State policy. In the second place, the State should levy an annual school tax which, in addition to the income from the permanent funds, would amount to one-third of the total public-school revenue. Such a proportion properly expended will tend to equalize conditions throughout the State. The experience of some of the most progressive State school systems, such as are found in California, Washington, and New Jersey, shows the great value of a well-directed State tax of good proportions. According to the best information the majority of the public schools lying in the more remote and poorer districts of California and Washington are as well supported as the schools in the more favored and more populous communities.

The proceeds of the State tax should be used to extend a special aid to poor districts in the sparsely settled sections of the State where consolidation of schools is yet impracticable. It might also well be used as a stimulus to further consolidation of schools, and in assisting communities to maintain teacher-training departments in high schools; also for the association of district schools and for the maintenance of rural high schools. The amount of aid granted should be based on the aggregate daily attendance and the number of teachers employed rather than on the total school population of the county district, the proportion being two-thirds on aggregate attendance and one-third on the number of teachers employed.

Public education involves continually growing expenses.—The essential characteristics of first-class educational support are stability and growth. A fluctuating income can not bring good results. It is therefore necessary to raise and expend as large an amount of money as the State and the counties can afford in order to reach the maximum of efficiency. A study of the expenditures in some of the States with first-class public-school systems shows that these States have been willing to do nearly twice as much as South Dakota in order to reach their goal. Public education can not be a money-saving process. The present conditions in this country demand a much larger expenditure than usual in order to obtain the needed efficiency of school service.

Summary of recommendations.—The committee believes that the stability and growth of the public-school system in South Dakota require certain definite modifications in the present system of taxation. To this end it recommends:

1. The adoption of the county as the unit of local taxation; the funds when collected to be used to equalize educational advantages over the county.

2. The local school community to be authorized to levy taxes or to issue bonds for extraordinary purposes only, such as erecting new buildings and procuring larger sites and school farms.

3. The levying of a State tax equivalent to one-third of the whole school maintenance of the State (including the present permanent school fund).

4. The adoption of a permanent millage tax for the maintenance of the State's higher educational institutions, to be apportioned according to the needs of each institution, to supplant the present legislative appropriations.

5. The adoption of a new basis for the distribution of the present State permanent fund and future State taxes as follows: (a) The permanent fund to be distributed on the basis of aggregate daily attendance and the number of teachers employed, instead of as at the present on the basis of school population, provided that weak schools in sparsely settled sections of the State be credited with not to exceed 2,000 attendance days in addition to their actual aggregate daily attendance; (b) the proposed State taxes to be awarded for consolidation of schools, establishment of rural and other high schools, teacher training in high schools, etc., only when the local school communities have indicated their cooperation by agreeing to certain requirements made by law, as a stipulation under which such aid may be received.

Chapter X.

PRESENT STATUS OF RURAL SCHOOL PLANT AND ITS ADAPTABILITY TO PUBLIC NEEDS.

Introduction.—Before it can be decided whether a school meets the needs of a locality it is necessary to know both the community and the school. The opening chapter of this survey gives sufficient information, relative to the State and its people, for the reader to form an intelligent background of the community that is to be served by the school. Other chapters have enlarged upon the organization, administration and supervision of rural schools, their daily attendance, course of study and status of instruction. However, these do not comprise all the essentials of a school. In judging the efficiency of any enterprise in the industrial world the first consideration is generally given to the plant. This is no less true of the school. The attendance, course of study, and instruction are, in a greater or less degree, limited or expanded by the existing school plant. A study of the plant includes the grounds, buildings, equipment, and sanitary conditions. These form the basis for discussion in this chapter. The conclusions are based upon answers to questionnaires sent the teachers and from personal observations in eight counties representative of typical areas of the State. Questionnaires, either wholly or partly answered, were returned by 5,301 teachers. This represents over 90 per cent of the entire number of teachers. Of the questionnaires returned, 3,941 were from teachers in open country schools and 1,360 from teachers in villages.

School locations.—The following table gives the teachers' estimate of the area of the school grounds:

TABLE 21.—Size of school grounds.

Area.	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Percent.	Number.	Percent.
Less than 4 acre.....	148	5	18	4
Half acre.....	378	12	34	8
One acre.....	1,687	56	197	46
More than 1 acre.....	817	27	178	42
Total.....	3,030	100	427	100

Comparison of the data indicates that the area of over half of the grounds in the open-country school is 1 acre. Forty-two per cent of the village grounds contain more than 1 acre. The encouraging thing is that there are more grounds in both types of schools with more than 1 acre than with less than 1 acre. Replies were received from 3,388 teachers in open country and from 452 in the villages, as to whether the grounds were fenced. In the open country the grounds of 996 schools, or 29 per cent, were fenced, and in village schools 164, or 34 per cent, were fenced.

These replies from teachers indicate that a larger percentage of school grounds in village schools are fenced than in open-country schools. Nineteen per cent of the open-country schools report woven wire as the kind of fencing used.

Playgrounds.—Even though the school ground may consist of the traditional acre, the buildings are often placed in such a position as to prohibit the utilization of the greatest possible playground space. The following table shows the conditions in South Dakota:

TABLE 22.—Size of playgrounds.

Size.	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
No playground.....	50	2		
One-quarter acre.....	184	8	20	5
One-half acre.....	473	20	60	17
Over 1/2 acre.....	1,652	70	273	78
Total.....	2,359	100	353	100

The fact that grounds are reported with no playgrounds, or with one-fourth or one-half acre, seems to establish the fact that the buildings are not placed to the best advantage for the utilization of play space. In fact, the tendency is to place the school building in the center of the school lot.

On playground apparatus 3,427 rural teachers reported. Of this number 270, or 8 per cent, reported some equipment in this line. The condition is much better in the village schools. Replies from 486 teachers indicate 34 per cent with playground apparatus.

Experimental plats.—This includes small garden plats and larger plats used for experiments in agriculture. The results are based on answers from 3,488 teachers in the open-country school and 402 in the villages. The percentages are as follows: Open-country schools with experimental plats, 8 per cent; village schools with experimental plats, 61 per cent.

Condition of buildings.—The opinions of 3,486 rural teachers and 368 village teachers on the condition of repair of the school building are given on page 60.

TABLE 23.—Condition of buildings.

Condition.	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Good.....	1,123	32	211	58
Fair.....	1,376	45	115	31
Poor.....	787	23	42	11
Total.....	3,486	100	368	100

In the teachers' judgment the rural-school buildings are good in 32 per cent of the schools and fair in 45 per cent. Fifty-eight per cent of the buildings in villages are reported good. The observers were impressed with the generally good upkeep of the school buildings.

CONDITIONS OF OUTBUILDINGS
OF SOUTH DAKOTA

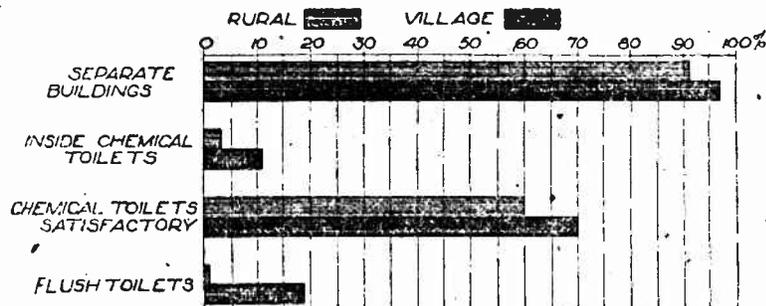


FIG. 11.

Outbuildings.—The data received from the questionnaires relative to outbuildings comprise information concerning location of out-houses and chemical and flush toilets. The tabulations are given below:

TABLE 24.—Outbuildings.

	Open country.		Village.	
	Total replies.	Per cent replying yes.	Total replies.	Per cent replying yes.
Separate outbuilding.....	3,727	91	506	97
Chemical toilets.....	3,442	3	401	77
Chemicals-satisfactory.....	108	60	48	70
Flush toilets.....	3,230	1	312	19

The prevalent type of outbuildings for open-country schools is to build both boys' and girls' toilets under one roof, and separate

them by a coal bin. No instances of chemical or flush toilets in rural schools were observed by the survey committee.

Lighting.—In measuring the correctness of schoolroom lighting consideration is given to the placing of the windows, to the relation of window space to floor space, and to the presence or absence of shades.

An examination of the data below, which are based on reports from teachers, indicates that 70 per cent of the open-country schools are cross-lighted and that the maximum window placing for village schools is 39 per cent left and rear.

RELATIVE POSITION OF WINDOWS IN 3,705 RURAL SCHOOLS IN SOUTH DAKOTA

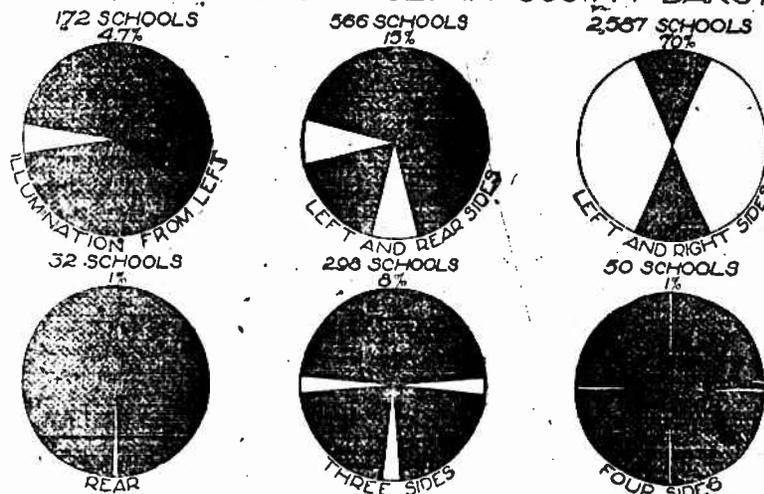


FIG. 12.

TABLE 25.—Lighting exposure.

Window placing.	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Left.	172	5	77	13
Left and rear.	536	15	228	39
Rear.	32	1	18	3
Left and right.	2,587	70	178	31
Three sides.	298	8	68	12
Four sides.	50	1	9	2
Total.	3,705	100	578	100

Replies were received from 3,296 teachers in open-country schools and from 486 teachers in village schools concerning the relation of window space to floor space. These results are as follows:

TABLE 26.—*Relation of floor space to window space.*

Window space vs. floor space.	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Less than 10 per cent.....	493	15	72	15
11 to 15 per cent.....	972	30	152	31
16 to 20 per cent.....	844	25	111	23
21 to 25 per cent.....	495	15	83	17
Over 26 per cent.....	522	15	65	13
Total.....	3,296	100	486	100

A comparison of the above data shows that more than two-thirds of the rooms in both open-country and village schools have insufficient light. The median is 17.12 per cent for the open country and 16.6 per cent for the villages.

These estimates of teachers on the lighting in open-country schools are quite in keeping with the conditions found by the survey committee. It is stated in the chapter on "Instruction and supervision in open-country and village schools" that the observers found the lighting unsatisfactory on one or all points in 79 per cent of the open-country schools and in 38 per cent of the village schools.

Heating and ventilating.—The replies of teachers on the subject of heating and ventilation are given below:

TABLE 27.—*Heating.*

Means.	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Unjacketed stove.....	1,993	55	111	29
Jacketed stove.....	1,323	36	153	38
Furnace.....	348	9	395	51
Total.....	3,664	100	659	100

TABLE 28.—*Ventilation.*

Means.	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Ventilating system.....	1,350	36	394	55
Windows.....	2,399	68	210	38
Other arrangement.....	240	6	37	7
Total.....	3,799	100	641	100

In these answers there is nothing to indicate whether sanitary heating and ventilating plants are included under the term "stove (jacketed)" or "furnace." It is probable that there has been some overlapping in the answers on these two items. The significant thing

in the answers is that more than half of the open-country schools are heated by unjacketed stoves. The observers found heating and ventilating systems or furnaces in 46 per cent of 48 open-country schools and in 82 per cent of 89 rooms in the villages.

It is only natural that 58 per cent of the open-country teachers should report windows as the only means of ventilation. Systems of ventilation in 55 per cent of the village schools are quite identical with 54 per cent of the village schools heated by furnaces.

HEATING APPARATUS UTILIZED
IN 3654 RURAL AND 570 VILLAGE
SCHOOLS IN SOUTH DAKOTA

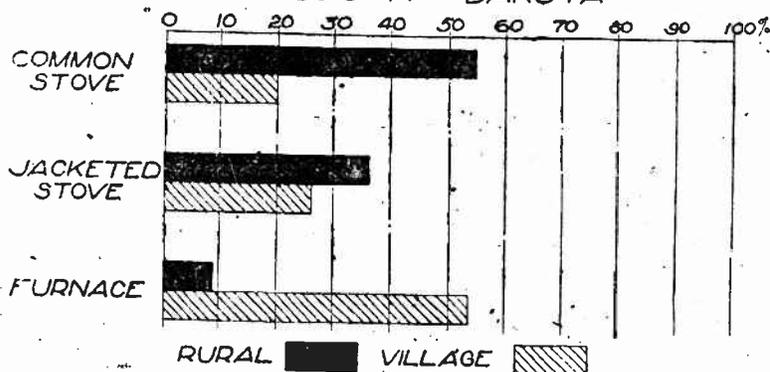


FIG. 13.

Drinking water.—A study of the drinking water includes information on the source of the water supply, its purity, and facilities for drinking. These replies from teachers are as follows:

TABLE 20.—Source of water.

	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Well on grounds.....	286	7	81	14
Neighbor's well.....	2,030	52	191	31
Spring.....	102	3	9	2
Cistern.....	365	9	86	16
Other supply.....	372	9	151	27
None.....	779	20	40	7
Total.....	3,935	100	537	100

The term "other supply" refers to children bringing their drinking water from home in bottles, jugs, or the like. "None" probably means that the pupils are not supplied with drinking water or that the district makes no provision for the same. The observers regretted to find many schools without any drinking water whatever.

According to the teachers' reports 52 per cent of the open-country schools carry the water from a neighbor's well. In a State like South Dakota, where settlement is not close, this often means that little children must carry water a long distance. In cold weather the temptation is to go without it rather than make the effort to go for it.

WATER SUPPLY FOR RURAL SCHOOLS IN SOUTH DAKOTA

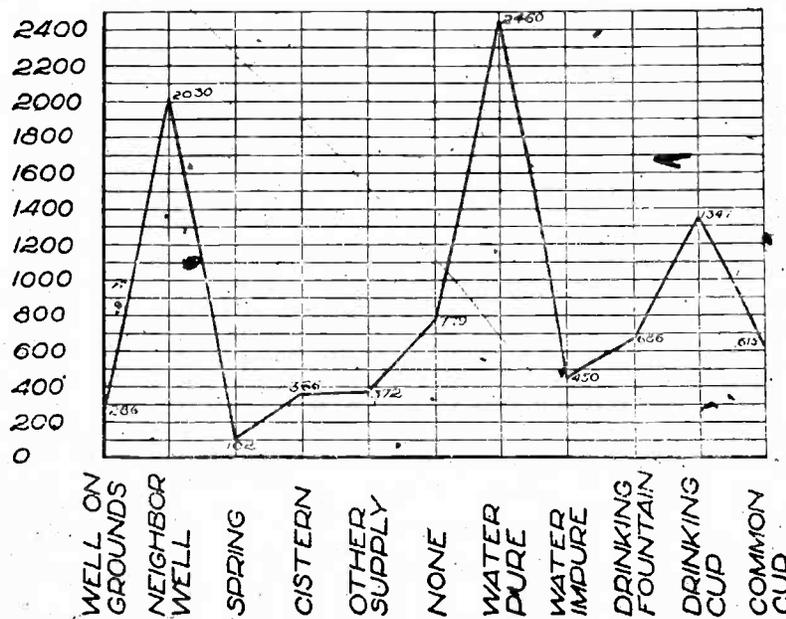


FIG. 14.

Relative to the purity of the drinking water, 2,910 open-country teachers and 359 village teachers gave their judgment. The following figures represent the percentage of teachers in open country and village who believe their drinking water is pure: Open country, 85 per cent; village, 92 per cent.

TABLE 30.—Facilities for drinking.

Facilities.	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Drinking fountain.....	686	25	251	69
Individual cups.....	1,947	51	137	37
Common cups.....	615	24	19	4
Total.....	2,948	100	427	100

The significant thing in the above table is that the common drinking cup is still used in 24 per cent of the open-country schools and in 4 per cent of the village schools.

Janitor service.—Replies were received from 3,674 open-country teachers and 418 village teachers, relative to the employment of janitor. The replies show the following percentages employing a janitor: Open country, 4 per cent; village, 75 per cent.

Three thousand eight hundred and ninety open-country teachers reported that the floor was swept daily. This represents 99 per cent of the entire number of teachers reporting. Only 34 per cent of the village teachers reported in the affirmative to this question. The remainder made no answer whatever. The observers found the floors in village schools in a better state of cleanliness than in the rural schools. The method of sweeping was indicated by 3,783 teachers in the open-country schools and 402 teachers in the village schools. From the percentages given below it seems that in approximately one-half of the open-country schools no dust-gathering material is used in sweeping:

	Rural. Village.	
Dry sweeping.....per cent.....	51	16
Dust gathering material.....do.....	49	84

As to frequency in scrubbing the floors, 3,511 open-country schools and 442 village teachers reported. These results are given below:

TABLE 31.—Floors scrubbed.

Frequency.	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Daily.....	71	2	20	6
Weekly.....	706	20	92	21
Yearly.....	2,427	69	281	64
Never.....	303	9	38*	9
Total.....	3,511	100	440	100

The tendency to scrub the floors once a year seems, from the above, to be very pronounced in both open country and village schools. This is evidently a feature of the yearly house cleaning. The method of dusting was given by 2,768 teachers in open-country schools and 399 village teachers. The results of the tabulation are given below:

	Rural. Village.	
Dry dusting.....per cent.....	57	10
Dusted in oil.....do.....	43	24

Equipment.—Information was also received relative to blackboard space and desks as follows: Sufficient blackboard space: Open country, 70 per cent—3,232 replies; village, 85 per cent—481 replies.

TABLE 32.—Desks.

Kinds.	Open country.		Village.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Stationary.....	3,031	83	473	81
Adjustable.....	605	17	101	19
Total.....	3,639	100	574	100
Single.....	1,909	51	412	71
Double.....	1,624	46	126	22
Total.....	3,543	100	568	100

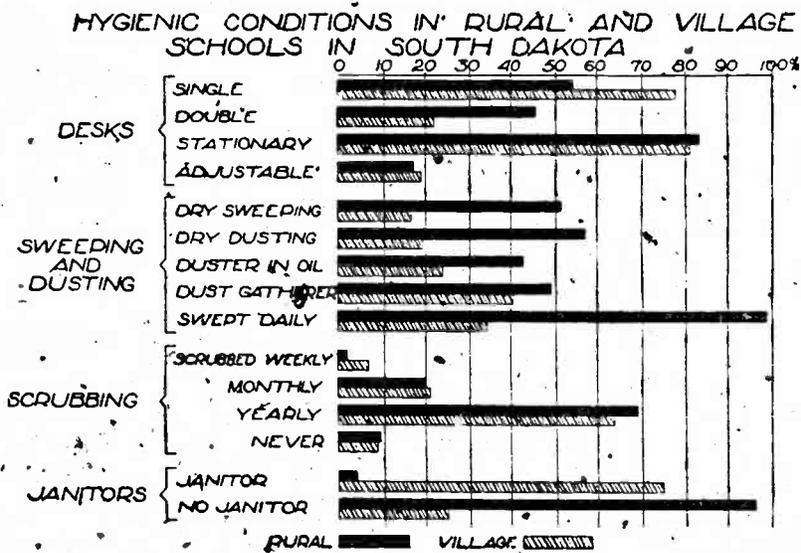


FIG. 15.

The percentage of sufficient blackboard space is somewhat higher than that found by the observer. The teachers reported 70 per cent and the observer 58 per cent for the open-country schools; for village schools it was 85 per cent (teachers), 72 per cent (observer). Probably a difference in standards may account for a part of the range of percentages. The percentage of single seats reported by teachers was also higher than that reported by the observer, viz, open country, 54 per cent (teachers) and 48 per cent (observer); village, 78 per cent (teachers) and 65 per cent (observer).

The existing school plant not meeting public needs.—Interpreting the present study on physical status in terms of highest percentages and medians, it appears that the school in the open country of South Dakota is a small cross-lighted building situated on the traditional acre of ground or less; its relation of window space to floor space is

17.12 per cent; it is heated by a stove; and windows are the only means of ventilation. The outbuildings are separate and outside the building. The source of water supply is from a neighbor's well. Most children have individual drinking cups. The teacher acts as janitor. The floors are swept daily and scrubbed once a year. The desks are stationary, about half and half single and double.

In the towns and villages of 1,000 or less the conditions are better. A larger per cent of grounds contain more than 1 acre; two-thirds of the grounds have experimental plats; about one-third of the buildings are equipped with chemical or flush indoor toilets; lighting is from the left, rear, and left and rear; heating is by means of furnace or sanitary stove; and janitors are employed.

The open-country school plant just reviewed is, with minor changes, the same that served country folk in America 75 years ago. It has been stated in the first chapter of this survey that South Dakota is, with the small exception of the Black Hills area, an agricultural and grazing State. In every village the grain elevators, silhouetted against the sky, bespeak great grain-shipping centers. These elevators are filled with corn, wheat, oats, and rye, harvested from surrounding fields. The soil for these fields is often turned, not by spans of mules and walking plows, but by tractors, with records of 40 acres for a single day. Likewise, the South Dakota farmer is no longer living the isolated life of the farmer of 75 years ago. The rural mail route brings him the daily paper from the metropolis, and after his day's work in the great out-of-doors he may sit in his comfortable home and read of yesterday's events from the battle fields of Europe. With the replacing of the horse and buggy by the automobile, his neighborhood has expanded far beyond the confines of the local school district.

But does the existing school plant meet the public needs? The answer is self-evident. Just as the agricultural plant and its operations of three-quarters of a century ago do not meet the needs of the South Dakota farmers of to-day, so likewise a school plant of a type three-quarters of a century old can not meet the present educational needs of rural South Dakota.

The kind of school plant that will meet public needs.—The consolidated school, which is discussed in the next chapter, is the school best fitted to serve rural people. Such a school is possible in much of South Dakota. In some sections of the State a two-teacher school would represent all the consolidation possible, and still in other localities the one-teacher school must for many years to come be the only school that can serve the people.

The area of the school ground should be large enough to accommodate the school building with its setting of lawn, trees, and

shrubbery; the teacherage and its garden spot; the playground and agricultural plot. The size of the grounds would largely depend upon the kind of school. In no case should it be less than 5 acres. It is highly desirable that grounds be fenced as a protection against stray live stock.

The building should be provided with classrooms sufficient to accommodate both the academic and industrial subjects of the curriculum. The high-school assembly room and adjoining classrooms should be connected with folding doors so that they may be thrown together for community meetings. The difficulty in finding suitable boarding places is everywhere recognized as one reason why many efficient teachers refuse to teach in rural districts. The country can not expect to procure the services of married men teachers when there is no opportunity for them to have a home. The teacherage is as necessary a part of the rural-school plant as is the parsonage a necessary adjunct to the church plant. From a physiological point of view play is as necessary to the child's development as are food and drink. For this reason the school can best serve the child when provision is made for ample playground and play apparatus. It has been suggested in the discussion of the course of study, that agriculture and nature study should find a large place in the rural-school curriculum. To teach these subjects effectively there must be a portion of the school ground reserved as laboratory.

All plans for school buildings should be approved by the division of school architecture and sanitation of the State department of education before permission be granted the school board for their construction. The best authorities on schoolroom lighting agree that the light should enter from the left and rear and that the window space, in regions with the latitude of South Dakota, should equal one-fourth of the floor space. Furnaces or sanitary heating and ventilating plants should be used in heating the school buildings. The most satisfactory means of ventilation is that provided by an effective artificial system. The standard heating and ventilating plants, when properly managed, provide effective ventilation. No matter how satisfactory artificial ventilation may be, every possible opportunity should be used for ventilation by doors and windows. For this reason storm windows should be adjusted so that their presence will not hinder window ventilation.

The rural-school privy has long been a source of physical and moral infection. It is usually dirty, with marks of obscenity and considered by possible vandals of the neighborhood as a fit object for depredation. Whenever practicable the toilets should be placed in floors. When there is an abundant supply of well water the flush-tank system can be used. A pressure tank set in the basement or

buried in the ground outside the building can be attached to the pump of the well. A septic tank, buried below the frost line, would provide a sufficient disposition of the excreta. If out-door privies must be used they should be screened and be kept clean and sanitary.

An abundant supply of pure water is as necessary a part of the school's equipment as is an effective heating system. Whenever it is possible to obtain flowing water there should be a well on the school grounds with a pressure tank in the basement and such plumbing arrangements as would make the conveniences of a city water system possible for the open country. There are, however, places in South Dakota where it is impossible to reach underground water. In these localities farmers are often compelled to carry their water long distances. Schools located in such places should be provided with well-filtered cisterns, dug deep enough in the ground to be protected from frost. These cisterns should preferably be set under the building. Where it is necessary to provide water in this way constant vigilance is necessary to keep the cisterns in a sanitary condition.

In the schools of two teachers or more a janitor should be employed by the school board. A janitor's duties should include more than building fires and sweeping floors. They should embrace some knowledge of floor dressings and how to apply them, the use of sweeping compounds, the use of disinfectants, methods of ventilation and cleanliness of floors, desks, walls and toilets. In many one-teacher schools the teacher must, through necessity, act as janitor. When this is the case she should be paid for this extra duty and the school board should see that she be given proper instructions relative to the duties required. School room floors should be treated occasionally to a standard floor dressing, a sweeping compound should be used, and dusting done by means of an oiled or damp cloth.

In order to complete the plant herein described, it is necessary that it be equipped with the proper tools for instruction. These include sufficient blackboard space, maps, and globes, textbooks, supplementary reference books covering all subjects of the curriculum and an abundance of illustrative reference material.

Such a school plant, as has just been discussed, could put into operation a course of study that would serve the needs of an agricultural commonwealth. It could further provide for the all-year school. Well-trained teachers would be attracted to such a school and could there become real rural life leaders.

Recommendations for improved school plant.—The survey committee believes that the time has come for the State to set up definite standards for the one-teacher schools, of which there will be many, for years to come, in the State. The standards must be high enough to make of the school genuine community schools. To this end the

committee recommends State aid (procured through State taxation or legislative appropriation) on the basis of the following standards:

1. That the standard school shall utilize at least five acres of land for grounds and experiment purposes.
2. That every such school shall erect, at community expense, a cottage on the premises for the teacher.
3. That ample facilities be provided for a sanitary water supply.
4. That ample provision be made for the installation of such sanitary toilet and heating facilities as shall be recommended by the State department of education.
5. That the plans and specifications of the schoolhouse and the teacher's cottage, as well as the ground plat and planting scheme, shall be approved by the division of school architecture and sanitation of the State department of education.

Chapter XI.

SCHOOL CONSOLIDATION AND RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS.

If it were possible to reorganize all the small rural schools in South Dakota as strong one-teacher schools of the community type, described in the preceding chapter, there would be little need for consolidated schools. Unfortunately, many school districts are too sparsely settled and are financially unable to maintain such schools. Here consolidation of two or more small schools to form one graded school of two or more rooms is usually the practical thing to do. While school consolidation is resorted to principally to improve rural schools, in this State it should unquestionably be used as a means to assist the many small, struggling village schools, which in reality ought to be classed as "rural," they being mere rural trading centers.

At some risk of repetition, it is said, this great agricultural commonwealth needs schools and educational processes which can reach clear down to the roots of things, strengthening character, teaching the rights of fellow men, loyalty to the Nation, and fear of God; at the same time that they supply young and old people, without distinction, with practical training for successful breadwinning on the land. These requirements are beyond all but the exceptional one-teacher schools, for which there will always be an important place in South Dakota. An important phase of school reorganization will accordingly come through school consolidation.

Brief history of consolidation in the United States.—School consolidation has made little progress in South Dakota, probably because no concerted policy has yet been adopted to encourage this form of school reorganization by means of State aid. The State department of public instruction likewise has not been able to do much to promote interest in consolidation for want of help in the office. There are in the State, at the present time, 32 consolidated schools, some of them consolidations in name only. However, the survey committee has every reason to believe that the people are ready for a change and eager to consolidate their schools if properly directed; but while ready for school consolidation, the State should not be content with anything except the best type of consolidation.

Throughout the country at large consolidation of schools is now accepted as good national policy. About 10,500 consolidated schools have been organized, taking the place of 50,000 one-room schools. But, unfortunately, some of the consolidated schools are little, if any, improvement on the old. In some places rural territory has been joined to industrial towns and the rural children have been offered an education poorly suited to agricultural requirements. In other places the schools are operated in the open country, but utilize courses of study originally planned for city children. Both types are failures. The kind of consolidated school that has succeeded—and there are many thousands of them—is organized either in the open country or in connection with rural-minded village. But in either case the classroom work is organized to meet the actual needs of the children in attendance.

A study of consolidation in South Dakota.—The 32 consolidated schools in this State are mostly village consolidations. Three schools only are located in the open country. Two schools report that they are consolidated in name only, as the consolidation was done for the sole reason of increasing the powers of the board, no new territory being added or other schools included. The initiative in practically every consolidation movement seems to have come from the small villages which have been eager to draw more taxable area to their small village districts. This type of consolidation may or may not be what the rural population requires—depending entirely on how the courses of study are planned, how the school plant is equipped, who the teachers are, etc.

It ought to be stated here that consolidation to be really worth while must be so thoroughly well done that even the patrons farthest removed would have cause to feel that their sacrifice in time and travel is well repaid.

These things must be considered:

Where the consolidated school is centered in a village, it must still remain the school for rural people. To this end provision should be made (a) for an abundance of land to be used for gardens and experimentation; (b) for a school plant suitable for community center purposes; and (c) for teaching subjects required by rural and village population in this particular State.

Recommendations for a future policy.—It is probably well enough that consolidation has not been urged upon the people. The one-room schools of the poorer sort are now about ready to be supplanted by new buildings. This, then, is the opportune time to inaugurate a State-wide policy of reorganization of the one-room schools as modern consolidated schools, or where the latter are impracticable, at least as modern one-teacher schools.

The survey committee recommends:

1. The appointment of a State rural-school supervisor as a member of the elementary school division of the State department of public instruction, who shall devote most of his time to school consolidation.
2. The drafting of a tentative consolidation map of each organized county. The work to be done by the State department of public instruction in conjunction with the county boards of education and the county superintendents.
3. A State policy looking toward establishing: (a) Strong one-teacher schools (as discussed in Chapter X) which may later by enlargement of territory become consolidated schools; (b) associated or trading center school areas to embrace a central village and a number of outlying schools; (c) one county high school of agricultural type in each county in the State, which may, or may not, be one of the central schools of an associated area.
4. Liberal State aid for the erection of the new school plants and for maintenance.

The recommendations explained.—It is important, first of all, to have an expert to direct the work of consolidation who can give his time to it. To illustrate: North Dakota has 447 consolidated schools and South Dakota has 32. The explanation of the startling difference in extent of consolidation in the two Dakotas is simple. North Dakota has had a State rural-school supervisor on the job who has given all his energy to consolidation, and the State has been liberal with State aid for this type of schools. South Dakota has done neither.

It is furthermore highly desirable to plan for State-wide consolidation by platting each county in detail. This would give assurance that all consolidations would be realized systematically, without leaving out small schools here and there.

An ideally organized county would probably have: (1) A number of one-teacher community schools, which should in time, as the population increases, develop into larger open country consolidated schools with two or more teachers; (2) one or more village centers associated with a number of outlying schools similar to the Minnesota associated schools; and (3) one county high school of agricultural type, as outlined below.

The Minnesota plan of association would need little if any modification to meet the requirements of South Dakota. Any rural trading center embraces the central village with its various emporiums of trade and exchange, and all the surrounding country that can conveniently use the village has a clearing house for its agricultural products and as a social center. The schools of such an area, including the central village and outlying rural schools, could then be brought into an association or consolidation for educational purposes. The

whole arrangement would be in charge of the county board of education.

A school system such as this fully developed would contemplate for each "association," the central school, with six grades of work in the associated elementary schools and three years of prevocational studies in the junior high school. This would reduce the time for the "tool subjects" in the elementary schools to the right minimum. One central village or town in each county should be designated as the county high school with six years of work in the elementary school and six years in the upper school, divided into a three-year prevocational course, and a three-year vocational course.

The outlying rural schools should have six-year courses. This would give the teacher opportunity to reduce the number of daily recitations now required and give more time to the beginners. All pupils who complete the sixth year in an outlying school would be promoted to the central school to pursue there their studies during the next three years. The graduates from the junior high school in the central village would be entitled to free entrance to the county high school. This course would return the rural youth to the farm in harmony with it, ready and willing to live happy, remunerative lives on the land.

This county plan of organization would assure unity of purpose and effective supervision of all the schools. The principal of each village center working under the direction of the county superintendent would outline and direct the work in the outlying schools, thus "pointing" the children forward to the central school. The county high school should be organized so that its instructors in English, music, agriculture, home economics, and school hygiene might take turns at supervising the work of the schools.

Special State aid should be offered as an inducement to organize the schools thoroughly. The State might well pay one-fourth the cost of the new consolidated school buildings, provided that in no case should it pay more than \$2,500, and, in addition, pay a reasonable maintenance grant, all on condition that the school be erected on or utilize not less than 10 acres of land for agricultural purposes, and in other ways maintain the high standards required by the State department of public instruction.

RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS AND CONTINUATION SCHOOLS

No high-school facilities for the rural population.—The high-school population in the State is 42,655. In 1916 there were enrolled in town and city high schools 8,164 students and in rural high schools and other rural schools doing high-school work, 1,086 students. Of the latter group only about 200 reached the senior year. Certainly

some of the town and city high-school students come from country districts—probably about 2,000. But the fact remains that altogether too few rural children are able to attend high school and the few who have such advantage do not always get the kind of instruction required by agricultural people. The situation may be stated thus: (1) The number of rural pupils in high-school attendance is too small to influence the standard of culture and intelligence in country districts to any appreciable extent; and (2) the courses of study pursued in the town and city high schools of the State are not well adapted to attract students from agricultural communities.

No lengthy argument is needed to convince anyone that a larger number of rural youth should attend high school. The strong manhood and womanhood in the country can only be measured in terms of educated leadership. School education must produce this leadership, but the school preparing for it will be of quite a different type from the one-room schools which certainly find difficulty in lifting the generation now in school to the degree of intelligent and practical citizenship desirable in modern agricultural life.

The kind of high school that is needed in South Dakota is the sort that can point the way to contented, remunerative agricultural life. When fully organized it will extend its educational facilities to young and old people alike. In this State the school should have the following definite aim and scope: Instruct upper-grade children from the entire county in day courses; instruct youth beyond ordinary school age as well as adults in short courses and extension courses; and instruct illiterates in night-school classes.

A distinctive type of rural high school.—The proposed county high schools ought to be distinctly rural, or they should at least offer the kind of subject matter needed by agricultural people. Many persons, and farmers among them, have the false idea that to differentiate between city and country people in education matters is really to discriminate against country children. This is absurd. There is fundamentally no more reason why country children should attend town schools than to reverse the order and have city children attend country schools. The important thing is to make the rural high school as broadly cultural as any town high school, but a culture intimately related to present and future problems instead of the traditional things. Most important, the course of study must be rooted to the agricultural community and all that belongs to it.

The environment in which the South Dakota farmer lives is the natural background for his course of study. Agriculture must not be taught, as it so often is, as a patch of the old educational cloth; it must become the warp and woof of a new educational garment. The mother tongue, the social sciences, and the new agricultural

sciences will form the nucleus of the study course. And any citizen of the State who has completed the course with credit should be granted admittance to the State college or to the university with full standing, even though he may not have had the language requirements and certain other subjects now required, which have no place in the proposed rural school courses.

Suggestive steps in county school reorganization.—It is not the purpose nor the province of the survey committee to suggest, in detail, the courses of study to be used in the proposed county plan of schools. It will suffice to suggest the desired steps in the organization of the schools, by enlarging upon the outline given earlier in the present chapter.

1. The small one-teacher school: A six-year study plan, devoted chiefly to the "tool subjects" and general culture; but the entire course rooted to the rural environment, through nature study, school gardening, home projects, and general industrial work.

2. The complete one-teacher community school or consolidated school: (a) A six-year elementary school plan and one, two, or three year prevocational study courses, according to equipment and teaching force; (b) the work in the first six years similar to that in the small one-teacher school. The exceptional teacher in the complete one-teacher school to be permitted to do two years' prevocational work in addition to the six year "tool subjects," provided he has the assistance of a capable wife who can take the sewing, cooking, and other phases of home economics. The consolidated school to offer the six-year elementary and three-year prevocational course if it has three or more teachers, one of whom should be an adept in industrial work.

3. The central village in the "school association." Nine years, six years elementary and three years prevocational high-school work. In exceptional cases the school to extend the course, contingent on equipment and teaching force.

4. The county high school: (a) Six years above the elementary school—three-year junior high school and three-year senior high school; (b) the senior high-school course to contain the following studies:

FIRST YEAR.			
<i>First semester.</i>		<i>Second semester.</i>	
	Class. Lab.		Class. Lab.
English.....	5 ..	English.....	5 ..
Farm arithmetic.....	5 ..	Farm arithmetic.....	5 ..
Physical geography.....	5 2	Poultry.....	1 3
Plant life.....	3 ..	Plant culture.....	2 2
Mechanical drawing.....	2 ..	Mechanical drawing.....	2 ..
Farm shopwork.....	3 ..	Farm shopwork.....	3 ..
		Gardening.....	2 ..
	25 periods.		25 periods.

³This course is outlined for boys only. The work would be quite similar for girls, except that home economics would supplant the purely "masculine" subjects.

SECOND YEAR.

Class. Lab.		Class. Lab.	
English.....	6	English.....	5
Mathematics (chiefly mensuration and simple phases of surveying).....	5	Mathematics.....	5
History and government.....	4	History and government.....	3
Farm animals.....	2	Dairying.....	2
Hygiene and sanitation.....	3	Hygiene and sanitation.....	2
Chemistry.....	3	Chemistry.....	1
		Farm work.....	1
25 periods.		25 periods.	

THIRD YEAR.

Class. Lab.		Class. Lab.	
English.....	5	English.....	5
Physics.....	3	Physics.....	2
Farm crops.....	2	Farm crops.....	2
Feeds and feeding.....	2	Feeds and feeding.....	2
Soils and fertilizers.....	2	Soils and fertilizers.....	1
Farm machinery.....	1	Rural sociology.....	3
Rural economics.....	3	Farm work.....	2
25 periods.		25 periods.	

Continuation school courses needed.—Two classes of people can be reached by the proposed county high school in addition to the regular students: (1) Young men and women beyond ordinary school age who are obliged to work for a livelihood whose education has been so meager as to handicap them in the struggle for a living; (2) farmers and their wives who are in need of inspiration and practical assistance in their daily work.

South Dakota has many farm youths who, for economic reasons, can not attend high school regularly. The question arises, Shall school facilities be placed within reach of these young men and women, or shall they go untaught? Either the State must establish practical continuation courses or the agricultural sections will fail to reach the maximum of efficiency to which they are capable.

The rural continuation course should form an important part of the work of the county high schools. It can best be organized as short courses for people regularly beyond school age. There should be no maximum age limit. Any person who can profit by the work should be welcome to enroll.

The time chosen should suit the farmers. The courses ought to begin early in November when the fall work is done and should continue for four months or more. To accommodate the farmers who drive to school the hours could be set from 10 a. m. to 3 p. m. For others who live too far from home, or are unattached, residence privileges could be granted at the school.

The daily routine of the short courses would include a general brushing up in the elementary subjects, farm arithmetic and accounts, farm law, special phases of agriculture, blacksmithing, cement work, leather work, farm machinery, carpentry, cooking, sewing, home sanitation, and other subjects of value to rural people.

The county high schools, to do the best kind of work, should have a liberal amount of land—40 acres is not too much. The school

should have dormitory and boarding facilities for a group of students, who could pay their way in farm work. The principal, a man with thorough pedagogical and agricultural training, should live at the school. There should be farm buildings, farm machinery, and a gradual stocking with farm animals suited to the agriculture of the particular district.

It should be clear that the county high school would be a feeder for the State agricultural college, and would in no sense take the place of the higher agricultural school, as has been true in some States where regional and congressional district schools are set up.

Recommendations.—The committee recommends:

1. The gradual development of the county plan of school reorganization outlined in this chapter, including provision for the establishment of one county high school of agricultural type in each organized county.

2. The grant of State aid to all such schools, to be raised by State taxation or through legislative appropriation. (See Chapters IX and XVI.)

Chapter XII.

THE COURSE OF STUDY FOR OPEN COUNTRY AND VILLAGE SCHOOLS.

Requirements of the law.—The course of study in use in the rural and village elementary schools of South Dakota has been revised lately by a committee appointed by the State superintendent and approved by the State teachers' association. The subjects to be taught are designated by law and are as follows: Reading, writing, orthography, geography, language, and English grammar, history of the United States and South Dakota, physiology and hygiene with special emphasis upon alcoholic drinks and narcotics, civil government, drawing, music, agriculture, and moral and humane instruction. In addition the electors of the district at their annual meeting may add to the above list of subjects.

General plan.—The course of study contains an introduction and a separate discussion for each subject. The most important feature of the introduction is an explanation of the plan of alternation by grades and a specified statement as to just what grades in each subject are to be combined and in just what years the seventh and eighth grades are to be alternated. This definiteness in time allotment, on the part of the makers of the course of study, is to be commended. The observers in the rural schools found the suggestions on alternation of grades to be very generally complied with in the eight counties of the State inspected. Answers from 500 questionnaires of rural teachers, scattered throughout the State, indicated that in 66 per cent of the schools-classes were alternated and that they were combined in 81 per cent of the schools.

Combination of classes, alternation of grades and classes, and correlation of subject matter are the only means whereby the recitations in a rural school may be sufficiently reduced in order that the class periods may be of reasonable length.

In spite of the fact that so large a per cent of teachers reported classes alternated and combined, the number of daily classes based on reports from 479 rural teachers showed the median number of daily recitations to be 26.65. The following groupings on reports from

these 479 rural teachers indicate that 74 per cent of the teachers conducted from 21 to 30 classes a day:

Classes conducted per day.

	15 or less.	16 to 20.	21 to 25.	26 to 30.	31 or more.
Number.....	4	44	168	171	92
Per cent.....	0.008	7.00	35.00	39.00	18.00

Median 26.65 recitations per day.

Observation in the schools showed that this large number of classes was due, mainly, to irregular attendance and to the fact that beginning pupils did not enter schools at stated times throughout the term.

The general plan for the discussion of separate subjects is as follows: A few general statements or a paragraph or more related to the importance of the subject in the curriculum, and a definite outline of the work to be covered for the eighth grades. In the outline of subject matter by grades there appears from time to time a few scattered suggestions on methods and devices, sources of illustrated matter, and list of reference books.

General characteristics.—The subject content of each study is outlined in accordance with the traditional arrangement of the customary textbook. The scheme follows the plan of development of small topics and isolated facts, rather than the grouping of subject matter about central units or large topics.

There is a tendency to get away from this traditional order in the outline in physiology and language. In fact, the makers of the course of study of South Dakota have a vision of the time when the many subjects of our school curriculum will be combined under large central topics. The following is quoted from page 180 of the course of study:

The next revision of the course of study for the elementary schools of South Dakota will doubtless be an outline in which the work of the grades will be offered in four or five units, each made up of related subjects, the whole including the branches now commonly found in such courses of study; for example, history will include geography, which is one of the factors that determine what the history of nations is to be, as well as civics, which is but a specialized form of history. If such plan is worked out in our next course, language will be a part of the unit denoted English, which will also include reading, grammar, spelling, and possibly writing. In such a course the work in language would be the medium that welds the whole course into a unit.

An illustration from the general topics assigned in the first three grades in history will show how these topics might have been a part of a large central unit. The three topics referred to for the first three grades are Indian life, celebrations and myths, and hero stories.

The makers of the course of study emphasized the fact that these topics were not arranged according to years, but that the teacher should be free to select from them such subjects as she could use. History in the early grades should be a combination of history, civics, and social activities. The three general topics cited above are isolated and lack a central thread. Before studying Indian life it would be better to prepare the pupils by emphasizing the activities of their own environment through a study of shelter, food, clothing, and community activities. Celebrations form a very vital part of the latter. By a study of his own life there has been developed a background for an understanding of the life of the tree dwellers, cave men, and other prehistoric people. Naturally, a study of Indian and Eskimo life will follow. The myths and hero stories selected would be in keeping with the central theme, which should be the study of the activities of the child's environment as a basis for a study of man's activities in the past. All of this historical subject matter of the early grades should, of course, be developed through constructive work, dramatization, song, and story.

Throughout the course of study suggestions are used that mean little to the average teacher. Under the suggestions for art, teachers are told to correlate the work with the subject matter of the course, and yet there are but few definite suggestions as to how it can be correlated with other subjects. Again, under the geography suggestions it is recommended that nature study correlated with language and reading will be all the geography needed in the early grades. Yet there are but few definite suggestions as to just where and how nature study may be correlated with language and reading. In fact, the course of study does not contain an outline on nature study. The term "motivate" is frequently used in a manner similar to that of "correlate."

From the preparation and experience of South Dakota teachers, as given in Chapter XVIII of this report, it is evident that teachers with such meager training could have but little notion of such terms as "correlation" and "motivation." Again, granted they do understand the meaning of the terms, merely stating what should be done would be of little value. The observers found that there was a lack of reference books and other source material in the schools. A teacher with from four to six subjects per day to teach, which are scattered over an equal number of grades, has little time for the necessary research involved in formulating elaborate lesson plans. Even the best-prepared teachers are inclined to follow the textbooks as the line of least resistance. For this reason the course of study should be very specific in its generalizations.

The course of study has emphasized the elimination of much material found in the textbook, now conceded to be of little value to

the child in fitting him for adjustment for the social life of which he has a part. These eliminations are especially noted in physiology and hygiene, arithmetic and language. The minimum and supplementary outlines for seventh and eighth grades history, geography, and language are an excellent feature. The minimum length of school term for South Dakota is seven months. Answers from the 3,923 rural teachers show that 70 per cent of the school terms were less than nine months during the year 1917-18. This being the case, it is very essential that the course of study should present minimum and maximum outlines of work in all subjects.

The further discussion of the course of study will be narrowed down to a summarization of the individual subjects outlined in the course.

Reading.—The term "Reading and Literature" better expresses the subject matter as outlined in the course of study for the eight grades. The subject is introduced by a few paragraphs upon the importance of reading. It is emphasized that the chief aim in the work of reading is to make good silent readers. The paragraphs on aims of reading are followed by a brief discussion of the various methods of teaching primary reading.

Then comes the outline for the work of the individual grades. The subject content of the first three grades is confined to primers, first, second, and third grade readers. Reports from 390 rural teachers scattered throughout the State indicate that 43 per cent of the number of teachers reporting did not have any supplementary reading matter. The answer on this question from the 390 teachers is given below:

Number supplementary readers.			Number supplementary readers.		
	Number.	Per cent.		Number.	Per cent.
None.....	165	43	More than 4.....	45	12
1 to 2 sets.....	132	33	Total.....	390	100
2 to 4 sets.....	48	12			

From the fourth grade on, the course of study very wisely suggests that the business of the subject from now on is reading to learn rather than learning to read. There are suggested lists of stories and poems to be studied. The seventh and eighth grades are encouraged to read current magazines and literary classics. The list of poems and stories to be studied throughout the course is to be commended. Dramatization is emphasized in the early grades, but practically nothing is said of story-telling. Listening to a story told by another affords a valuable training for concentration of thought; the oral reproduction of it gives an ability to think on one's feet, and when the story is read by the pupil himself the

retelling is a test of his ability to gather and impart thought from the printed page.

The hints on how to produce good reading are valuable. Models are presented for the mode of procedure in conducting a primary lesson, for dramatizing the story, in interpretative questions, in teaching a poem, in studying a masterpiece, and in the treatment of the life of an author. It would have been wiser, in the dramatization of "Daffy-Down-Dilly," to have emphasized the fact that the selection of characters, the stage setting, and gesticulation be worked out by the pupils themselves rather than be determined upon by the teacher. Lowell's "Longing," which represents the grief of a parent over the death of a child, can not be comprehended by pupils in the fifth and sixth grades, and is not a wise selection.

The suggestion that masterpieces be first read through for general meaning and purpose is a very good one. The tendency has been in studying classics to dissect them for choice of words and sentence structure, so that the pupils failed to see the story as a connected whole.

Domestic science and gardening.—The suggestions on gardening belong to agriculture and should be included under that head. In the introduction the statement is made that the course is to be correlated with hygiene, yet there are no definite directions as to how and where there might be such correlation. All the work included under canning and preservation of foods and cookery could well be included under the subject of food in the hygiene course.

The course of study suggests that emphasis in domestic science be placed upon sanitation and health. Very definite suggestions as to just how this can be done should be stated in the course of study. Since the hot lunch is so essential to the physical well-being of pupils in the rural schools, and since it forms such a practical feature of domestic science, very definite directions should be given covering the equipment, menus, and serving.

The course of study suggests that instruction in canning be conducted as a home project. The same suggestion is also offered relative to gardening. This might well be recommended for sewing and mach connected with the preparation of the hot lunch. In the rural school the home projects of boys' and girls' clubs fostered by the State agricultural extension department should be made a very vital part of the course in agriculture and domestic science.

Agriculture.—In the introductory paragraphs to the subject, attention is called to the fact that no attempt was made to prepare a complete course in agriculture. What was attempted was the formation of an outline on special topics in agriculture, such as weeds, corn, horses, etc. These topics are assigned to months. These outlines do more than mention topics. They give considerable information on the subject matter. A few references are given at the

close of each outline. In these lists frequent use is made of publications from the United States Department of Agriculture and the Experimental Station at Brookings.

There should be in every course of study for rural schools a very full outline on nature study for the lower grades. This nature-study outline should embrace topics contained in the subject matter for all the studies belonging to the science group of the elementary schools which are elementary enough to be taught young children. For advanced grades this nature-study outline should be replaced by a definite outline in agriculture. Definite and adequate instruction in nature study in the lower grades is a necessary foundation for a proper understanding of agriculture.

Bulletins from the United States Department of Agriculture and the State experimental stations should not only be present but should be catalogued, in order that their location may be easy. Children need to be taught how to use these bulletins. Not all material in them is within range of the child's comprehension. To this end teachers need to be most careful in selecting references from them.

The project work in connection with boys' and girls' clubs should be connected with the course in agriculture.

Music and art.—The outline on art is concerned mainly with the fine arts, and is planned with a viewpoint of a school where all grades are represented and where there can be but one period devoted to the subject. There is only a brief allusion to industrial art. Since this is the only space given in the course of study to industrial art, it would have been of practical value to have elaborated much more fully on this side of the subject. In a course of study for schools where several grades are to be in the hands of one teacher, the outline for primary grades could well be covered under the term of the industrial art, leaving the fine arts for later grades.

The music outline is brief and is prepared for schools where there can be only a few minutes a day devoted to the subject. In general it may be said that the music outline attempts more than the teacher's preparation allows her to undertake.

Music and art can not be handled efficiently unless under the supervision of a special teacher. Since the music machines are so popular, the course of study could well give suggestions relative to the educative use of these machines in schools and the type of records to be purchased.

Handwriting.—No outline is incorporated. This omission is explained by the following, quoted from page 56, course of study:

In view of the fact that the various writing systems adopted for use are explicit as to gradation and corresponding method to be employed, only a very few suggestions will be incorporated herein.

If a definite outline is to be omitted it would be wise to designate one or more standard systems. To leave it to whatever chance methods are adopted is dangerous.

The outline should contain some information on standards in measuring handwriting, and indicate where published measuring tests may be obtained.

Spelling.—The excellent feature of the spelling is that it tends away from stereotyped exercises of the traditional spelling book and emphasizes that only words likely to be written should be learned to spell, that the word should be selected from the pupil's immediate environment and that there be constant watchfulness of the pupil's own spelling through individual lists.

History and civics.—The outline for primary grades has been used in this discussion as an example of how isolated topics might be grouped about a large central topic. A list of topics is assigned for the fourth and fifth grades, which are to be approached through the medium of biographies and stories. South Dakota history is given a place in the last half of the sixth grade. The outlines contain a full list of reference books to supplement the work of the individual grades.

In order to approach United States history effectively in the grammar grades it is necessary that some time be devoted to a few large topics which deal with the great European civilization out of which America has developed. These could well be placed in the intermediate grades. The outlines for seventh and eighth grades follow the chronological order of the textbook. The minimum course is to be commended, as it provides an adequate covering of the ground for the short-term schools. It is unfortunate that no list of reference books is given for the grammar schools. For effective teaching of history in grammar grades there should be an abundance of outside material. In fact this should be the main source of content-matter, the textbook serving as a reference work and the place in which to study perspective. The course of study should be very explicit as to how the supplementary material is to be used.

The leading criticism of the history outline is that small topics and mere historical facts serve as the center of ideas rather than large units. Much more emphasis should be given to local history. Many historical stories form suitable material for dramatization in the lower grades, such events as the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, and the Constitutional Convention, may be effectively reproduced in the higher grades. Indian lore associated with the early history of South Dakota contains situations desirable for reproduction. Every neighborhood has, in its own history, elements that form the nucleus for pageantry. The course of study should stimulate activity in this direction, showing how the pupils, with the teacher as a leader, may work out these dramatizations.

Civics is allotted from one-half to two-fifths of the history time in the grammar grades. The outline covers local, State, and national civics and follows the order of topics found in the average textbook. The danger in following such an outline is that the subject may be treated too abstractly. Civics to be real to children of the grammar grades must be full of concrete illustrations. It is suggested that civics in the lower grades be correlated with the other subjects. This means nothing to the average teacher, for she does not know how to go about the situation. There should be definite directions showing how to correlate the laws of sanitation, quarantine, and disease with the hygiene courses. The game laws very naturally belong to humane instruction. A study of the forest reserves falls under the subject of geography. Community activities, improvement associations, and clubs of various sorts are a part of history.

Physiology and hygiene.—The excellent feature of this outline is that it emphasizes hygiene rather than physiology. Much that is given could well be placed under nature study and domestic science, organized around problems that have to do with the pupil's interest. The outline for grammar grades is supplemented by habit, germ, and community hygiene, quoted from a recent bulletin issued by the State department of Nebraska. All that is given in the hygiene outline could have been classified under larger topics.

Geography.—No definite outline is given before the fourth grade. It is suggested that the work given before that time be centered about nature study. Frequent illustrations to correlation of subjects with nature study are given throughout the outline, yet, as has been stated, there is no course for nature study. The outline for intermediate and grammar grades follows the traditional geography text, in that it emphasizes small facts and topics.

A well-selected list of reference books is given. This should be supplemented by avenues of source material, which vitalize good teaching. Chambers of commerce in large cities and advertising material of railroad and manufacturing concerns are examples of such avenues.

It is not enough to give list of reference books and material. There should be many suggestions as to how and where to use this outside material. In geography as in history teaching, this outside material and not the textbook should form the principal source of such matter.

Arithmetic.—The introductory paragraph contains suggestions showing how the first year's work in arithmetic should be associated with other subjects and with all the activities of the school. The subject matter is then outlined very carefully, month by month, for all the grades.

The selection of topics is confined to the generally accepted notion of what constitutes practical subject matter in arithmetic. It espe-

cially emphasizes topics to be eliminated. Emphasis is placed on thoroughness, the mastery of fundamental facts and the illumination of abstraction by concrete examples. The outline does not show how arithmetic processes in other subjects may be utilized. More emphasis should be placed upon the ability to size up mathematical situations rather than learning facts and processes.

The outline in the lower grades is interspersed with a few suggestive devices. There should be more suggested games and a list of reference books covering the teaching of arithmetic for all the grades.

Language.—The introduction to the subject emphasizes the correlation of languages with the other subjects of the curriculum. The outline is then given covering the work for each year. In the primary and intermediate grades the work consists of oral and written compositions, picture study, dramatization, memory work, and letter writing. Just what mechanics of language should be taught in each grade is outlined. The delightful thing about the entire course is that technical grammar is everywhere subordinated to composition. Formal grammar is not studied until the seventh and eighth grades. A minimum and supplementary course is offered for these grades. A very complete list of stories and poems for all the grades of the school accompanies the outline.

Recommendations.—The survey committee recommends that the following outline be followed in preparing the next course of study:

1. Subject matter—

(a) Grouped about large topics rather than individual topics. The science group to include nature study, geography, physiology, agriculture, home economics and manual training; the history group, history, civics, and some portions of geography; and the literature group, reading, spelling, penmanship, language, grammar, and literature. Mathematics to be in a group by itself as a necessary measure for all the groups.

(b) Such a selection of topics within these large units as will be fundamentally important and large in detail.

(c) A progressive arrangement of topics.

(d) Suggestions to guide the teachers in the adaptation of subject matter to environment.

2. Time allotment—

(a) Suggestions for reduction of classes.

(b) Several daily programs to fit schools with one or two teachers and from three to eight grades.

3. Material—

(a) List of material and names and addresses of firms where such material can be purchased.

(b) A well chosen bibliography relating to subject matter. Name and addresses of publishers and price lists.

(c) Suggestions for collection of local material.

4. Method—

(a) The approach of subject matter through such problems or projects as will furnish proper motivations.

(b) Many more suggestions on helpful methods and devices.

(c) More lesson plans.

The level of general culture.—The splendid ideals and cultural inheritance of the South Dakotans are responsible for the justifiable demand for a large element of cultural education in all the schools. This can not be overemphasized in these times of materialistic tendencies. While the survey emphasizes agriculture for an agricultural people, it realizes fully that no agricultural population can become really great which neglects the spiritual elements of an education. As will appear in later chapters, the South Dakota people are probably suffering as much to-day for the want of a high level of general culture as they do for the want of technical and practical instruction in agriculture—nor does South Dakota differ much in these respects from other States.

The elementary and secondary schools should be enabled to give a more thoroughgoing instruction in the fundamental elements of an education than most of the schools are now giving. Music and art, literature and language, must continue to hold prominent place in the work of the university and the denominational colleges of the State. At the same time natural and social science and the other subjects that provide scientific knowledge and trained skill must have a proportionally larger place in the schools than heretofore.

Economy and efficiency in school organization and in courses of instruction.—Real economy and efficiency require that the small rural schools be reorganized, so far as practicable, as consolidated community schools. The schools in the rural villages should for similar reasons plan a wholehearted cooperation with the outlying agricultural districts which are utilizing these villages as trading centers. This can best be accomplished by providing courses of study and means of instruction suited to the every day needs of both rural and village children. Rural high schools are urgently needed—schools organized to meet the requirements of a modern agricultural people. It is equally true that the town high schools should, at an early date, readjust their work to meet more fully the requirements of their South Dakota environment.

The higher educational institutions were organized in the days of early settlement on the borders of the State—chiefly as the result of local demand. A forward-looking State policy in education would carry with it some definite modifications in the prevailing system. It is doubtless unwise in a State like South Dakota, which, as was shown above, requires a comparatively small number of persons to fill the professions other than teaching and the ministry, to maintain, as it now does, in more than one institution, departments or courses intended to prepare students for any one of these professions. This seems notably true of the various forms of professional engineering, for which schools or courses are now maintained in three higher educational institutions. The question of necessary and un-

necessary duplication of schools and courses, will, however, be discussed in detail later. Throughout the study it has been the purpose to keep in mind a State-wide policy of education, to give the commonwealth a type of instruction and study courses dictated by State requirements, fully efficient and economical without being cheap.

Important task of the normal schools and other teacher-training institutions.—The predominance of agricultural life indicates the need for teachers prepared specifically for teaching in rural schools, who can give school children instruction leading to successful agricultural pursuits. South Dakota needs more than three times as many rural teachers as city teachers. This shows clearly what an important task the normal schools, the agricultural college, and other institutions training rural teachers have in this field. The future teachers must have an academic and professional training suited to rural needs and ample to educate the men and women who, in their turn, will furnish the practical aggressiveness, correct outlook on life, and finer idealism spoken of above.

The schools and Americanization of the foreign born.—The world war has opened the eye of the American public to many unwise practices of long standing on the Americanization of alien immigrants. It has been brought home to the people rather harshly that many of the foreign born who were welcomed to American shores and given all the rights and privileges of the native born have never become fully assimilated as American citizens. Lack of foresight of the general public and the Government, failure to enforce ordinary statute law, and neglect to reach the aliens through the right type of education, explain, in some measure, present prevailing conditions. To educate all its people, without exception, is the duty and right of democracy. If the alien has not had these blessings in the country from which he came, it is the duty of the Government to extend the blessings to them now; if they have neglected to make use of the schools organized for them, it is the right of the Government to demand that they correct the deficiency at once. South Dakota has probably ample school law to reach all who have neglected to use the public schools. But the State does not now have the necessary night schools, part-time schools, and other kinds of continuation schools so much needed if the unassimilated adult aliens are to be reached.

Chapter XIII.

HOME ECONOMICS IN THE SCHOOLS OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

Section 1. GENERAL SITUATION.

Introduction.—An American girl is a future citizen of a democracy and, as such, needs the same broad fundamental education that should be provided for every boy. One out of every two girls will be, for a few years, a wage earner for which temporary vocation she may or may not need some special education. Out of every 100 American women, 93 marry. Of these, 87 per cent become mothers and 95 per cent operate their own homes by their own labor. In South Dakota there were listed in the 1915 census 118,110 women employed as housewives; nor did this include all women wage earners who were also home makers. It is evident that a girl's education should include training for citizenship, for home making, and in some cases for wage earning.

Wage earning, which is a permanent occupation for men, is but a temporary vocation for most women. Recognition is now generally given to the need which exists that all girls should receive special training for their life work of home making and motherhood. To afford this training, home economics instruction should be made an essential and required part of every girl's public-school curriculum.

The survey committee is of the opinion (1) that home economics courses should be required for all girls from the fifth to the ninth grades, inclusive; (2) that under certain conditions, where many girls are retarded in their studies, special intensive courses should be offered; (3) that the rural children need this training quite as much as do urban children; (4) that when normal schools accept students from the eighth grade these students should also be required to carry one full year of home economics; (5) that it is right to give university women the opportunity to pursue thorough courses in home economics; and (6) that the conditions upon which the State Agricultural College is founded obligates that institution to maintain for women courses in home economics, in all respects equal in rank and quality to degree courses offered in agriculture and engineering.

Home economics as now organized in South Dakota public schools.—South Dakota has already made good advancement in

teaching home economics in its public schools. Forty-four towns and cities have organized departments of home economics and several consolidated schools have made some effort to introduce certain phases of this subject. Little effort has been made to teach the subject in the one-teacher rural schools, although the State course of study offers suggestions on this subject.

In a few schools home economics is taught in high school only; but the prevailing custom in South Dakota city schools is to introduce either food courses or clothing courses or both in the seventh grade. Five schools report teaching sewing in the fifth grade, and three have sewing in grades below the fifth.

It is customary in schools giving work in home economics to require all girls to take this while in the grades and to place home economics on the optional list in the high school.

The size of classes varies from 3 to 38 pupils and in time from 35 minutes once a week in some grades to 90 minutes daily in some high schools. It is common practice to allow only one 45-minute period per week for either cooking or sewing in the elementary grades. Sometimes the two subjects alternate, so that a student sews 45 minutes one week and cooks 45 minutes the alternate week.

Weaknesses in the present system.—The short, infrequent periods now allotted to home economics in the elementary grades is one of the chief weaknesses of the work. It is unfortunate that the work in the high school is usually effective, frequently poorly scheduled, often hampered by the grouping of girls of unequal preparation and by failure in securing cooperation of other departments with that of home economics. These difficulties may be due to indifference or to lack of recognition of the importance of the subject.

Preparation of teachers in home economics.—There were 33 replies to the questionnaire sent to the secondary school teachers of the subject. These teachers were trained at various institutions in the following numbers:

State Agricultural College of South Dakota.....	3
University of South Dakota.....	5
Stout Institute, Menomonie, Wis.....	8
Iowa State Agricultural College.....	2
Kansas State Agricultural College.....	2
University of Minnesota.....	2
Milwaukee Downer College, Milwaukee, Wis.....	3
Thomas Normal School, Detroit, Mich.....	2
Valley City Normal, North Dakota.....	1
University of Iowa.....	1
St. Lawrence University, New York.....	1
Columbia University, New York City.....	1
Yankton College.....	1
Not designated.....	1

A study of the record of preparation of home economics teachers for high schools leads to two distinct impressions: (1) That many of them are not graduates of four-year college courses; and (2) that the majority of the teachers have received their training outside of South Dakota, although citizens of South Dakota during their college years.

The first conclusion leads to the belief that home economics will never receive fair consideration from other high school departments until the same degree of collegiate preparation is required for the teacher of the one as for that of the other.

The second conclusion (that many have pursued courses at schools of other States) points to some weakness in the higher educational institutions of South Dakota. It is probable that some of these teachers were residents of other States and came into South Dakota for employment, but there is evidence that many South Dakota young people have not highly valued the training offered in their own State educational institutions.

A further discussion of teacher training in home economics will be found in the chapter relating to the Agricultural College of South Dakota.

Difficulties now existing in the administration of home economics.—The teachers realize the difficulties under which some of them are teaching. This is evidenced by many expressions of their needs in the replies to a questionnaire sent them. The commonest desire is for longer and more frequent home economics' periods in the elementary grades and that the subject shall be required in all high schools.

Many state that they need added equipment and some need better rooms. These are but natural conditions in a young and rapidly growing State, and are deficiencies that should be corrected; but they may be temporary and are not necessarily fundamental.

The lack of adequate educational equipment, reference books, and textbooks can not be so lightly overlooked. The cost of these is comparatively small and the rapid increase in school attendance can not be given as an excuse for either the negligence or the indifference which causes the absence of these minor but important supplies and equipment.

It is not surprising that a teacher giving daily instruction in high school English II, high school English IV, German, botany, physiology, and seventh and eighth grade home economics should be forced to say, "She had read no books since she began teaching." Such a schedule of work is alike unfair to teacher and pupils. It is the most extreme type of waste of human ability and vitality. To prepare adequately five different subjects each evening is too great a requirement to make of any teacher after she has taught five full hours during the day. Such a teacher will wear herself out and break in health.

or she will look for another position or settle down to do as little as possible under the circumstances. It is a common fault in South Dakota that the home economics teachers have been assigned to too many other subjects.

Advancement while in service.—Not only must a home economics teacher have adequate preparation before employment, but her growth in knowledge and teaching ability should be continuous while in the service. Her growth is dependent upon the extent and variety of her reading, upon her participation in teachers' associations maintained in her city, county, State and Nation, and in her graduate study at summer schools or during periods of leave of absence.

With but few exceptions the home economics teachers are reading some of the most approved educational books. One teacher states that she has not time to read—a fact that is perfectly evident when her daily schedule is studied.

Twenty teachers are reading the American Home Economics Journal; 10 are reading the Literary Digest, while others are readers of the Independent, World's Work, National Geographic Magazine, Review of Reviews, and Educational Review. This speaks well for the intellectual efforts these teachers are making and will lead to increased efficiency.

All but six of these teachers have joined one or more educational associations. Not so many are members of the home economics associations as could be desired, but it is probably partly due to their newness in this line of work.

The home economics teachers of South Dakota are most of them new in their positions and only just out of school, which may explain why few have carried graduate courses.

Present methods in teaching home economics.—At present almost all food instruction in South Dakota consists of small recipe cooking, the products of which are immediately eaten. A child is not critical of the result of her own labor, nor is she a fair judge of the quality of cooked foods. This method of disposal of laboratory products is objectionable. It stimulates greed and selfishness. Food is wasted if eaten when not needed. There is no stimulus to excel because there is no one to know of success or failure. It is undesirable that children eat at odd times and between meals. The repeated use of very small quantities of food materials fails to give the judgment and dexterity needed in the preparation of family-sized quantities.

Some notable exceptions to this small recipe method were observed. In Aberdeen, Sioux Falls, and Pierre, the students regularly prepare a daily school luncheon, while at Madison and some other places the children bring supplies from home and take the finished product for home use. In all cases the cooked food should meet a

real need and the children should receive the incentive which comes from the approbation of others.

In a few places in South Dakota "model" sewing is given. Hand-work with no machine work often remains in the elementary school course. This is not so much the fault of the teacher as it is of the school board which fails to supply sewing machines and suitable rooms for teaching valuable courses in garment making. The use of the sewing machine and the commercial pattern should be taught in the sixth, and each succeeding grade.

To teach neat and effective hand and machine work and also the intelligent choice and preparation of food is desirable, but foods and clothing do not include all of home economics. Almost without exception the school boards and instructors in home economics in South Dakota have overlooked the importance of teaching household accounting, home management, home administration, home nursing, and household sanitation. They have ignored the need of careful instruction in personal hygiene. Yet much of home economics is but an intensified study of hygiene. Each course given, be it food, clothing, or home administration, must be based upon certain elemental truths, and must be taught with especial emphasis upon the health aspects of the subject.

Courses of study.—South Dakota devotes six pages of the elementary school course of study to "Domestic science and gardening," but three pages of the six give a mere exposition of home economics subject matter, and as a part of the course of study could be condensed into one quarter page. So far as could be discovered no teacher of elementary grade home economics in cities or towns was following this course, which is denominated "A practical rural school course." No other course is suggested for the use of teachers in elementary grades.

There is no uniform course in home economics for high schools. At present each teacher plans her own course, which under such conditions varies from year to year with the changing of teachers.

Suggested modification and improvements in the organization and administration of home economics.—South Dakota should have a State course of study for home economics in the elementary and secondary schools. This course should progress toward uniform results, but there should be opportunity for adaptation to community and school needs and conditions.

Particular problems should not be required by this course, but definite principles with State-wide application should be presented in orderly and logical sequence.

Such a course when once inaugurated will bring to the service better prepared teachers; it will enable pupils to transfer from one

school to another without delay or repetition of work; and it will make possible adjustment of advanced home economics courses in the State institutions of higher education.

Time allowance on home economics.—The following time allowance for home economics is recommended for all graded schools:

Fifth and sixth grades: Forty-five minutes four times each week or one and one-half hour periods twice each week.

Seventh and eighth grades: Seven 45-minute periods. It is desirable that these be given as three periods of one and one-half hours each and one prepared lesson period, or that two entire half days be given to home economics each week.

If the financial condition of a school community is such that home economics can not be maintained in both elementary and high schools, then it should be supported in the grades alone until there are funds sufficient for a complete course. So many children leave school that it is imperative that some training be given early in the course.

One year of home economics should be required of all high-school girls. This should be in the ninth grade and should be so taught as to be equal to one full unit of work. It may consist of six laboratory hours, two class-room hours, and two hours for study, or it may be given as five double periods weekly, with time taken during these for recitations and discussions. Electives in home economics should be offered in the upper three years of high-school work in the larger city schools. It is probable that much better results will be attained in the smaller towns if efforts be made to make the elementary and first high-school year of greater excellence rather than to multiply courses in home economics for advanced classes.

Textbooks.—Textbooks for home economics teaching should be adopted for elementary schools and for high schools. While it may not be possible to find textbooks that exactly meet the needs of all localities or present material in exactly the order desired by each teacher, it must be conceded that a less-than-perfect textbook, supplemented by notes and assigned readings, carries an elementary or high school student farther along any line than will dictated notes and copied material.

Especially is this true in studies of the type for home economics and with young teachers such as now are employed for this subject. Of 33 teachers of home economics reporting as employed in South Dakota, four accepted their present position since January 1, 1918, 17 during 1917, four in 1916, three in 1915, three in 1914 and two in 1913.

No consistent course of instruction can be maintained without standard textbooks when the personnel of the teaching force changes so frequently.

Content of courses.—Fifth grade: Home economics in the fifth grade should consist of lessons in sewing and in housekeeping. In a well-organized school system all children will have had primary manual arts in the first four grades. They will know how to use scissors and other common tools and will have become interested in the work of their hands.

From the first lessons in sewing, there should be presented a definite purpose for every effort they are taught to make. It is at this age that a girl readily learns to crochet, knit, make tatting, and work designs in cross stitch. All sewing during the fifth grade will be by hand. It should be on small problems, that each may be completed before the child becomes weary and discouraged.

Children interested in dolls may be given problems in doll garments, but usually the child of 11 or 12 prefers making something of actual use. Too often the intelligence and ability of a child is underestimated. If given a task worth while she is interested and will learn quickly. The girls should sew for 45 minutes three times each week. Dexterity is developed, and the speediness with which their problems are completed stimulates the student to further effort. There is little to cause wonder that girls failed to enjoy sewing when they had but one lesson in two weeks, and were able to see few results after many weeks of periodical effort.

If possible, the sewing in the fifth grade should be given by a special teacher. There are, occasionally, grade teachers who are deft in the use of the needle and readily enjoy teaching sewing, but usually the room teacher is less efficient in this line than in her usual work. There is opportunity to correlate sewing with several other subjects in this grade. The result is an increased interest in each.

The function of sewing instruction in the grades is first to familiarize the child with the tools used and to develop manual dexterity. This, with instruction concerning the growth of cotton and flax, the life of the silkworm, and simple weaving processes, is about all that can be accomplished in the fifth grade.

One-fourth of the time for home economics in the fifth grade should be devoted to housekeeping. Few mothers would choose cooking as the first part of home-making to be taught eleven-year old girls. Rather, the natural method of introducing a child to home making, is to teach her to make a bed, set a table, clear off a table, wash dishes, dust furniture and arrange household articles in an attractive manner. Less judgment is required in the discharge of these duties than in food preparation. The more immediate tangible results appeal to the younger child.

Equipment for teaching home economics will not be considered adequate if there be only tables, sewing machines, commercially made cooking desks and cooking utensils. In order to teach home making

by means of bed making, table setting, dusting, etc., it becomes essential that there be a bed to make, a table to set and a room to arrange and dust.

A small house, an apartment or a teacher's dining room or rest room becomes part of the essential equipment for the satisfactory teaching of home economics.

Sixth grade.—The sixth grade home economics course should consist of sewing and food preparation.

The sewing teacher should review the methods taught in the previous year, making applications to new problems. The introduction to the use of the machine and of the commercial pattern belongs in this second year of sewing.

The problems chosen should again be small enough to be completed in reasonable time. The articles made should be such as the child, or some member of the family or other person can actually use.

In the food preparation class the housekeeping lessons of the fifth grade should be reviewed and ability developed to follow accurately a simple recipe, to combine the ingredients and to regulate the heat in the ordinary processes of cooking.

This cooking should be with small quantities. Because of the inexperience of the child, some poor products and some food waste are inevitable. The small quantities used reduce the waste to the minimum, at the same time making easier for the child the manipulation of the materials and the use of the cooking utensils. The time allowed for food preparation lessons should not be less than 1½ hours. This makes possible the completion of the processes involved in the preparation of any dish, affords time for explanations and inquiries by the teacher, and gives opportunity for nice dish washing and kitchen cleaning, as well as time for orderly serving and eating of the food.

Seventh and eighth grade courses.—Many children leave school without entering the high school. Recognizing this and also that in the early adolescent period girls are more interested in all that relates to household matters than in their earlier years, the seventh and eighth grade home economics should receive especial stress.

The technique of food preparation, garment making, and housekeeping should be perfected and, in addition, a broader comprehension of reasons for processes and the relation of the study of home problems to other subjects should be developed. Food study should be correlated with arithmetic, agriculture, geography, and language. Garment making with geography, arithmetic, language, and drawing.

In all cases the articles produced by these classes should be for actual use and should meet some existing need. Personal adornment should not be the incentive for sewing nor selfish satisfaction the motive for food preparation.

The sewing may be for personal use if the garments are needed. The problems chosen should be such as the community life makes desirable. Not only should garments be made, but their cost in material and time should be computed and the comparison made between the ready-to-wear and the home-made garment.

Elementary home nursing, home sanitation and household accounting should be taught during the seventh and eighth grades. Practical experience in buying should be given so often that an ability to discriminate and judge of foods and fabrics may be developed.

Upon the completion of the eighth grade of school work certain attainments should have been reached by all girls. Besides ordinary scholastic accomplishments they should be able to do certain things for themselves and their homes and should understand the relation of their home to the community.

A girl of fourteen or one having finished the eighth grade should be able to choose and purchase the material for her own plain clothes and to make her own undergarments and wash dresses; she should have developed a pride in the care and repair of her own wardrobe; she should know how to assist in the household and should enjoy having the care of her own room; she should be able to plan a simple meal economically, purchase the foods and cook and serve the same in an expeditious and satisfactory manner.

Cooperation of the mothers with the efforts of the teachers is necessary in order that the pupils may have encouragement at home to practice that which is taught at school. It is doubtful if school credit in home economics can be given for home work. Credit for home work presupposes frequent supervision, and to do this in home economics there is necessarily an intrusion upon the privacy and personal problems of the home. This, no school official has a right to attempt. Uninspected home work with school credit is eminently unfair. The honest mother and daughter will suffer in comparison with those of more elastic consciences, and the daughter of a mother with high standards for workmanship will be at a disadvantage with those whose mothers' ideas of excellence are lax.

High school home economics.—The ninth year at school should complete the required home economics work. After the ninth year there will need to be, in the larger cities, elective courses. The student pursuing a commercial course can not afford more time for home economics training, neither can the girl who has a reasonable expectation of being able to enter a college or university or normal school. The young woman whose future is undetermined, or who will probably remain in her home, may well elect a four years' course in home economics, and for her these elective high school courses may be established.

The ninth grade or last year of required home economics study should be based upon the previous four years of grade work. It should be a survey course equivalent to one full unit course and should be allotted the equivalent of daily double periods. Foods, clothing, hygiene, and home administration should divide the time. Each may be given the equivalent of one-half of one semester of class time with the laboratory periods equally divided between garment making, food preparation, and housekeeping. Local school conditions may well determine whether these subjects shall alternate throughout the week, or occupy all the time of alternate weeks, or be assigned to seasonal periods. In general, it is most desirable to give the practical work in sewing in the first nine weeks of the fall semester and the last nine weeks of the spring semester, thus leaving the 18 mid-year weeks for food preparation. If the teachers in charge of this work are broadly and well trained such a plan works well, but if the teachers are over specialized and can teach only foods or only clothing, then it will be necessary to alternate the classes so that all teachers may be continuously employed.

Laboratory food products should be used in the school lunch room and for teachers' lunches, receptions, dinners, etc.

Supplemental paid help will be needed in any lunch room supplying 50 or more lunches per day.

It is here suggested that the sewing course shall be based upon the assumption that the students know how to do plain hand sewing, use a commercial pattern, and operate a sewing machine and are acquainted with different fabrics and weaves.

There should be a review of handwork, machine work, and commercial pattern use by some simple problem such as the making of a gingham garment for a child.

A further review of the above and also the choice and application of trimming can be given on a problem such as the making of a muslin gown. Since the use of the electric motor for home sewing machines is becoming common, the use of a motor-driven machine should be taught at this time in the course.

An advanced knowledge of color, design, and textiles may be developed by the problem of a serge school dress or the remaking of a woolen dress or skirt.

There should be at least one problem involving cleaning and, if possible, dyeing.

There should be one problem consisting of work for others rather than for self. This might, for the present, well be for the Red Cross, Belgian Relief, Associated Charities, or for local needy children.

One or more general problems necessitating the cooperation of all members of the class should be required. This may be rug making.

quilt making, hemming household linen, or making costumes for some school play. Ability to work well with others and happily for others is a characteristic so desirable that no school should fail to develop this in every way possible.

Unless the teaching of home economics functions in the home life of the students it is of little value. A student in clothing should be more suitably clothed with garments kept in better repair than one without this training. The value of courses should be evidenced by more simple, conservative and appropriate garments chosen and worn by the students.

A similar development of taste and judgment should be evidenced in regard to food, house furnishing, and housekeeping.

The mastery of technique results in greater pleasure in accomplishment.

Whether a girl elects business, industrial, or academic courses, she will always need the instruction received in the required home economics courses.

When a business woman, her training will have prepared her to buy suitable clothes and to care for them; to select proper food to maintain her body at a maximum degree of efficiency; and so to control her environment that her surroundings may not imperil her health.

Elective high-school home economics course.—Elective high-school home economics courses should be paralleled by science courses which become required courses for all students electing the home economics. These science courses should be chemistry, physics, biology, and physiology. In addition to these there should be a required one-year course of advanced art for all students pursuing the elective home economics course.

This elective course may well include advanced dressmaking, advanced foods courses, invalid cooking, lunch room cookery, household sanitation and administration, and the home care of the sick.

The above-suggested courses do not include trade training for women. Many of the industries in which women are employed are evolutions of household employments, but home economics instruction can be considered only as a prevocational training for these wage-earning vocations. A demand for special trade courses in the high school of South Dakota in the near future and the maintenance of such instruction is made possible by the Federal vocational education law.

Home economics in the consolidated rural schools.—Consolidated rural schools need neither less home economics nor home economics of a quality different from that here recommended for the city or town school.

The instruction should be presented from a different point of view. The problems selected should be chosen because applicable to local rural conditions but the fundamental principles underlying home-making apply alike to city and rural homes.

An illustration in regard to the variation of the instruction in home economics could be illustrated by lessons upon vegetables. In the city questions of purchase and storage in small quantities would precede discussions as to use, while in the rural school questions of home production and storage in large quantities would be considered before questions of use.

Sanitary milk supplies, laws relating to marketing milk, etc., would be taught in towns; but in the country the production of sanitary milk, its care, handling, storage and use would be stressed.

In towns city water systems would be considered, with general water sources and supplies incidentally taught, while in rural communities the source of water for farm homes, the preservation of the purity of same, the storage of household water, and the introduction of water into the house would be especially emphasized.

In town the municipal methods of sewage and waste disposal would be discussed at length, with minor consideration for the household disposal of waste materials.

In the country, where each householder becomes responsible for the sanitary conditions surrounding his home, greater care in teaching sanitation would be necessary.

In the grades from the fifth to the ninth, inclusive, town and country children should receive the same number of hours of instruction, and one group should not have a better course than the other, but all should have their lessons correlated with their life experiences and especially adapted to their environment.

Home economics in the one-teacher rural school.—The girls of the one-teacher school merit as much and as good training in home-making as do their more fortunate friends who have the opportunity of attending a graded school. It is manifestly impossible for one teacher to teach all grades and all branches with the same emphasis and with the same efficiency as could eight teachers each in charge of but one grade. Hence home economics courses must be modified and adapted to meet the conditions of instruction existing in one-teacher schools.

There are three ways by which the subjects relating to home-making may be taught: (1) By the school teacher employed in the school; (2) by a special teacher shared by five or more schools; and (3) by certain women in the community. This last arrangement is known as the "Crete plan" because first effectively used at Crete, Nebr.

In certain sections of the United States there is a fourth possibility of the rural girl acquiring special information concerning household arts. Where there is a well-organized "farm bureau" with a special woman in charge of clubs for women and girls much good instruction can be given in sewing, cooking, and food preservation in connection with these clubs. At places the local teachers have been retained during the summer vacation period and employed as sub-agents in club work, thus continuing the relationship of teacher and child throughout the year.

When the school system of South Dakota is reorganized and all employed teachers are adequately prepared, it will be possible to require that every rural teacher have some home economics training. Until that time the best that can be secured for the rural child taught by the local teacher is conscientious teaching from a good textbook on home economics subjects.

As elsewhere stated home economics includes the study of sanitation, foods, clothing, and household management, as well as other subjects. The theoretical instruction in regard to sanitation and foods is needed equally by boys and girls in rural homes. Instruction in these two subjects should be given in alternate years to the pupils in the seventh and eighth grades, but sanitary practices should be insisted upon at all times. Each day will offer opportunities to stress the right use of foods.

Manual arts in the four lower grades leads naturally to sewing for the girls of the fifth and sixth grades and elementary agriculture for the boys of these grades. A little time spent daily upon these studies or a longer time on Friday afternoon makes steady progress possible.

Home work in these subjects may be required and graded, but must be tested by skill in tasks done at school before school credit can be given. Without the cooperation of the parents of the district it is almost impossible to attain completely satisfactory results from home economics instruction in the one-teacher school.

By dividing the time of a special teacher of home economics between several schools, most effective teaching of both agriculture and home economics is made possible. By this method the special teacher relieves the regular teacher of half of the pupils and enables her to give special instruction to the section remaining with her.

The "Crete" plan of teaching home economics depends for its success upon the cooperation, ability, and good will of the women of the district. Each woman in the school organization agrees to meet a group of the girls at certain times. The girls go to the homes for their instruction. The woman who is an expert bread maker teaches bread making; the expert milk and butter woman teaches that sub-

ject; the woman who is most successful with meats or soups or desserts agrees to instruct in her specialty; while those women who are experts in needlework give their services to the neighborhood girls at stated times.

When the county agents, working under the Smith-Lever Act, have time and facilities for the organization and systematic instruction of rural clubs, and when this club work can be progressively maintained for a series of years, much good instruction in certain phases of home economics can be given the rural girls.

The special teacher, the adoption of the Crete plan, and dependence upon club organizations all involve so many different factors that they are the exceptional rather than the usual methods of securing home economics in the one-room school. The means most often effective will be found to be the willing teacher supplied with a good textbook and making full use of the opportunities offered of connecting instruction in foods and sanitation with the daily service of a hot lunch.

The older girls will learn to assume responsibility in the management of the lunch and the procurement of supplies. The girls next in age will learn simple lessons in correct food preparation in cooking the articles needed. The younger girls will learn nice methods of dishwashing, and orderly methods in doing the necessary after-lunch work, while all students, both boys and girls, will be taught cleanliness, orderliness, and good manners if the lunch is rightly managed.

A very few minutes given each day to lessons on the lunch will insure all this if the school authorities supply an abundance of good water. Little of value can be taught regarding sanitation in a dirty school house to unwashed and thirsty children.

Many arithmetics now base their lessons on practical problems relating to home life and various industries. Bookkeeping is made interesting by application to home and farm management problems. By correlating language lessons, geography, arithmetic, bookkeeping, and agriculture with the study of the problems of the home, all are made more interesting and of more permanent value. By these means home economics can contribute to the future efficiency and well being of the rural child educated in the one-room school as well as to the graded school children.

School lunches.—The administration of the school lunch is a legitimate part of the duties of the home economics teacher. As elsewhere discussed this lunch is a means of disposing of the food-class products.

During the more bitter cold weather a hot lunch at noon for the elementary children, with a shorter midday recess and an earlier dismissal, would be the most desirable in all town schools. In the early

fall and spring there would be little demand for a school lunch, except in high schools, one-teacher rural, and consolidated schools. In these latter the lunch is needed at all seasons of the year.

The noon lunch accomplishes but half of what is possible when it merely provides food. Personal cleanliness, order, good table manners, consideration for others, and intelligent choice of foods may all be taught through the school lunch. The cooperation of principal, room teacher, and home-economics teacher is necessary for the fullest success. The home-economics teacher must not be expected to give full time to class teaching and have the responsibility of the conduct of the lunch added to her labors.

Time allowance must be made for this extra work, and the teacher should be given opportunity to give at least one 20-minute lesson each week in each grade room on the subject of selection of foods, and the effect upon health of incorrect food habits. By these means the school lunch will become educative and can be related to other subjects of the school curriculum.

Home nursing.—Instruction in home nursing in either town, consolidated rural schools, or one-room rural schools is necessary and should be included in all curricula. This teaching is done best by a trained nurse, if such a person is employed by public authorities or local school boards. When the services of a trained nurse can not be secured the home-economics teacher or the classroom teacher should give this instruction, and also lessons in first aid for all students, both boys and girls.

Courses for boys.—All men and boys need a knowledge of the general facts concerning foods. They should know how to select suitable foods when buying at hotels or restaurants; the effect of incorrect or badly prepared foods upon the health of the consumer; and they also need to know much about the sanitary handling and transportation of foods.

The general information suggested can be given in connection with courses in hygiene. The courses in the technique of camp cookery should be offered as electives in the eighth grade and first high-school year, and special out-of-school classes in camp cookery should be provided.

Teachers of home economics in public schools.—Elsewhere in this report the training of teachers of home economics will be considered in detail, and the relation of normal schools, colleges, and the State university to the teachers of home economics will be fully discussed. No high-school teacher of home economics should be employed who has had less than full college or university training. She should have at least a bachelor's degree. If teachers are employed to teach home economics in the elementary grades only, this requisite training should be not less than the equivalent of two years of standard co-

lege or university courses. Teachers of home economics for schools of the open country should have in addition to the above-required preparation good courses in general agriculture, and should have actually lived upon a country homestead.

The pay of home-economics teachers should be the same as the pay of other teachers for whom a like amount of preparation is required.

Supervision of home economics.—South Dakota should have attached to her staff of officers connected with the State department of education a supervisor of home economics. This woman should be broadly educated and should have a wide experience in public-school work. If South Dakota can not at present afford to maintain such an officer at the State department of education, then some instructor in home economics at the State agricultural college should be appointed to discharge the duties of State supervisor of home economics, giving not less than one-half of her time to inspecting the work done and advising the teachers in their departmental organization.

This latter arrangement has the advantage of closely linking the college and the State teaching of home economics, and if properly administered will strengthen and broaden the work in both spheres.

Section 2.—HOME ECONOMICS IN THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

PRESENT STATUS.

Introduction.—Home economics courses are now offered in all four State normal schools of South Dakota, but in none of these is this work required. Because of other studies which are required and because of the manner of scheduling these courses, only a small proportion of the normal students enroll in home economics. This condition is unfortunate.

Rural school-teachers need a knowledge of foods, clothing, and sanitation for their own well-being. They must choose their food intelligently that they may retain their health while in charge of the schools. They must dress comfortably, healthfully, and attractively while at work. They must select surroundings that are sanitary and safe. Without knowledge of these subjects their value as teachers is materially lessened and not infrequently effective school service is sacrificed because of ill health.

The normal-school graduates teach in rural and elementary schools, where all information possible concerning conditions which affect health is needed in order that the teachers may instruct their pupils and assist the mothers of the community in maintaining good physical conditions among the school children.

For these reasons and others discussed elsewhere in the report, it is regrettable that so few students at the normal schools are able to avail themselves of the excellent courses offered in home economics.

State Normal School at Madison.—At the Madison Normal School the department of home economics is in the basement of the practice-school building. The rooms are well lighted and large. There is an office, a large laboratory, dining room (also used as classroom), a sewing room, and storeroom. While the arrangement is not ideal, and all necessary courses in home economics can not be properly given without some additional space and equipment, the present conditions are good and with relatively small expenditure could be made satisfactory.

Home economics is required for all girls in the practice school from the fifth to the eighth grade, inclusive. It is an elective for all women students in the normal-school course and is now approved for all students in the tenth grade, but owing to the present schedule of classes it is difficult for the students to register in home economics. Only two double periods per week are now assigned to home economics for normal-school students. This is too small an allotment of the time for such an essential subject.

State Normal School at Spearfish.—The department of home economics is housed on the third floor of the main building, in rooms with low ceilings. The equipment is in good condition and is suitable for the use of the older students, but is not well adapted for children the size of those in the practice school, who now utilize these rooms for their cooking and sewing classes. Rooms and equipment should be provided elsewhere for these children, and the courses should be arranged to conform to the recommendations made for elementary and secondary school home economics. At present, cooking and sewing are required in alternate years in the training school, beginning with the fifth grade and continuing through the eighth. Cooking is given in the fifth and seventh grades and sewing in the sixth and eighth.

Students in the normal school are not required to study home economics, though they may elect courses 1 to 8, inclusive. If they so desire, they may elect a full four-year course. The number choosing this longer course is negligible, though the courses are well planned and well taught.

State Normal School at Springfield.—Home economics at the Springfield Normal School is taught under the worst conditions imaginable. The rooms assigned to the use of this department are in a cellar basement. The equipment is inadequate, and sanitary conditions are bad. The rooms are poorly lighted and ventilated. It is not strange that few students were registered for this work. The same teacher is employed in sewing, cooking, and drawing. She is

naturally unable to give to any of these subjects the amount of time and care necessary to satisfactory teaching.

The village school of Springfield is used as a practice school for the normal-school students, but as home economics receives so little attention at the normal school, its relation to the practice school is at present of no importance and is unrecognized.

Northern Normal and Industrial School at Aberdeen.—Home economics at the Aberdeen normal school is in high basement rooms, easy of access and adequately equipped for home economics as now administered. Although this is an "industrial" school, no home economics is required. Agriculture is required in many of the school's courses for both men and women, and the question naturally arises why the coordinate subject of home making has not been similarly considered.

The classes in home economics at the Aberdeen normal school are all small. Three times as many students could be accommodated in the rooms now in use if the courses were properly scheduled. Additional space should be granted for home economics classes and extra equipments supplied. This will be discussed in the following pages.

Recommendations for improving home-economics courses, teaching, and equipment in the four normal schools.—Home economics should be required of all women in attendance at the State normal schools. Students entering from eighth-grade elementary schools should be required to carry one full year of work in this subject during the ninth grade, or first year at the normal school. Students entering from higher grades should present credits for high-school work equivalent to the year's course in the normal schools or be required to carry a full course of home economics during their first year of attendance at the normal schools. As hereinbefore stated, these courses are valuable, first, because they equip the student for more healthful and efficient living; second, because they contribute to her preparation for her own ultimate occupation of home making; third, because as a teacher of rural or elementary schools she must be able to guide and direct her pupils to a knowledge of good, sanitary living conditions and the better management of household affairs.

This required course of a year in home economics should include the study of food, sanitation, clothing, and household management. Two hours daily should be scheduled for this. Textbooks should be used, so that there may be the minimum loss of time in note-taking and copying. This course is not intended to be a preparation for teaching any phase of home economics. This point should be made plain to students and to patrons of the school. Up to and through the ninth year of school work home economics is a service subject and a legitimate part of every girl's course of study. It is part of her preparation for a healthful and efficient life.

The above recommendations are applicable to all normal schools in the State. The following recommendations apply only to each institution as specifically named:

Recommendations relating to Madison Normal School.—It is not the function of this institution to prepare teachers of home economics for either the elementary or high schools. The eastern part of South Dakota has the agricultural college, an institution which rightly assumes the authority for the preparation of high-school economics' teachers.

The Madison Normal School would render a fine service to the State if it would arrange a course of five double periods per week for all ninth-grade students, in the nature of a survey course, including lessons in foods, clothing, sanitation, and household administration.

This normal school should also require all its students above the ninth grade to take a course in school-lunch management, first-aid work, and simple home nursing. These subjects are especially needed by rural teachers and should be so scheduled that they may be completed before the end of the tenth school year. Courses in these subjects should also be offered in the summer sessions, so that experienced rural teachers may increase their efficiency by pursuing them.

The practice-school home economics should be made to conform to the recommendations made for the organization of the subject in the public school curriculum. The seventh and eighth grade classes should prepare most of the food now served for the noon lunches, and the tenth-grade students should do the marketing for, supervise preparation of, and direct the service of these noon lunches.

The department is otherwise in a good condition of organization and control. All new bulletin and periodical materials are made available for the use of the students, and a high standard for administration is maintained. To continue and increase this efficiency it is necessary that liberal appropriations be made for the support of home economics in the Madison Normal School.

Home economics in the Spearfish Normal School.—This normal school is the only teacher-training institution in the western half of South Dakota; hence it must serve the needs of most of the teachers of that section of the State. It is accordingly recommended that a course in first aid and home nursing be required in addition to the ninth-grade work suggested for all normal schools and the tenth-grade course in lunch preparation. The school should also be authorized to offer elective courses in home economics for the preparation of elementary and rural home economics teachers. These courses should be of not less than four years' duration.

The practice school should make provision for practice teaching in this subject, and equipment for the elementary pupils should be installed in or near the practice school. Provision for the service of

a hot lunch to the children should be made to give the normal-school pupils experience in this work.

Home economics in the Springfield Normal School.—The normal school at Springfield lies in a section of South Dakota well supplied with institutions that give teacher training in home economics; accordingly this department should be considered a "service" department in this normal school, and its courses should be planned for the general education of the students. No elective courses should be maintained; only one year of required home-economics study and one term of special work should be established. These courses are similar to those suggested for the Madison Normal School, discussed elsewhere in this section.

The home-economics department should be removed from its present quarters. It is suggested that for the next few years one of the large, well-lighted rooms of the science hall be placed at the service of the home-economics department, with the understanding that later special rooms be allotted to home economics in the proposed new wing of the main building. If it is found impossible to place the home-economics department in a room of the science building, it is suggested that a convenient dwelling house be rented by the board of regents and that the present equipment, together with needed additional equipment, be established in such rented house.

The existing close connection of art with home economics is most desirable, but at present the proper administration of these inter-related subjects is complicated by the inadequate teaching force. At least one additional teacher should be added to the department.

Home economics in the Aberdeen Normal School.—The course of study at this school is entirely elective and too closely follows that usual college course, planned and organized with no other purpose in view than to bring into the course, at some time, a sample of each type of home economics work. The home economics department at this school has three functions to perform:

1. To prepare young women for efficient living;
2. To prepare teachers of home economics for rural and elementary schools;
3. To provide vocational home economics courses for girls who have no near-by school upon which they can depend to provide this instruction.

The course in the ninth grade, recommended for all of the normal schools, will provide the training for the first. For the proper performance of the second and third functions, the school must establish carefully planned new courses.

The normal school authorities who formulated the normal school courses should bear in mind that a majority of the students in the

normal schools will return to rural communities. Home economics courses should be arranged and administered with special stress on the rural phases of the problems presented.

Food production, food storage, food values, and desirable food combinations should not be taught as subjects of minor importance in a course which stresses mere technique. The study of textile fibers, cloth production, the value of ready-made garments, the selection of suitable designs and colors, and the care of clothing are of more importance than the manual skill required for the fabrication and decoration of garments. Rural water supplies, rural disposal of household waste, small heating systems, home lighting plants, and the healthful control of home environment are more valuable to these students than extended lessons on municipal filtration plants and the abatement of city nuisances. Rural people must wait for a physician, and are subject to many accidents requiring first aid. Rural children should be free from infectious diseases because of the ease of isolation. Knowledge of the prevention of disease, first aid, and home nursing are necessary parts of all education for rural life. Hence in building an elective home economics course for the Aberdeen Normal School, these conditions should be kept in mind. The entire curriculum should be designed to prepare the student for satisfactory administration of the rural home.

The present equipment for teaching home economics will continue to be needed. It should be supplemented by a suit of rooms for practical household administration, or by a cottage for that purpose. If a model farmhouse is built on the campus of the normal school, the arrangement would be ideal if this were given as a practice home for the advanced classes of home economics students. Attached to this should be a garden, chicken house and yard, bee stands, and a barn to supplement class work with practical experience.

When a model consolidated rural school is built at this normal school, home economics should receive special attention. This would afford practice teaching for the home economics students and would give experience in management of noon-day lunches.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. All the normal schools should establish a required course of home economics to be taken during the first year of attendance at the normal school.
2. A special course in hot-lunch management, first aid, and elementary home nursing should be provided and made compulsory for all tenth grade or second year women students in all the normal schools.
3. The Madison and Springfield Normal Schools should not extend their courses beyond the two lines of work above recommended.

4. The Aberdeen and Spearfish Normal Schools should supplement the above-required courses by elective courses for elementary and rural teachers and for prospective home makers.

5. The salaries of home economics teachers should be increased in all the normal schools, and the home economics teaching corps should be enlarged.

6. The home economics department at Springfield should be removed from its present location, which is extremely objectionable, to better quarters.

7. The equipment and rooms at the other schools should be improved and enlarged.

8. Each practice school maintained at the State normal schools should be specially equipped with food and clothing laboratories and with provisions for practice in school lunch management.

Chapter XIV.

INSTRUCTION AND SUPERVISION IN OPEN COUNTRY AND VILLAGE SCHOOLS.

Section I. INSTRUCTION.

Mode of procedure.—This discussion is based upon careful observation of 238 recitations in 83 rural and village schools visited. Usually, the survey committee was accompanied by the county superintendent. In two counties the Red Cross public health nurse was a third visitor in some of the rural schools inspected. The visitors took inconspicuous seats and there was no deviation from the regular program. In schools where there was to be a talk and inspection by the public health nurse the school program continued through two or more recitations before the nurse began her work. If the road conditions and distances made it possible the survey specialist then moved on to another school.

The physical condition of the room was given consideration. In one school the observations concerning the recitations were not recorded because the room was too cold for comfort. Parts of recitations were also eliminated. Only those lessons listened to under conditions as nearly normal as possible are included in this report.

The grade, subject matter, treatment of lesson by the teacher and the reaction of the pupils were observed. Very full notes were taken, the visitor recording almost verbatim all that was said or done on the part of both pupils and teacher throughout the recitation. For the time being no account was taken of the children at their seats unless they became a disturbing element to the recitation in question.

Physical conditions and equipment.—It is quite necessary to take into consideration the physical conditions under which these lessons were prepared, and something of the equipment with which the teacher and pupils worked. The results of these summarizations are given in the following tables:

TABLE 33.—*Physical conditions in open country and village schools visited.*
(Based upon observations in 48 rooms in the open country and 80 in the village.)

Items.	Open country.		Villages.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Clean walls.....	18	38	23	32
Well chosen and well framed pictures.....	16	33	35	40
Single seats.....	23	48	59	65
Some seats ill fitted to pupils.....	27	56	20	22
Unsatisfactory lighting.....	38	79	30	38
Heating and ventilating system of furnace.....	22	46	73	82

TABLE 34.—*Equipment in open country and village schools visited.*

(Based upon observations in 48 rooms in the open country and 89 in the village.)

Items.	Open country.		Villages.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Satisfactory maps.....	25	52		
Satisfactory globes.....	17	35		
Sufficient blackboards.....	21	55	61	72

A study of the above tables indicates that approximately one-third of the rooms in both town and country schools visited had clean walls and well-chosen and appropriately framed pictures. It was generally noted that the pictures were hung too high. Single seats were found in a little less than half of the rooms in the open country schools and in nearly two-thirds of those in the village schools. More than twice as many children were seated uncomfortably in the rural schools as in the village schools. Unsatisfactory lighting includes cross lighting, front lighting, insufficient lighting, and lack of shades. These bad lighting conditions were found in 79 per cent of the rural schools and in 38 per cent of the village schools. It is noted that heating and ventilating systems or furnaces were found in less than half of the rural schools visited. In rooms heated by stoves the floors were usually cold and the air vitiated.

Summarizing the results of these observations on physical conditions in the schools visited, it was found that on every item, except clean walls, rooms in the villages and towns ranked higher than those in the open-country schools. In this discussion on instruction consideration must be given to the fact that many recitations were listened to in unattractive rooms, that some children were seated uncomfortably and that rooms were common where lighting, heating and ventilating were unsatisfactory.

An examination of Table 34 indicates that over one-half of the rural schools studied had satisfactory maps and that there were satisfactory globes in a little more than one-third of the rooms. Exact data on this subject were not taken for all the rooms inspected in the villages. It was observed that there was a satisfactory set of maps and a globe in practically every town school, so that if there was an inadequate supply in individual rooms it was possible to borrow this equipment when the occasion demanded.

The blackboard space was either insufficient or in unfit condition in 42 per cent of the open country schools and in 28 per cent of the towns visited. Exact observations were not made relative to reference material in these schools. In general it may be said that the observers found a lack of reference books and illustrative material.

Length of recitations.—In the discussion of the course of study it has been stated that the number of daily recitations in open country schools (based upon reports from 479 teachers) was 26.65. The school law of South Dakota defines a school-day as five and one-half hours, exclusive of intermissions. This makes only 12 minutes as the average length of a recitation.

Actual time was kept of the length of the recitations in 62 classes observed in one-teacher schools. The results are grouped below:

Length of recitations

Classes.	4 to 6 minutes.	7 to 9 minutes.	10 to 12 minutes.	13 to 15 minutes.	16 minutes.
Number.....	75	11	28	4	1
Per cent.....	24.00	21.00	45.00	.064	.016

Median, 10.21 minutes.

It is not surprising that the recitations should be so short when the number of classes were more than 26. The above grouping shows that 92 per cent of all the recitations were 12 minutes or less; 24 per cent lasted only 4 minutes. The minimum length of time was 4 minutes and the maximum 16 minutes. The median was 10.21 minutes. Of the five recitations 4 minutes in length, four were in spelling and one in first-grade arithmetic. The 16-minute recitation was in reading. The three 15-minute recitations observed were in music, arithmetic, and reading.

Nearly one-half of the recitations, upon which this discussion on instruction is based, were in the open country schools. In judging the type of instruction consideration must be given to the fact that the median length of recitations for approximately one-half of the classes observed was but little over 10 minutes.

Lesson assignments.—The lesson assignments were, in all but a few instances, given very hurriedly at the close of the recitation. Careful notes were taken relative to the assignments of 83 recitations. Their character is indicated below:

TABLE 35.—*Lesson assignments.*

Items.	Number.	Per cent.
Page or lesson simply indicated.....	55	66
A few details mentioned.....	17	20
Assignment by pupils.....	4	5
Carefully prepared assignments.....	7	9
Total.....	83	100

These expressions of teachers, taken from the field notes, very clearly characterize the type of assignments in 55 or 66 per cent of these 83 recitations:

"Take to page 155." "Same lesson to-morrow"; "Typhoid fever next time"; "Blackie in the trap, next"; "Learn 'The Last Leaf'"; "Begin with Stonewall Jackson and finish the chapter"; "Spell the next list"; "Work all the problems in the next exercise."

The few details given in the 17 lessons consisted of indication of words from the reading text whose meaning was to be looked up in the dictionary; mention of the topics of the lesson; reading of the advance lesson by the teacher; and designation of drawings to accompany the lesson.

In four instances the children were making their own assignments. In three of the cases the reader had been completed and the members of the class were choosing their own selections for review. The visitor noted that considerable interest and rivalry were aroused in determining the selections for the next lesson. In the fourth instance the class resented the length of the teacher's assignment, with the result that the amount the pupils thought they could master was accepted by the teacher.

The lesson assignments were carefully prepared in only seven of the 83 assignments noted. In two of the seven lessons outlines upon the board were copied with instruction that the future lessons follow the routine. Careful instructions were given concerning two lists of sentences to be prepared, and the remaining three cases were arithmetic lessons given to supplement the topic in the textbook.

The significant thing in this study is that carefully planned lessons were observed in only 9 per cent of the 83 recitations. To know how to study is a fine art. Good instruction implies such direction on the part of the teacher, in the preparation of a lesson, as will teach the pupils how to weigh values, and see the lesson in the perspective of their own environment. All this is a part of the lesson assignment. Sometimes it is necessary to expand it to the length of a study lesson that will occupy the time of the entire class period.

Number and grade distribution of recitations observed.—This status of instruction in the rural and village schools of South Dakota is based upon observations of 283 recitations. Tables 36, 37, and 38, which follow, show the subjects in which the recitations were observed and their grade distributions for the open country schools, the village schools, and both open country schools and village schools, respectively.

TABLE 36.—Recitations and their grade distribution observed in open country schools.

Studies.	Grades.								Total.	Per cent.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
Agriculture.....									1	1	0.008
Arithmetic.....	2	5	4	2	2	1			3	19	18.00
Civics.....									2	2	2.00
Geography.....			1			2			1	4	4.00
History.....					2		1		3	7	6.00
Language and gram- mar.....				1	3	3	1		3	11	9.00
Physiology.....			1	1	1	2			1	6	5.00
Spelling.....			1	2	1	1			3	11	9.00
Reading.....	10	8	13	7	3	3			2	52	46.00
Total.....	15	15	20	13	12	13	3		19	113	
Per cent.....	15.00	14.00	17.00	12.00	10.00	12.00	3.00		17.00	100.00	

TABLE 37.—Recitations and their grade distributions observed in small town schools.

Studies.	Grades.								Total.	Per cent.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
Agriculture.....									1	1	0.008
Arithmetic.....	2	2	3	3	1	2	1		4	18	15.00
Civics.....									4	4	3.00
Geography.....				4	4	6	1		4	15	12.00
History.....					1	3			4	8	6.00
Language and gram- mar.....		1	2	2			4		2	11	10.00
Physiology.....					3	2			6	10	7.00
Spelling.....		2	5		2	2	1		1	13	10.00
Reading.....	10	11	5	5	5	1			1	44	36.00
Total.....	18	16	15	14	15	16	7		23	124	
Per cent.....	14.00	13.00	12.00	11.00	12.00	13.00	6.00		19.00	100.00	

TABLE 38.—Recitations and their grade distribution observed in open country and small town schools.

Studies.	Grades.								Total.	Per cent.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
Agriculture.....									2	2	0.008
Arithmetic.....	4	7	7	5	3	3	1		7	37	15.00
Civics.....									6	6	3.00
Geography.....			1	4	4	8	1		1	10	8.00
History.....					3	4	1		7	15	6.00
Language and gram- mar.....		1	2	3	3	3	5		5	22	9.00
Physiology.....			1	1	3	4			7	16	7.00
Spelling.....		4	6	2	3	3	2		4	24	10.00
Reading.....	32	19	18	12	8	4			3	96	40.00
Total.....	36	31	35	27	27	30	10		42	238	
Per cent.....	15.00	13.00	14.00	11.00	11.00	12.00	4.00		20.00	100.00	

It will be noted by an examination of Tables 36 and 37 that the number of recitations observed were quite evenly divided between open country and village—113 for the former and 124 for the latter.

A study of the tables shows that more recitations for both open-country and village schools were observed in reading than in any other subject. This is explained by the fact that in the early primary grades reading is practically the only subject pursued. Arithmetic classes were second in rank for both the country and town. This is easily explained by the large time allotment to arithmetic in the course of study. The distribution was quite evenly divided among all other subjects listened to with the exception of agriculture.

A further examination of the accompanying tables shows the recitations observed were quite evenly scattered through all of the elementary grades. A few more recitations were observed in the eighth grade for both town and country. The first grade was second in rank. In the rural schools and in the rooms in small towns where several grades were handled it was customary to combine grades. Where this condition was found the observers recorded the recitation as belonging to the highest grade represented. The plan of alternation of grades outlined in the course of study indicates that the eighth-grade work is given in the year 1917-18. This explains the small percentage of classes observed in the seventh grade.

Lessons in domestic science, music, and penmanship are not included in this tabulation for the reason that they could not be recorded as belonging to any one grade. Instruction in these subjects is discussed under the respective heads.

Summarizing the above it may be said that the number of recitations observed was about equal for both the open-country and town schools, that more classes were observed in reading and arithmetic than in any other subjects, and that the distribution for the grades was about equal.

Plan of treatment.—The 238 recitations observed are discussed under the individual subjects. They follow the order given in Tables 36 and 37, with the alphabetical insertion of subjects that concerned the school as a whole. The high-school subjects are dealt with separately.

Agriculture.—There is something significant in the fact that, in a State where the primary occupation is farming, out of a total of 238 recitations there should chance to be only two recitations in agriculture. One of these was listened to in the mining section of the Black Hills. The lesson was merely the reading of an elementary text in agriculture. The teacher explained that she was using it as a supplementary reader. There was one pupil in the class, a girl, who read the text fluently. The lesson was on "Selecting seed corn" and "Weeds." The teacher asked a few questions on each section. The questions were such as stimulated thought on the part of the young girl, and her answers were, in turn, unusually intelligent. When

asked if she had learned anything about corn that would apply to her garden she quickly replied, "Nothing; because you can't raise corn here."

This eighth-grade girl did not need to be reading this agriculture text as a supplementary reader. She read fluently and should not have wasted the class time in the mechanics of reading. What was given in the text on "Selecting seed corn" could well have been supplemented by laboratory tests in germination. This lesson was given at a time when the newspapers were full of the alarming conditions arising over a scarcity of seed corn, yet not a word was said of existing conditions.

In the second instance, topics in agriculture formed subjects for composition once a week in the seventh grade grammar. On the day of this observation the subject was "Hogs." Each pupil had selected some one type as a subject. Information had been gleaned from reference books at school and farm newspapers at home. Each pupil had illustrated his composition with a picture of the particular type of hog in question. These pictures were taken from farm papers. At the beginning of the hour the papers were passed about the class and comments were made on their general appearance. Such comments as these were heard: "Good agricultural picture," "Picture not pasted on neatly," "Picture not cut out well," "Paragraphs not indented," "Jersey misspelled." A pupil was then sent to the board to write the list of lard and bacon types of hogs. These lists were given by the children, and any misspellings were corrected by them. After the various types were placed upon the board the teacher called upon individual pupils to read their compositions. The following were read: "Poland China," "Duroc Jersey," "Tamworth." At the close of each reading the pupils discussed the features given or brought out points not mentioned. The children kept their papers and handed them in to the teacher after they had made their own corrections.

The most pleasing thing about this lesson was the initiative exhibited by the pupils. All the time the teacher stood in the background. She had directed them how to use information gathered from various sources.

Arithmetic.—Of the 37 arithmetic lessons observed, 25 were drill lessons. These are classified as follows:

Unprepared for subject matter.....	13
Unnecessary subject matter.....	3
Reviews.....	5
Interest keen and varied.....	4
Total.....	25

The children were unprepared for the subject matter in 13 of these drill lessons either because the work attempted was beyond their comprehension or because subject matter, dependent upon that upon which they were concerned, had not been mastered. An example of the former was a class of second-grade children attempting examples in multiplication involving a multiplicand extending into the thousands, and a multiplier of two figures. Examples of the latter were found in the primary and intermediate grades, where children were presumably working for skill in the fundamental operations and were handicapped because the 45 combinations and the multiplication tables had not been mastered.

The unnecessary subject matter noted was tedious drills upon Roman numerals. The children were writing these numerals to heights seldom used in daily life. Again, they were changing long lists to their Arabic equivalents, and vice versa. The acquirement of all the information needed upon Roman numerals, by children in primary grades, should be an incidental rather than a fundamental feature of instruction.

There seemed to be no aim or purpose in the five review lessons. The time was consumed in counting or giving a few problems covering each of the fundamental operations. Much that was asked for was that in which the pupils were already proficient.

That the interest was keen and sufficiently varied could be said of only four of the drill lessons. In one instance the class was divided into two teams, the goal being the least possible time that a set of multiplication problems on a chart could be solved. In another case a drill on number combinations was kept alive by means of a guessing game; in a primary class the boys and girls were opponents in a relay counting exercise; and a class in decimals were expressing the decimal read in two ways.

In 11 of the lessons the pupils were solving problems involving principles already learned. In all but two instances these problems were taken from the textbook. The two exceptions were problems dictated by the teacher. Three classes solving problems in denominate numbers were accompanying the solutions with representative drawings. One class was discussing whether the matting for a room would cost less to be laid crosswise than lengthwise. In this instance a chance was lost to discuss the artistic effect in laying the matting. In another instance a distance problem that troubled all the class was reasoned out by means of a drawing made by the teacher from suggestions by pupils. In the remaining six lessons the only aim seemed to be the answer in the book.

Only one class was observed where a new subject was introduced. The subject was plastering, painting, and kalsomining. This lesson

opened with a discussion of the rules of business regarding the elimination of doors and windows. The dimensions of the room, in which the pupils were seated, were estimated and the process determined by the class. The problem was then solved by the class.

Instances were common of lack of attention during the recitations. There was seldom blackboard room to accommodate all of the class. Sometimes those at the seats were instructed to do their work on paper. Even when this was done it was difficult to keep them all at work. More often those at the seats were not assigned any tasks while the group at the board were working. All this waste of the recitation time could have been avoided by making definite requirements for those working at the seats.

Since nearly 70 per cent of all the arithmetic lessons were drill lessons, there was not the opportunity afforded to note how much the arithmetic lessons would function in real life. The matting problem and the kalsomining problem did touch the personal experiences of the children; but there were not enough lessons where the application of a principle was involved to draw a conclusion from the teaching observed. This information had to be gleaned by conversation with the teachers and a study of the course of study. It would seem from these sources there was a noticeable lack of appeal to application of arithmetic to the environment of the child. The glaring defect in the instruction was a lack of mastery of the machinery necessary to calculation. This defect came in the primary grades.

Civics.—Five of the six lessons observed were oral and one was written. Two of the five oral lessons were upon departments of the Government, one upon juries, one on the powers of Congress, and one on the plan of nominating President and Vice President. The subject of the written lesson was the duties of the Secretary of State. In every case the textbook was the sole source of subject matter. In one instance the pupils reinforced the lesson topics by current events. This, apparently, had not been assigned, but it just happened that certain current topics had a bearing upon the subject matter under discussion. In four instances it was difficult to get answers from the pupils on the lesson in hand. In one class of 16 only three pupils took part in the discussion. This was about the ratio of answers from the other lessons observed. In two, of these four lessons, the class was not held wholly to the topic assigned. Questions were asked which wandered far from the subject matter in hand. It may be said that the interest of the children was aroused in these foreign topics. This was because the information was within the range of their comprehension.

To the observer it was clear that no advance plans were made by the teacher for these lessons. There was not the slightest evidence of assignment of outside reading matter, of outlines to be developed by

the pupils, or deductions of abstract principles of government from concrete examples. It has been inferred in the discussion of the syllabus, relative to civics, that the danger in following such an outline is that the subject may be treated so abstractly as to be beyond the pupils' comprehension. This defect was clearly demonstrated in the lessons observed.

Geography.—Nineteen lessons were observed. In only one instance was the subject matter handled in such a way that the pupils used their initiative and drew their own conclusions relative to geographical phenomena. In this case the children developed their own definitions of surface features from models they had reproduced in the sand table. In 11 lessons the sole requirement was to be able to reproduce the textbook assignments. In two of these cases a portion of the class time was taken in reading the lesson text. In only three of these 11 recitations did all the children seem interested and able to clearly comprehend the descriptive matter of the text. These exceptions were due to the fact that the teachers in charge were able to state their questions in such a way as to connect the subject matter with knowledge already in possession of the pupil, thus making it possible for the lesson to be intelligently digested.

There were only two instances observed where the subject matter was gained from sources other than the textbook. One was the sand-table lesson, and the other was a story about Turkey read by the teacher from a book of travelogues. The visitor had not listened to the previous lessons where Turkey was discussed, but was present when the story was read and found the children much interested in listening to the reading.

Two lessons were review lessons. In one the questions had been assigned from a list of review questions on geography that was in the hands of the teacher. The other lesson was an aimless review; the questions had not been assigned, and there was no order or sequence in the questions asked.

In two recitations the teacher did not hold to the lesson topic assigned, but wandered into fields far distant from the question in hand. One example was where the lesson assignment was the New England States. The only questions asked on the assignment were the position, boundaries, and names of the New England States. Then the lesson switched to the boundaries of the United States, and before the class hour was ended the discussion had touched Ben Franklin and his lightning rod, the cotton plant, and wool production.

In the table on equipment, given in the early part of this discussion on instruction, it is noted that there were satisfactory maps in 52 per cent and satisfactory globes in 37 per cent of the rural schools visited. In the geography lessons observed, the visitor noted in-

stances where maps and globes were at hand and not used, and where their introduction would have greatly elucidated the topic under discussion. An example was a recitation where the following question was asked: "What part of the United States has the same longitude as Ecuador?" A series of guesses were made and the question left with a wrong answer, yet just above the teacher's desk was a new suspended globe. There was only one recitation where maps were used intelligently. In this a question arose concerning the area of Germany. With the aid of maps, the areas given in the index, and the scale of miles, the pupils determined that it was about equal to that of Texas.

Summarizing the results it was found that a reproduction, on the part of the pupils, of the descriptive part of the text was the way in which geography was taught. There was almost a total lack of appeal to reference books and illustrative material. Maps and globes were not used to their capacity. The tendency was to wander from the topic in hand.

History.—Fifteen recitations were observed. These were all from grades five to eight, inclusive, and were concerned with narrative history. In two lessons the subject matter was approached through an outline submitted by the teacher. While there was no source of subject matter in these two lessons other than the textbook, the children were being trained to intelligently organize the material in the textbook. The remaining 13 lessons were formal, stilted repetitions of what the textbook said. In two instances the children read the lessons, and a few feeble questions were asked by the teacher after each child had read. In two lessons the pupils were not able to answer the questions submitted, and the time was occupied by the teacher in reading the lesson from the text. Only on three occasions was there anything to relieve this monotony. One was when the teacher asked for a comparison between Revolutionary War taxes and the war taxes of the present time, and the other was a supplementary report submitted by a pupil. Once a map was introduced to further clinch the question under discussion.

The same tendency to aimless reviewing was noted here as in the other subjects. Usually the first two or three questions were concerned with a review of the previous lesson, then the questions wandered far away from the topics in hand.

Only 2 of the 15 lessons observed were carefully planned in advance. Outside of these lessons the history teaching consisted of a perfunctory repetition of the material found in the textbook. There was a noticeable lack of reference to material outside of the textbook.

Home economics.—The observers found in their inspection of 82 rural and village schools 8 instances where hot lunches were being

served. Four of these were in villages and four in the open country schools. One of the village teachers had three months' preparation in domestic science and taught six daily recitations. Two of the rural teachers had some training in the subject. In only two cases were there separate rooms where the lunches could be prepared, and these rooms were used for other recitations. In the other instance the cooking was done in a cloakroom or the assembly room. In only one place was there running water available. In three schools the water had to be carried by the pupils from a near-by well; in the remainder of the schools the children brought their drinking water from home in bottles or jugs. In such schools melted snow was all the water available for cleaning purposes.

The course of study suggests that special emphasis should be placed upon sanitation. In only three instances where hot lunches were served was there an atmosphere of cleanliness and orderliness. The visitors were present on three occasions where lunches were served, and in none of these instances did the pupils wash their hands either before or after the lunch.

There were 3 schools out of the 82 visited where sewing formed a regular feature of the program. In these schools there was no instruction in cooking. Two were in villages and one in the open country. In one, a consolidated school, the sewing teacher had just been added. The sewing class comprised two sections made up from girls in grades 3 to 10, inclusive. One-half day per week was allotted to the work. The teacher was a graduate of Stout Institute. In the other school 75 minutes per day was given to sewing for girls in the high school only. The visitor was present at this class and had the opportunity to inspect the program for the year. The sewing course was confined to fancy lingerie. This teacher's preparation consisted of a few weeks in a summer school. Quite a large number of the schools in both the country and village were making a beginning in sewing and knitting under the supervision of the Junior Red Cross.

The significant thing in the observation in home economics in these 82 schools inspected was that only 11 schools, or 14 per cent, were giving any instructions whatever in the subject. Answers, on provisions for hot lunches, from 500 teachers scattered throughout the State, indicate that only 79, or 16 per cent, had any provision for serving lunches. Replies from 500 teachers in rural schools scattered throughout the State indicated 185, or 37 per cent, of the teachers giving some instruction in either cooking or sewing or both. This percentage is considerably higher than that noted by the observer. It is highly probable that this difference is due to the fact that Junior Red Cross activities were counted as regular instruction in sewing.

Summarizing the results of observations and replies of teachers it may be said that instruction in home economics in the rural and village schools of South Dakota was limited. It was obvious that there were not the proper facilities for housing such courses, that the difficulty of obtaining water, the crowded curricula and the untrained teachers made the solution of the problem complex.

Language and grammar.—Twenty-two lessons were observed in language and grammar. Thirteen of these were in formal grammar and distributed among the grades as follows: Eighth, 6; seventh, 4; and sixth, 3. Six of the language lessons dealt with the mechanics of English and three were concerned with written composition. In 14 of the lessons in formal grammar and the mechanics of English the textbook was the source of the subject matter. The other five lessons were selected by the teacher to supplement the work of the text or the outline submitted by the course of study. One of the composition lessons was based upon a picture study, a second was the reproduction of a scene from Robin Hood, and the third was on fires, the themes being suggested by the lessons outlined in the fire prevention pamphlet issued by the State fire marshal.

The tendency to review was noticeably common. One entire period was spent in an aimless review of the parts of speech, another teacher started a review on the parts of speech and then switched it to the properties of verbs. It was not unusual to use a few minutes at the close of the lesson in review. These reviews were not built about the lesson assigned and were evidently used to fill in the gap of a lesson that was finished too soon. They were clearly an evidence of the lack of a carefully planned lesson.

There were two instances where a subject, new to the class, was introduced. In one case the children approached the new subject matter by being given 25 minutes to study their definitions. In the other instance the mode of procedure was thus: The teacher read a list of masculine nouns and the children were asked to write the opposite gender upon the board. As they proceeded discussion was free about how these words were differentiated. Later the children formed their own definitions for indicating the gender of nouns.

The course of study explicitly states that the seventh and eighth grades are the place for formal grammar, yet out of 22 lessons observed there were three instances of formal grammar in the sixth grade. From observation of the recitations in language and grammar and from conversation with teachers concerning the subject it was apparent that below the sixth grade far more attention was given to the mechanics of language than to story telling, dramatization and oral and written composition. It was very evident that these lessons in language and grammar were not carefully planned.

Manual training.—There was equipment for manual training in five of the schools visited. Four of these schools were in villages and one in the country. Replies from 500 rural teachers, representative of the State, indicated that 67 schools, or 13 per cent, were provided with equipment for instruction in manual training. Difficulty in housing the course, crowded curricula and teachers with but little training in the subject and numerous other branches to teach offered the same complex situation as that found in home economics.

Music.—Of 56 open-country schools visited, 30 had a piano or an organ and five had victrolas. What music there was in these schools consisted mainly of singing, as a feature work of the general exercises. Three teachers were found giving the technique of music; two of these were in the open country and the other in a village school. There were two instances where children were singing nursery rhymes and dancing folk dances to the victrola. In 26 villages there was, at least, one musical instrument for every building. In most cases there were from two to five instruments in the building. Seven musical machines were noted in these 26 village schools observed. The character of the records was inspected in seven schools. These selections could be classed under the following heads: Popular and patriotic airs, a few selections from the classics, regimental band pieces, and nursery tales and folk songs.

Instruction in music is required by law in the State of South Dakota. However, teachers in the open country schools are not refused a certificate for inability to sing or give instruction in music.

Penmanship.—In nine weeks of visitation the survey committee observed only seven lessons in penmanship. In most schools on only two days per week were lessons given. In the one-teacher school time for penmanship was easily pushed off the already crowded program. Four of the seven lessons observed were in the small towns. The system used was that which the county adopted. In each county visited it was found to be one of the recognized arm movement systems. Only one teacher was observed who had any appreciable training in the subject.

Physiology and hygiene.—Sixteen lessons were observed in the subject. Eight dealt with physiology and eight with hygiene. These lessons were distributed from grades three to eight. In every instance the sole requirement of the lesson was to be able to reproduce the subject matter of the text. The same feeble responses were noted here as in history and geography. There was only one instance where the questions of the teacher were at all skillful. There was not a single lesson where the subject matter of the text was reinforced by outside readings or by experimental illustrations. There was, however, posted upon the wall of most schools visited a vivid set of health rules, issued by the State department of public instruction

and indorsed by the South Dakota State Medical Association. These served as silent supplements to the textbooks.

A member of the survey committee had an excellent opportunity to study the work of the Red Cross nurses in two counties. She was present on several occasions when talks and inspections were made by the public health nurses in the schools, and once when a public health talk was a feature of a community meeting. The enthusiasm of both children and community over the coming visit of the nurses were very noticeable. The children had sold the seals, and the coming of a nurse to the schoolhouse was both a vital and novel factor. The frequent calls for the public health nurse made by homes where there were real or suspected cases of illness were evidence of the welcome extended to her by the community.

In each of the counties referred to above, health creeds were presented to each child. Cards showing the status of the child's physical condition, as scored by the examination of the nurses, were given the children to be carried to the parents.

In general it may be said that instruction in physiology and hygiene by the teachers was bookish and remote. The campaign carried on by the Red Cross seal commission was the only avenue afforded to supplement and vitalize the information of the textbooks.

Reading.—Table 38 indicates that of the 96 recitations observed in reading, 69, or 72 per cent, were in the first three grades. It has already been mentioned in the discussion on the course of study that in these grades the process should be concerned with the mechanics of reading. In treating the observation of these reading lessons the discussion deals with the first three grades, apart from the other grades, as marking the line where the process of learning to read changes to that of reading to learn as the syllabus states it.

The 32 lessons observed in the first grade represented every stage of progress. There were in some rural schools pupils who had been in school but a few weeks, or who had missed so much time that their progress marked but a few weeks. It was not uncommon to find two or three divisions in the first grade. Some pupils were still reading from the blackboard, and others had completed their second or third primer. Of the 32 recitations observed in this grade, 20 were mere exercises in word calling. Snatches, like the following, from the field notes very clearly picture this type of lessons: "Pupils drawl." "Teacher looks over child's shoulder and tells him words he does not know." "Words, not sentences, the unit of thought." The treatment of eight of these first-grade lessons could be called good. The features that characterized them as such were: New words sounded and pronounced by children; pictures talked about; sentences or entire lessons read silently; and finally, the sen-

tence or lesson read aloud. The subject matter of four lessons was entirely concerned with phonics.

The process of word calling continued in the second and third grades as in the first. The children read a paragraph, or until the teacher called a halt. If the child did not know a word either the teacher or a pupil told him. After the paragraph or lesson was read it was usual to ask a few questions concerning the subject matter. There were only three instances where these questions were well organized. In one case the teacher read her questions from notes, which was evidence that she had made some preparation of the questions in advance.

The reproduction of the subject matter was very often choppy. The substance of single paragraphs was retold instead of the story as a whole. Frequently the teacher asked a few questions, at the beginning of the lesson, about the story read on the previous day.

In nearly every reading lesson observed in these lower grades the difficult words of the lesson were spelled in the beginning. Little was said about the place of these words in the context. Drill in phonics was observed in only two cases above the first grade.

There were only four instances of dramatization in all these 72 lessons in the first three grades, although the syllabus on reading has especially emphasized dramatization. In the four instances cited the selection of the characters, the stage setting, and the type of acting were determined by the teacher rather than worked out by the pupils. There were three occasions when conversational lessons were killed by being resolved into mere exercises in calling words.

Since reading occupies so much of the time allotment in the first grade, and since the seat work of this grade must be planned by the teacher, a careful study was made of the kind of seat work these children were assigned at the close of the lessons. In only 11 of the 32 recitations were the children assigned any work whatever. Of this group the variety of work was as follows: Writing words or sentences, 6; sentence building, 1; drawing pictures, 2; clay modeling, 1; paper folding, 1.

The words and sentences to be written were from the lesson already read. There was no time to supervise this writing, and as a result it was imperfectly and hurriedly done. Requiring pupils to write a lesson is the easiest way of providing employment for little children. In one instance, the picture to be drawn was from the book and was associated with the lesson. In another, it was foreign to the lesson and the model was imperfect. In the clay-modeling exercise the children were told to model a bird. Inspection of the work by the visitor showed that they had worked out about everything else but a bird. All this indicated that there was a general neg-

lect of seat work in the primary grades and what was assigned was of small educational value to the children.

From what has been said of the character of instruction in reading, in the first three grades, it was evident that the mechanics of reading had not been mastered, and it could hardly be expected that any marked difference would be observed in the instruction in the upper grades. In 25 of the 27 lessons in these upper grades the process was similar to that noted in the lower grades. The children merely read the lesson, a paragraph in turn. The words that they could not pronounce were named either by the teacher or by volunteer pupils of the class. In two lessons a list of words had been assigned in advance. The questions on interpretation of the text asked by the teachers were not planned and well organized. In fact, very few questions were asked concerning the context. It was clear that the teachers realized that the reading was poor, for such admonitions as these were frequently heard: "Now read with expression"; "I'll read it, then you read it."

The two exceptions to these perfunctory exercises in word calling are given. One was a fourth-grade study lesson on "Old Pipes and the Dryad." The story was new to the children. They were told to read to themselves. When they came to a word they did not understand, they discovered the pronunciation for themselves in the list of words at the close of the lesson. The pronunciation and meaning were then discussed. In this exercise no stated number of pages was set for study. The pupils were reading at their own pace. The whole affair was an individual, rather than a class exercise, the teacher passing about the desks giving help where it was asked. Comments upon situations that rose were frequent. Some one suggested that the story was something like the "Pied Piper." This pupil was asked to retell the story about the "Pied Piper." The recitation time ended before the children had finished reading the story. The pleasing thing about the recitation was the interest of the children, the fact that they were reading the story as a whole, and that the mechanics of reading were subordinated to thought getting.

The other exception was a descriptive lesson on "Quails." There was an introductory talk about these birds, and mention of the South Dakota game laws concerning their preservation. The points of the lesson in the book were then discussed. The children were later asked to read a portion of the lesson before being asked to stand before the class and read aloud. This exercise differed from the other in that the lesson had been read in advance and that oral reading was made a feature of the exercise. "Old Pipes and the Dryad" was a longer selection and its reading was not finished in one lesson. Whether there would have been time given to oral reading can be

only a conjecture. It may be said, however, that in both these exercises the children were reading to learn.

Exclusive of the nursery rhymes in the first grade, 14 of these recitations were poems. With the single exception of "Hiawatha," these poems were short enough to be treated in a single lesson. There was not an instance where the appreciation of the children was aroused either through personal experiences or through stories or through pictures for the subject matter of the poem. The nearest approach was when a pupil read from the text a paragraph explanatory to the "Skylark." A class reading the "Lesson of the Water Mill" had never seen a mill. A picture would have done much to bring this poem into the children's consciousness. "The Village Blacksmith" was read in a singsong manner. A class confessed they did not like the "Lady of Shalott" because they did not understand it. In the poems observed, the visitor found practically no difference in their treatment from that of the prose selections.

Summarizing the instruction in reading it may be said that in more than two-thirds of the lessons observed in the first three grades the mechanics of reading were not efficiently taught. Full use was not made of the material offered for dramatic and conversational lessons. Phonics were generally neglected. Questions asked by the teachers on the context were few and not well organized. Only limited attention was paid to the excellent suggestion in the course of study relative to the need of making good silent readers. Above the third grade only two lessons out of 27 were efficiently handled. In the poems taught nothing was done in advance to arouse the appreciation of the pupils in the subject matter. These poems were read in the same perfunctory manner as were the poorest prose selections.

Spelling.—Twenty-four recitations were observed in spelling. Table 38 shows them to be scattered through grades two and eight, inclusive. Eight were oral recitations and 16 written. With one exception, the oral spelling was a feature of the primary grades. In 14 written lessons the words were written by the pupils in response to the teacher's dictation. In one lesson all the words were used in sentences; and in another only such as the teacher thought difficult were required to be put into sentences. In all but one instance the pupils exchanged papers and made their own corrections. In the other case the teacher herself made the corrections. The observer noted that a very high percentage of children spelled all the words correctly. The children were more often found studying spelling than any other subject and seemed to enjoy the spelling exercises. This is due to the fact that the learning of a list of spelling words is a much more tangible thing than the reproduction of a narrative in history or geography. Again, the spirit of rivalry aroused in spelling tends to arouse interest.

The words were taken from spelling books in 14 of the 24 lessons. In the remainder they were selected from other lessons. In these lists were included words already familiar and some for which there was no need of learning the spelling. There were two instances where spelling books were in the hands of second and third grade pupils. On numerous occasions the visitor tested the pupils on the meaning of the words taken from spelling books and found that while the words could be spelled they could not be functioned in sentences. One example was a list of words ending in "ary," such as "reactionary," "elementary," etc. Another was a list of words pertaining to railroading—most of which were foreign to the class. One boy, who had some experience in railroading, knew the meaning of all the words.

Summarizing the results of the spelling lessons, it may be said that in two-thirds of the recitations observed children were spelling many words which they were not able to use either in conversation or in writing. In the 87 schools visited no evidence was found of individual spelling lists and the elimination of words with which the children were already familiar. These two features are especially emphasized in the course of study.

Instruction in high schools.—Before discussing the status of instruction observed in the high schools of villages and small towns of South Dakota, it is quite necessary that there be a few statements concerning the regulation for teaching high-school subjects and the graduation of the high schools recognized by the State department of education.

The school law of South Dakota gives the voters of any school district power at their annual meeting to order the teaching of high-school subjects. No instances were recorded where such subjects were taught in the one-teacher schools visited. However, this condition exists. Replies to this question from 500 teachers, in one-teacher schools, scattered throughout the State, indicated that 25 teachers, or 5 per cent, are teaching high-school subjects.

Classes were observed in 17 high schools in the villages and small towns of the State. Fifteen of these schools were listed in the directory of secondary schools for 1917-18, issued by the State department. Their rating was as follows:

TABLE 30.—Accredited schools.

	Accred- ited.	Nonac- credited.		Accred- ited.	Nonac- credited.
Four-year high schools.....	7	4	One-year high schools.....	1	
Three-year high schools.....	2		Total.....	10	5
Two-year high schools.....		1			

The reason one school was not listed was probably due to the fact that it failed to make a report, for its equipment and teaching force were such as should have placed it in the four-year accredited group. In the other school one teacher was attempting to do four years of high-school work. Of course this school could not expect any accreditation. The numbers of teachers in the four-year accredited schools were three and four; in the nonaccredited schools, two and three. This necessarily meant that the high-school teachers in these small-town schools were burdened with preparations in four or five subjects, and were required to teach subjects other than those in which they had made special preparation.

Twenty-three recitations were observed in the high schools of these small towns. In order that the teaching might be representative of normal conditions, the same precautions were taken in observing high-school classes as those already mentioned for the grades. The distribution of subject matter was as follows: English, 8; foreign language, 2; science, 3; history and civics, 6; and mathematics, 4. These recitations were fairly representative of all the four high-school grades.

In three of the English recitations very efficient work was done by the pupils in interpreting masterpieces; in another character effects were skillfully handled; two lessons were practically recited by the teacher; and two drill lessons concerning principles in rhetoric were dull, listless, and not understood by the pupils.

The foreign-language lessons were exercises in translations. In both careful attention was given to construction. One science lesson was taught with the aid of laboratory experiments. The others were merely repetition of the facts in the textbook.

In one recitation in history each pupil wrote upon the blackboard an outline of a topic assigned from the lesson. These outlines were then discussed by the entire class. The remaining recitations in history and civics were reproductions of the text. It was difficult to get responses from the pupils. The tendency was for the teacher to do most of the retelling.

Two mathematics classes furnished excellent drill exercises. In a third lesson problems that the majority of the class had failed in were solved by the few pupils fortunate enough to master them. In a fourth lesson the subject matter could not be comprehended by the pupils because preceding principles were not mastered.

Relative to high-school instruction, it may be said that more than 50 per cent of these high-school subjects were handled effectively. The most glaring fault was the failure to stimulate research on the part of the pupils in the preparation of the lessons.

Final summary.—The observations on physical conditions are based upon visits to 89 rooms in the village schools and 48 in the

open-country schools. In the sum total of items these conditions scored higher in the former. In 79 per cent of the open-country schools the lighting was unsatisfactory. There were satisfactory maps in 52 per cent of the open-country schools; and globes in 35 per cent. There were approximately a set of maps and a globe for every school in the small towns. Maps and charts were not used to their capacity. In both types of schools there was a general lack of supplementary readers and illustrative material.

The medium length of time for 62 recitations in the open-country schools was 10.21 minutes. Definite and carefully prepared lesson assignments were noted in 9 per cent of 86 lessons.

The total number of recitations observed in the elementary grades was 286. Only two were in agriculture. Seventy per cent of the arithmetic lessons were drill lessons. There was evidence of a general lack of mastery in the mechanics of calculation. The 56 lessons observed in civics, geography, history, and physiology and hygiene were, with four exceptions, poor attempts at a reproduction of the facts of the lesson assignments of the text. The language teaching was concerned more with the mechanics of language than with oral and written composition. With but few exceptions, technical grammar was confined to the seventh and eighth grades. Very little was attempted in the instruction of the technique of music. Of several lessons observed in penmanship only one teacher had special preparation. Ninety-six lessons were observed in reading. Sixty-nine were in the first three grades. In two-thirds of these recitations the mechanics of reading was not well mastered. Phonics was generally neglected. Of the twenty-seven reading lessons observed above the third grade, only two were taught effectively. The spelling lessons were especially enjoyed by the pupils, although they could not function many words in sentences. The great defect in high-school teaching was the failure to stimulate research on the part of the pupils.

The following characteristics were common to all the teaching observed: Slavish adherence to the textbooks, tendency to wander from the topic under discussion, aimless reviews, and a lack of carefully planned lessons.

In observing the teaching process in the rural and village schools of South Dakota the following question was constantly kept in mind: To what extent was the course of study used as guide? Throughout the discussion in this chapter some specific comparisons have been made between the requirements of the course of study and the kind of teaching seen. These comparisons are herewith collected and explanations made in order that intelligent answers may be made to the above question.

The suggestions on alternation of subject matter in the seventh and eighth grades were very generally followed. The lack of mastery of fundamentals in arithmetic indicated that the outline in the syllabus was not followed. The outline for reading suggests that the mechanics of reading should be mastered in the first three grades, and that from then on the child should read for information and appreciation. Yet the classroom reading was, practically in every grade, a drill in mechanics. There was not an instance where the suggestions in the course of study on how to study a poem was followed. Attention has been called to the lack of individual spelling lists.

The textbooks were followed literally in civics, geography, history, physiology, and grammar. It is true that the course of study for these subjects, (with the exception of the supplementary outline in physiology) follows the traditional arrangement of the textbooks. Yet these outlines do show how the subject matter of any textbook may be approached topically. Had the teachers followed these topics, the textbook teaching might have been more effective.

The very excellent supplementary reading matter on the various subjects of the text could not be used when there was a lack of reference libraries. However, there was more reference material in the school libraries than was made use of. The same statement has been made concerning maps and globes.

In conclusion it may be said that the textbook was far more often followed than the course of study. When the course of study was followed it was usually found to be in the upper rather than lower grades. This was undoubtedly due to the proximity to State eighth-grade examinations.

Realizing that the highest mental efforts are secured when physical conditions are at their best, the committee has in another chapter recommended an improved physical plant. However, the supreme remedy for poor instruction is better-prepared teachers. For an analysis of these qualifications the reader is referred to the recommendations at the conclusion of Chapter XIV.

Section 2. SUPERVISION.

Requirements of the law.—To inquire into the methods of instruction in the several branches taught and to make constructive suggestions are among the duties assigned by the school law of South Dakota to the county superintendents. This single duty of supervision of instruction is, in itself, in practically every county in the State, too large a task for one individual. To properly supervise instruction it is necessary to visit the classrooms often and to have frequent conferences with the teachers. The school law of the State

specifies that county superintendents shall visit schools as frequently as possible, with the modification that it shall not be less than once a year. The survey committee found, from conversations with county superintendents, that there were instances where it was physically impossible to visit all the schools of the county in a year.

It is stated in the chapter on county administration and supervision that the maximum amount allowed for traveling expenses is \$400. But not all of this allowance can be used in visiting the schools in the county. Out of it the county superintendents are allowed 5 cents per mile each way for every mile traveled in attending meetings called by the State superintendent. The area of 45 per cent of all the counties in the State is over 1,000 square miles. It is clear, then, that even if the county superintendents had no other duty outside of supervision of instruction the allowance for traveling expenses would prohibit adequate supervision.

County superintendents not trained for supervision.—The educational qualifications of the county superintendents are given in Chapter VII of this survey. Careful consideration of these qualifications would indicate that only about one-third of these superintendents were fitted academically and professionally for supervision. This does not mean that this one-third had other qualifications necessary for supervision. Additional consideration would necessarily be given to their experience, physical status, and personality.

Actual status of supervision.—Reports from county superintendents, given in the chapter on county administration and supervision, indicate the maximum time devoted to supervision as one-half of all their time in the case of eight county superintendents only. The others all gave less time. It is apparent from these answers of county superintendents and from the low requirements of the law that the visits to the schools by South Dakota county superintendents amount to little more than incidental inspection.

An examination of the reports from the State department and observations in various counties indicate that the reading-circle work of the State is well organized. Chapters from the adopted reading-circle books are frequently used to form the bases of the programs at county institutes and associations. County normal institutes of not less than five days' duration are required by law to be held for each county. These institutes, associations, and normals serve indirectly as means of supervision.

Need of supervision.—It has been stated that the supreme remedy for poor instruction is a well-trained teacher. Back of this teacher there must be the supervisor with a broad vision of the educational field, with actual experience in class-room teaching and with a knowledge of and sympathy with rural life conditions. The rural teacher is isolated, and, unless she touches elbows often with those who are

able to give help and inspiration, she loses the professional spirit. This was very clearly demonstrated in the South Dakota schools when normal-school graduates were hearing classes in the same perfunctory manner as those who had but half their professional training. The district associations and institutes would mean infinitely more to the teachers if they were conducted by supervisors who knew their problems intimately, and if, instead of stated speeches and papers, there might be free discussions between supervisors and teachers concerning the difficulties that confronted them.

It has been recommended that the course of study contain a very full list of reference books and illustrative material for every subject in the curriculum. The teacher in the open country or small towns has so many lessons to prepare that it is practically impossible for her to do the research work necessary for efficient preparation in all of them. Then, again, it is impossible to get hold of the reference material. To open the avenues to such research, to give hints and methods of instruction, and to see to it, through the medium of circulating libraries, that abundant reference material is available are very important duties of supervision.

The best-organized city systems supplement their teaching force by adequate supervisors. If this is important for the city, how much more important is it for the country; where the teacher does not have daily personal contact with other teachers and is not within reach of reference libraries. Only half the problem of instruction is solved by employing a trained teacher. It takes the efficient supervisor to complete the cycle. To the slacker teacher this supervisor is a righteous goad, to the indifferent a signal for awakening, to the weak a sustaining arm, and to the strong a fountain head of help and inspiration.

Recommendations.—In view of the facts just stated the survey committee recommends the following:

1. That the county superintendent, as chief executive officer, be relieved of the duty of supervision of class-room instruction.
2. That one subject supervisor be employed by the county board of education for each group of 50 teachers.

Chapter XV.

TOWN AND CITY SYSTEMS.

Section 1. GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

The towns and cities in South Dakota of over 1,000 population are all organized under the general school law of the State (except where Article XI conflicts with this general law, in which case it is the law) as independent school districts. There are 39 such towns and cities in South Dakota. For the purposes of this survey they have been rather arbitrarily divided into two groups—those of over 2,000 population being placed in one group and those with a population between 1,000 and 2,000 being placed in another group. The list is as follows, the population being indicated according to the 1915 State census immediately following the name of the city and according to the 1910 Federal census in the second column following the name of the city.

Population of towns and cities of South Dakota.

Cities of over 2,000 population.	1915 census.	1910 census.	Cities of 1,000 to 2,000 population.	1915 census.	1910 census.
Sioux Falls.....	20,929	14,094	Mitbank.....	1,940	2,015
Aberdeen.....	11,846	10,753	Flandreau.....	1,668	1,484
Watertown.....	8,313	7,010	Webster.....	1,640	1,713
Lead.....	8,128	8,892	Mobridge.....	1,551	1,300
Mitchell.....	7,785	6,515	Elk Point.....	1,546	1,300
Huron.....	6,112	5,791	Dell Rapids.....	1,538	1,357
Yankton.....	4,771	3,787	Sisseton.....	1,386	1,367
Rapid City.....	4,268	3,854	Bereaford.....	1,332	1,117
Madison.....	3,949	3,137	Parker.....	1,324	1,224
Brookings.....	3,416	2,971	Tyndall.....	1,302	1,107
Redfield.....	3,122	3,060	Scotland.....	1,249	1,102
Deadwood.....	3,113	3,653	Woonsocket.....	1,201	1,027
Pierre.....	3,010	3,656	Clark.....	1,206	1,220
Vermilion.....	2,376	2,187	Howard.....	1,160	1,026
Canton.....	2,316	2,108	Westington Springs.....	1,142	1,093
Hot Springs.....	2,140	2,140	Parkston.....	1,132	970
			Salon.....	1,122	1,097
			Centerville.....	1,109	971
			Bellefourche.....	1,101	1,352
			Chamberlain.....	1,065	1,275
			Sturgis.....	1,029	1,739
			Groton.....	1,028	1,108
			De Smet.....	1,014	1,063

It will be noted that there are 16 of the larger towns and cities and 23 of the smaller.

The total population of the 39 towns and cities in 1915 was 125,494. The total population of South Dakota in 1917 was 582,765. Of the population of South Dakota, therefore, 21.5 per cent is to be found

in the 39 towns and cities listed above. Data from every town and city listed were received in time for inclusion in the findings reported, with the exception of Yankton and Wessington Springs, representing a total population of 5,913.

Legal provisions: Board of education and officers.—These towns and cities are, for educational purposes, under the control of a board of education of five members, each of whom is elected for a three-year period. In addition to the board, there is elected a treasurer, who also serves for three years. In addition to these officers there is a clerk, who is elected by the board from outside the membership of the board. The treasurer and clerk receive compensation, but the members of the board do not.

The law specifically provides that "in order to separate party politics, so far as possible, from school affairs, no descriptive words or symbol to designate the party or principle of any nominee shall appear on the certificate of nomination, or be used or printed on the ballot." There is a slight possibility of the school election being influenced by other considerations in commission-governed cities, where the law specifies that the election for choosing members of the board of education shall occur on the third Tuesday of April, when the mayor and commissioners are being elected.

Provision is made for the transaction of the business of the board in regular meetings, "which shall be held upon the last Friday of each month, but may, in the discretion of the board, be on the second Friday also, and special meetings may be held." In connection with the business of the board, the duties of the officers are those regularly falling to such officers. It is provided that the president of the board shall appoint all committees. The law requires that the clerk of the board shall make an annual report of the condition, financial as well as educational, of all of the schools at the close of each school year. A copy of this is required to be filed with the county superintendent, and such portion of it as the board considers advantageous to the public shall be printed in a public newspaper or in pamphlet form. The law requires the treasurer to prepare a written monthly report showing the financial condition of the school corporation. Within 20 days after the end of the fiscal year, the law requires that the board shall publish in a newspaper a statement of the receipts and expenditures, showing in reference to expenditures the amount paid for teachers and repairs and incidentals. This statement must also show the amount on hand at the close of the fiscal year and in what bank the money is deposited.

Taxing power of board.—The authority to levy the necessary tax is centered in the board of education, who "shall on or before the fifteenth day of August of each year levy a tax for the support of the schools of the corporation." The levy is to be certified to the

county auditor by the clerk of the board, who is "authorized and required to extend the levy on the tax roll of the county." The levy must show the amounts it is sought to raise in the several funds, and in taking receipts for money paid over to the treasurer of the board, the receipts must show the proportionate amounts belonging to the several funds for which levy was made. The session laws of 1915 limited the total rate of the annual tax levy in independent school districts to 15½ mills on the dollar of assessed valuation.

Superintendent of schools.—The law specifies that the "board of education in cities of the first and second class at such times as they shall deem expedient shall elect a superintendent of schools" who is not a member of their own body. His duty "shall be to have a general supervision of the schools of the corporation, subject to the rules and regulations of the board." He "shall hold his office during the pleasure of the board and shall receive such compensation as the board may allow." The only provision in the law in reference to the qualifications required of the superintendent of schools is that "no city superintendent or principal shall be employed who does not hold a first grade or State diploma."

General authority of board.—On the board of education, together with the other officers above indicated, power is conferred to "organize and maintain a system of graded schools, to establish a high school * * * and to exercise sole control over the school and school corporation." Under the law, they must maintain the schools in session daily for five and a half hours exclusive of intermissions, for not less nor more than 10 months in each year.

The board has authority to appoint two competent persons, who with the superintendent, as chairman shall constitute the examining committee of the board, with power to examine teachers for their schools and to issue certificates to such teachers legalizing their employment in the schools.

It is made the duty of the clerk of the board annually to take the census of all children under 21 and over 6 years of age residing in the district.

The board is definitely charged with the enforcement of the compulsory education law which requires every child of the age of 8 and not exceeding the age of 16 years to attend school during the entire time the public schools are in session, until he has completed the first eight grades. To guarantee the enforcement of the compulsory education law, the board is required to appoint each year a truant officer to enforce the provisions of the law. The fixing of compensation for his services rests with the board.

While the schools in the towns and cities are required to use the books adopted for the schools of the county, authority is conferred upon them to provide books free for the use of the pupils.

Chapter 225 of the Laws of 1917 provides specifically authority for doing a number of things which had not been definitely covered in earlier legislation. All of these provisions are important, but it seems worth while particularly to draw attention to the authority conferred to supply ample quantities of texts, reference and library books, tools, materials, and all sorts of equipment needed in instruction. Chapter 223 of the Laws of 1917 specifically provides for the use of the public-school buildings and property for other than traditional educational purposes.

Section 2. STUDY OF THE ACTUAL PRACTICES IN TOWNS AND CITIES.

Board meetings.—The data show that of the 35 towns and cities reporting, 31 hold meetings of the board of education monthly, two semi-monthly, and two irregularly. Thirty-four of 35 superintendents attend regularly, while one does not always attend.

In reference to those who attend the meetings of the board in addition to the members of the board and the superintendent of schools, 8 report that no one else attends; 15 that the clerk attends; 1 that the school attorney attends; and 2 that the high-school principal attends. The other 9 simply answer that anyone attends. Evidently, these 9 may be combined with the 8 answering that no one else attends, giving 17 out of the 35 towns and cities reporting in which the board meetings are held with only the board of education and the superintendent present, except as interested citizens, or persons having official business may attend the meetings.

In all except 7 of the 35 towns and cities reporting, the business of the board is transacted by the entire board. In the other 7 cities, the business is prepared and reported by committees for action of the entire board. The titles of the committees reported by the seven cities are Teachers, Finance, Property, Repairs, Supplies, Purchasing, Building, and Textbooks. Not all of these committees are reported in any one place, of course, but this variety of names is found. In one city, the title Finance and Accounts is reported, and in another, Buildings and Grounds is the designation for one of the committees. It is interesting to note that in the two largest cities of the State the school business is transacted by the board as a whole instead of being reported by committees.

Almost universally, the record of the proceedings and the drawing of warrants are attended to by the clerk of the board. One report shows that the superintendent records the proceedings, one that the superintendent draws the warrants, another that the president of the board draws the warrants, and another that the treasurer of the board draws the warrants.

Thirty-three reports were received in reference to where the board's records and paid invoices are kept. In 22 cases they are kept in the

board's office in the school building. In one case they are kept elsewhere. The reports show that the boards of education have the custom of meeting and transacting their business at various places. Of the 35 reporting, but 13 report that the board's business is transacted at a school office. Others report that the board meets in a store, in the bank, in the city hall; while others report "no particular place," evidently meaning that the meetings of the board are held at such places as may be appointed from time to time.

Enforcement of compulsory education.—Data were received from 29 sources regarding the truant officer. The returns show that this officer is paid in every case out of board of education funds, except in those cases where the superintendent, or the police, or the clerk, or the school nurse, or the janitor acts, in which case it is considered that the salary fixed for the main work of the officer covers any duties he performs as truant officer. One reports that the amount paid is not definitely fixed. Four returns show that the amount paid the truant officer is determined by the amount of work he does. In other words, he is paid in accordance with the number of cases he handles and the success he achieves. Two fixed the amount to be paid by the month or year. The returns were definite in reference to the amount paid in 12 communities. The material secured is as follows:

Amount.	Number of towns or cities.
\$5.00	1
7.00	1
9.00	1
25.00	1
45.00	2
70.00	1
135.00	1
200.00	1
300.00	1
1,000.00	1
1,200.00	1

Thirty-one returns answer the inquiry in reference to whether the compulsory-education law is satisfactorily enforced, giving the opinion that it is, eight that it is not, and one saying that it is only fairly satisfactory. The reasons assigned for this law not being satisfactorily enforced are: "Conditions due to the war"; "Impossibility of enforcing it under the present law"; "Failure of the board to provide a truant officer"; and a belief expressed by two that there is no need of enforcing it. Conversation with a number of superintendents brought out the fact that the obstacle in enforcing the law is the broad general provision in the law specifying "that this section shall not apply to a child otherwise instructed by a competent per-

son." They told the writer that this provision makes it practically impossible to enforce the law without great difficulty.

Encouraging professional growth.—In response to the inquiry as to the provision made by boards of education in South Dakota for encouraging the superintendents, supervisors, and other officers of the schools to keep abreast of the times, 31 replies were received. Six said no provision was made. One frankly reported that the board of education encourages professional growth by such means as the following: Allowing teachers time off, and paying a portion of the expenses involved in visiting conventions and other schools. Two reports are of outstanding significance, one showing that the board of education allows \$100 per year additional to any teacher who attends summer school, the other that the board pays the tuition and transportation expense connected with attending summer school, this remuneration being available to any teacher of the system every other year.

Growth of teaching staff.—In reference to the reading and studying on the part of teachers during the year of the survey, 29 reports were received. The returns show correspondence work was being carried in 2 towns and cities; extension work in 7; State reading-circle work in 9; study of special books in 4; study of penmanship in 3; while 4 did not return usable data. In 18 towns it was reported that meetings were held in connection with the work the teachers were doing, while 6 said no meetings were held. Seventeen answered the inquiry as to when the meetings were held, 5 meeting twice per year; 3 meeting monthly; 2 holding four meetings per year; 2 meeting weekly; 1 three meetings per year; 1 meeting every six weeks; 1 meeting biweekly; and 2 occasionally. Of the 17 reporting the meetings, 8 indicated that the meetings are conducted by the superintendent; 5 that they are conducted by the county superintendent; and 4 that they are conducted by university or college instructors.

In addition to the reading and studying, and the meetings held in connection therewith reported above, 25 reported meetings held for other purposes. Six reported meetings held monthly; 4 weekly; 2 biweekly; and 13 meetings held "occasionally," "frequently," or "as need arises." Twenty-three answered in reference to the purpose of these meetings as follows, 19 saying they are for some phase of professional work, 3 that they are for social purposes, and 1 that they are for inspirational ends.

The above data, taken in connection with the reports by teachers in reference to the limited number of books purchased and the limited supply of educational magazines taken, would suggest that there is need for some method of encouraging those types of reading and studying which result in professional growth.

The school day.—The data received in regard to the length of the school day may be tabulated as follows:

TABLE 40.—Length of school day.

	Frequency of cases.
5 hours.....	3
5 hours 5 minutes.....	2
5 hours 15 minutes.....	1
5 hours 25 minutes.....	2
5 hours 30 minutes.....	6
5 hours 40 minutes.....	3
5 hours 45 minutes.....	6

From the above data it will be seen that eight schools do not maintain a school day of standard length under the law, which requires a day of five hours and a half in length. Six are meeting the requirement of the law, whereas nine exceed the requirement of the law.

Promotion.—Twenty-nine towns and cities report promotions are made annually, while five report they are made semiannually. These figures do not quite harmonize with the returns on the inquiry in reference to how many times during the school year beginning pupils are received. These returns show that in 12 towns and cities they are received twice per year, although but five systems report semiannual promotions. The remaining cities report that they receive pupils but once a year, which is as one would expect in systems promoting annually.

In reference to the method of determining promotion, one reports that this matter is determined upon the basis of credits, beginning with the sixth grade; six that it is determined upon the basis of credits beginning with the seventh grade; five that it is determined upon the basis of credits beginning with the eighth grade; whereas 21 report that promotion is by grades throughout the elementary schools.

The junior high school.—Thirty-five returns were received in response to the inquiry regarding the maintenance of junior high schools. Four report they are maintained, 31 that they are not. Of the four having what is called a junior high school, three have the seventh and eighth grades in this school, while one has merely the eighth grade. All report other grades in the same building with the junior high school. The data received would indicate that not any of these towns or cities yet has a real junior high school. What exists is a departmental organization of the teaching in the seventh and eighth grades, but the other opportunities which should be offered by a junior high school, such as wider subject-matter opportunities, vocational studies, and appropriate social, literary, and athletic advantages, are not adequately provided.

Uses of the school building.—Thirty reports were received in reference to the use made of school buildings other than for school purposes. Seven cities report that the buildings are used for community meetings, 7 that they are used for meetings connected with school work, 3 that they are used for war work, 1 that a school building accommodates a city library, and 1 that school buildings are used for voting places, while 11 report no use of school property except for actual school work. This limited use of school properties is probably due to the fact that there was no legal basis for making use of school buildings until section 1 of chapter 223 of the Laws of 1917 was enacted.

Only 10 school systems report any efforts put forth to aid community work, and of these 10 five were in connection with war work. But 14 out of 25 reporting indicate any help received by the school from the cooperation of business men and prominent citizens of the community. But 16 out of 31 reporting indicate any parent-teacher organizations. Evidently there is large room for bringing great values to the schools through increasing and multiplying the relationships existing between the schools and the other community activities in the various towns and cities.

Summer schools.—Of 37 reporting, but 12 report any provision for continuing the education of the children during the summer vacation. In these 12 towns and cities the expense for schooling is financed out of public funds in but six places, although part of the expense is borne by public funds in two other places. In the remaining towns the entire expense is met by other than public funds.

Playgrounds.—Of the 35 schools reporting, 3 state that public playgrounds are maintained by public funds, 1 that they are maintained by money derived from popular subscription, and 1 that they are maintained by funds raised by parent-teacher organizations. The other 30 report no provision for public playgrounds.

Rules and regulations.—But 14 of the 37 towns and cities report any printed or typewritten rules and regulations for the guidance of teachers and the head of the school system, or for the government of the schools. Seven of these were reported from towns and cities of less than 2,000 population. Five of these were merely one or two-page typewritten regulations, while two were issued in printed form bearing the date of 1910. In one of these towns the rules and regulations cover 9 pages and in others 18 pages. In the latter case the entire system was covered rather thoroughly. In the towns and cities with above 2,000 population two reported only typewritten rules and regulations, whereas four systems had printed rules and regulations, these varying in extent from 5 pages in two cities to 37 pages in one, and 57 in another.

It would certainly make for stability and for uniformity in the management and discipline of the schools if these towns and cities more generally committed to print the organization within the system and the standards expected of all—superintendent, principals, teachers, janitors, and pupils. Such a statement could not but exercise a wholesome influence throughout the schools and the community served.

School bulletins.—As a means of gaining as intimate an insight into the spirit and detailed management of the school system as possible, request was made for one copy of each school bulletin issued from the superintendent's office within a year. Only 8 of the 37 systems sent any bulletins in response to this request. It was disappointing to find that the bulletins in most of these systems were concerned almost wholly with routine matters. There were three notable and outstanding exceptions to this general situation, however. In the office of each of two superintendents a representative of the survey spent some time going over copies of bulletins sent out to the teaching staff, the larger percentage of which were breathing the modern point of view in education, suggesting new ways of working, reporting good results seen, and pointing the way to larger undertakings and results. These items from the index to the bulletins of one superintendent are suggestive of the rich and profitable character of his communications to his teaching staff:

Date.	Page.	
Aug. 26	1	Diagram—Managerial type of organization.
	2	Explanation—Managerial type of organization.
	3	Continuation of page 2.
	4	Public-school corps for 1916-17.
Sept. 4	1-2	Three basic business considerations. A five-point marking system.
	18	Educational measurement.
	22	Responsibility for reviews in arithmetic.
29	1	City-wide spelling test (first).
	2	City-wide spelling test (graph).
	3	City-wide spelling test (continued).
Oct. 5	1	General handwriting statement. Time schedule. Awards and certificates (drills, etc.).
	10	Uniform tests. Premiums for perfect punctuality and attendance. Poor-progress blanks.
	19	1 The coach room. The coaching attitude and method.
30	1	Standard tests for pupil diagnosis. Teaching economy. Picture committee. Grade-course committees.

Date.	Page.
Nov. 6	1 Committee on playground games. Committee on elementary handwork. Progress in committee work. Final written examinations in grades, kindergarten to sixth, inclusive.
	2 Starch-reasoning test—scores and graph.
9	1 Speed and Ayres quality of handwriting, September, 1910.
15	1 Woody test in addition of whole numbers.
17	1-3 Rating one's efficiency.
Jan. 4	1 Professional facts for the superintendent's file. Motivating school activities.
11	1 The Woody tests in the fundamental number operations. Silent reading tests. Silent reading test (comprehension).
	2 The marble statue—Whipple.
	3 Woody subtraction test—scores and graph.
	4 Woody multiplication test—scores and graph.
	5 Woody division test—scores and graph.
18	1 The superintendent's books. A school exhibition and the State fair. Report of committee on elementary handwork.
24	2 Paper and cardboard construction (outline of work). 1 Directory.
Feb. 5	1 Putting first things first. Daily plans. Substitutes. School on stormy days.
	2 Programs on February 12 and 22.
13	1 Reorganization and building plans of the board of education. 2 Advantages of the junior high school. Cost of operation (comparisons).
20	1 Motivation reports. Good-manners pamphlets. Kansas City meeting. Renewing our ideals.

Blanks and forms.—In five systems the general judgment of the survey was that the blanks and forms used in the transaction of business were worked out with care and were adequate in number and kind to meet the various needs. In the other systems, however, many things must have gone without written record, the business being transacted by oral requests and reports. This conclusion is a general one, however, as it was found impossible to make comparisons of the various forms and blanks used in the 39 systems with a view to standardizing the blanks required, which would have been necessary before a careful and scientific judgment could be rendered.

It was disappointing to find but 5 systems reporting any type of cumulative record card for the preservation of the records of pupils. Likewise but 5 systems reported any schedule as a basis for working out the daily programs.

But two printed official reports were received. The other reports were made out upon standard forms for the use of clerks and treasurers.

Section 3. THE SUPERINTENDENTS IN THE TOWNS AND CITIES OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

Evidently one of the most important factors in determining the character of the educational opportunities provided the children in the towns and cities of South Dakota is the superintendent of schools. The facts in the tables appearing in the following pages, together with their interpretation, present a fairly adequate view of the leadership provided in education in the towns and cities under study.

Preparation.—The first requisite in judging the equipment for leadership possessed by the superintendents of South Dakota is a knowledge of their training. The following tables present the data showing the training of the superintendents or school heads in the 37 towns and cities from which complete data were received. In the first column of each table the facts are presented regarding the superintendents in cities of over 2,000 population, and in the column following that corresponding data regarding the superintendents in the towns with between 1,000 and 2,000 population.

TABLE 41.—Elementary and high-school training of 37 superintendents.

Character and place of training.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Elementary school training:			
Rural—			
In South Dakota.....		3	3
Out of South Dakota.....	6	10	16
Town—			
In South Dakota.....		3	3
Out of South Dakota.....	2	3	5
City—			
In South Dakota.....		1	1
Out of South Dakota.....	1	2	7
High-school training:			
Town—			
Less than 2 years—			
In South Dakota.....			
Out of South Dakota.....			
Less than 3 years—			
In South Dakota.....			
Out of South Dakota.....	1		1
Less than 4 years—			
In South Dakota.....			
Out of South Dakota.....	3	2	5
Four years—			
In South Dakota.....		1	1
Out of South Dakota.....	2	6	8
City—			
Less than 2 years—			
In South Dakota.....			
Out of South Dakota.....	1		1
Less than 3 years—			
In South Dakota.....			
Out of South Dakota.....		1	1
Less than 4 years—			
In South Dakota.....		1	1
Out of South Dakota.....	3	2	5
Four years—			
In South Dakota.....			
Out of South Dakota.....	2	5	7

A glance at this table shows that of the present superintendents in South Dakota practically all received their elementary and high-school training outside of South Dakota.

TABLE 42.—Normal school training of 37 superintendents.

Years and place of training.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Less than 1 year:			
In South Dakota.....		2	2
Out of South Dakota.....			
One year but less than 2 years:			
In South Dakota.....	1		1
Out of South Dakota.....			
Two years:			
In South Dakota.....			
Out of South Dakota.....			
More than 2 years:			
Out of South Dakota, 4 years, but no high-school basis.....	1		1
In South Dakota, 1 year, but no high-school basis.....		1	1
In South Dakota, 5 years, but no high-school basis.....		1	1

TABLE 43.—College training of 37 superintendents.

Years of training.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
1 year.....	2	2	4
2 years.....	2		2
3 years.....			
4 years.....	7	8	15
4½ years.....	2	2	2
5 years.....	1	2	3
5½ years.....		1	1
6 years.....			
Total.....	14	13	28

In addition to the training included above, one superintendent studied two years for the ministry, one took two years of correspondence study, another took one year of extension work in the University of South Dakota, one had a year of business college training, and another had a half year of training in woodwork and agriculture.

TABLE 44.—Showing summer-school training of 37 superintendents.

Amount in weeks.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
6 weeks.....	2	5	7
12 weeks.....	2	2	4
18 weeks.....	1	2	3
24 weeks.....	3	2	5
30 weeks.....	1	1	2
36 weeks.....	1		1
Total.....	10	12	22

From the tables pertaining to the normal school and college training of the 37 superintendents, it is easy to determine that the total amount of training in years is 133½ and, in addition thereto, 400 weeks of summer-school training.

The second body of facts gathered as a basis for estimating the professional equipment of superintendents pertains to their teaching experience. This is presented in the tables below:

TABLE 45.—Distribution in the experience of 37 superintendents.

Experience in years.	Total experience.		Rural and village schools.		In cities of 1,000 to 1,999.		In cities of 2,000 to 4,999.		In cities of 5,000 and above.	
	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or above.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or above.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or above.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or above.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or above.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.
Less than 2 years.....		4	2		6		1		1	3
2 to 4 years.....	1	2	7	2	7	3	3		3	1
5 to 7 years.....	4	2	7	1	2	1	3		1	1
8 to 10 years.....	4	1	1						2	
11 to 15 years.....	4	5		1	2	2	1		2	
16 to 19 years.....	2	2		1	1	1			4	
20 to 25 years.....	5	3								
More than 25 years.....	1	1								
Total.....	12	20	9	19	3	18	7	8	10	4

TABLE 46.—Distribution in the variety of the experience of 37 superintendents.

Type of experience.	Cases of each type of experience.		
	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Special.....	3	7	10
Rural.....	8	12	20
Village.....	6	16	22
In city of 1,000.....	3	18	21
In city of 2,000 to 5,000.....	7	8	15
In city of 5,000 and above.....	10	4	14
Total.....	37	65	102

TABLE 47.—Place of birth by States or countries of 37 superintendents.

Birthplace.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
South Dakota.....		1	1
Iowa.....	4	2	6
Michigan.....	1		1
Pennsylvania.....	1		1
Ohio.....	1	1	2
Kansas.....	1		1
Illinois.....	1	2	3
Indiana.....	1	3	4
Wisconsin.....	1		1
Minnesota.....		4	4
Missouri.....		2	2
Maine.....		1	1
Norway.....		2	2
England.....		1	1
Not reporting.....	3	3	6
Total.....	15	22	37

The salary paid the educational leader in each community is evidently a vital factor in determining the character of leadership which each community can expect to attract. The table below gives these facts:

TABLE 48.—Distribution of the salaries paid 37 superintendents.

Amount.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Less than \$1,500.....		5	5
\$1,500 to \$2,000.....	3	11	14
\$2,000 to \$2,500.....	5	1	6
\$2,500 to \$3,000.....	3		3
\$3,000 to \$3,500.....	1		1
\$3,500 to \$4,000.....	1		1
Not reporting.....	3	2	5
Total.....	15	22	37



It was not found possible to figure the living expenses of the superintendents from the data presented. This matter is more difficult to reduce to a comparable basis than in the case of teachers, for the reason that most of the superintendents are married men with families, their responsibilities varying according to the size of the family.

Likewise it is hardly necessary to present the data of the place of residence of superintendents. As a matter of fact, 25 of the 37 superintendents have a permanent residence in the town where they are working, while six do not. Six made no report on the matter.

TABLE 49.—Age distribution of 37 superintendents.

Years of age.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
27.....		1	1
28.....		2	2
29.....		1	1
30.....		2	2
31.....		1	1
32.....		1	1
33.....		1	1
34.....		1	1
35.....		1	1
36.....		1	1
37.....	1	2	3
38.....	1	1	2
39.....			
40.....			
41.....	2	1	3
42.....		2	2
43.....		1	1
44.....	1	1	2
45.....	1		1
46.....	2		2
47.....			
48.....		1	1
49.....		1	1
50.....	1		1
51.....		2	2
52.....		2	2
Not reporting.....	3		5
Total.....	15	22	37

The median age of the superintendents in cities of over 2,000 population is 42, while that in the towns below 2,000 is 37½ years.

TABLE 50.—Distribution in the number of married and single superintendents.

Married or single.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Single.....		3	3
Married.....	12	17	29
Not reporting.....	3	2	5
Total.....	15	22	37

TABLE 51.—Answers to the question as to whether the superintendents expect to continue educational work.

Intentions.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Will continue.....	11	17	28
Will not continue.....	1	3	4
Not reporting.....	3	2	5
Total.....	15	22	37

TABLE 52.—Reasons assigned by 37 superintendents for inclining to continue or discontinue educational work.

Reasons.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Like the work.....	10	10	20
Influenced by salary.....		2	2
Preparation.....		2	2
Better opportunities in other lines.....		2	2
Inaptitude for the work.....	1	6	7
Not reporting.....	4		4
Total.....	15	22	37

TABLE 53.—Organizations in which the 37 superintendents hold membership.

Organization.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
National Education Association.....	11	4	15
South Dakota Teachers' Association.....	11	20	31
Reading Circle.....	1		1
Miscellaneous.....	4		4
Rotary Club.....	1		1
Commercial Club.....	2		2
Parent-Teacher Association.....		1	1
Red Cross.....		4	4
Young Men's Christian Association.....		1	1
Total.....	30	32	62

There is certainly cause for serious regret that aside from educational relationships, the number of superintendents reporting the establishment of other relationships is negligibly small. But one reports membership in a rotary club and but four in a commercial club. The superintendent in every community needs the stimulus which comes from contact with the business men in his community. He likewise needs the opportunities which this contact affords for enabling these business men to know his point of view and to know the objectives of the school he is heading, and likewise the ways and means which are being employed for the realization of the school's objectives. Even though his contribution to the civic organization

may be small, the values coming to the school through his relationship are so many and so vital that no educational leader should allow himself to omit the establishment of these ties.

The superintendent's disposition to grow and to become a capable professional leader may be measured somewhat by the investment he makes in a professional library and by the amount of reading and studying he does. The following list shows the books reported as being used. The figure following the name of each book shows the number reporting it. In addition to these books, 30 other titles were reported, each being mentioned but once.

Classroom Management—Bagley.....	7
Methods of Teaching in High Schools—Parker.....	6
Motivation of School Work—Wilson and Wilson.....	6
How to Teach—Strayer and Norsworthy.....	5
Psychology of High School Subjects—Judd.....	5
Principles of Education—Jones.....	4
Supervised Study—Hall-Quest.....	4
Educational Administration—Strayer and Thorndike.....	3
Educational Measurement—Starch.....	3
The Modern High School—Johnston.....	3
School Administration—Cubberley.....	3
Teaching the Common Branches—Charters.....	3
Methods of Teaching—Charters.....	2
Cyclopedia of Education—Monroe.....	2
School and Society—Dewey.....	2
Schools of To-Morrow—Dewey.....	2
School Administration and Supervision—Chancellor.....	2
Discipline of the School—Morehouse.....	2
Educative Process—Bagley.....	2
Educational Psychology—Thorndike.....	2

The magazines reported on the reading lists of the superintendents seem to permit the classification shown in the table below. Thirteen different educational journals were reported, 10 current literary and political magazines were mentioned, 3 magazines pertaining to special subjects and dealing with school devices were listed, while 3 magazines falling in the type of fiction and miscellaneous were included in the returns.

TABLE 54.—Character of the magazines read, together with the frequency of the use of each type among the 37 superintendents.

Character of magazines.	Superintendents in cities of 2,000 population and over.	Superintendents in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Educational journals.....	29	33	62
Special subjects and school devices.....	3	3	6
Current literature and political.....	11	19	30
Fiction and miscellaneous.....	1	24	25
Total.....	44	79	123

Section 4. THE TEACHERS IN THE TOWNS AND CITIES OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

Preparation.—The first requisite in judging of the professional ability of any group of teachers is a knowledge of the training they have had for their work. The following data regarding the 593 teachers from whom the returns from the 37 towns and cities above 1,000 population were sufficiently accurate to be usable were tabulated throughout in such way as to show the facts regarding those teachers reporting from cities of 2,000 population or over in one column, and the corresponding facts from those teachers reporting from cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000 in another column:

TABLE 55.—Elementary and high-school education of 593 elementary school-teachers.

Time.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Elementary school training:			
Rural—			
In South Dakota.....	46	30	76
Out of South Dakota.....	43	9	52
Town—			
In South Dakota.....	76	54	130
Out of South Dakota.....	105	39	144
City—			
In South Dakota.....	93	8	101
Out of South Dakota.....	74	33	107
High-school training:			
Town—			
Less than 2 years—			
In South Dakota.....	8	3	11
Out of South Dakota.....	8	1	9
Less than 3 years—			
In South Dakota.....	13	5	18
Out of South Dakota.....	9	3	12
Less than 4 years—			
In South Dakota.....	10	12	22
Out of South Dakota.....	14	2	16
Four years—			
In South Dakota.....	39	54	93
Out of South Dakota.....	92	27	119
City—			
Less than 2 years—			
In South Dakota.....	1	2	3
Out of South Dakota.....	1	2	3
Less than 3 years—			
In South Dakota.....	8	2	10
Out of South Dakota.....	2	1	3
Less than 4 years—			
In South Dakota.....	11	1	12
Out of South Dakota.....	9	6	15
Four years—			
In South Dakota.....	88	12	100
Out of South Dakota.....	63	15	78

A glance at the table shows that the number who received their training outside the State is almost equal to the number who had corresponding training within the State. Almost half of the teachers studied did not spend their early childhood and take their training in South Dakota.

TABLE 56.—*Normal school training of 593 elementary school-teachers.*

Time.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Less than 1 year:			
In South Dakota.....	21	12	33
Out of South Dakota.....	21	12	33
One year but less than two years:			
In South Dakota.....	74	36	110
Out of South Dakota.....	28	8	36
Two years:			
In South Dakota.....	43	25	68
Out of South Dakota.....	74	24	98
More than 2 years:			
In South Dakota.....	55	18	73
Out of South Dakota.....	36	1	40

TABLE 57.—*College training of 593 elementary school-teachers.*

Time.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Less than one year:			
In South Dakota.....	15	7	22
Out of South Dakota.....	94	23	117
One year, but less than two years:			
In South Dakota.....	25	4	29
Out of South Dakota.....	24	6	34
Two years, but less than three years:			
In South Dakota.....	14	8	22
Out of South Dakota.....	21	3	24
Three years, but less than four years:			
In South Dakota.....	4	1	5
Out of South Dakota.....	6	3	9
Four years:			
In South Dakota.....	4	2	6
Out of South Dakota.....	7	1	8
More than four years:			
In South Dakota.....	3		3
Out of South Dakota.....	5	1	6

The second body of facts necessary to forming an estimate of the professional equipment of any body of teachers is a knowledge of their teaching experience.

TABLE 58.—*Variety of experience of 593 elementary school-teachers.*

Type of experience.	Cases of each type of experience.		
	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Special.....	27	4	31
Rural.....	211	88	299
Village.....	187	90	277
City of 1,000.....	104	187	271
City of 2,000 to 3,000.....	232	20	252
City of 5,000 or above.....	323	11	334
Total.....	1,084	280	1,464

TABLE 59.—Positions now held by 593 elementary school-teachers.

Positions.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000	Total.
Principal.....	36	2	38
Teacher in kindergarten.....	12	1	13
Teacher in first grade.....	48	22	70
Teacher in first and second grade.....	11	2	13
Teacher in second grade.....	32	18	50
Teacher in second and third grade.....	6	1	7
Teacher in third grade.....	34	19	53
Teacher in third and fourth grade.....	20	3	23
Teacher in fourth grade.....	32	18	50
Teacher in fourth and fifth grade.....	5	1	6
Teacher in fifth grade.....	29	14	43
Teacher in fifth and sixth grade.....	17	4	21
Teacher in sixth grade.....	27	14	41
Teacher in sixth and seventh grade.....	1	2	3
Teacher in seventh grade.....	15	12	27
Teacher in seventh and eighth grade.....	2	3	5
Teacher in eighth grade.....	12	10	22
Teacher in departmental work.....	58	9	67
Teacher of manual training.....	2	2	4
Teacher of domestic science.....	3		3
Supervisor of drawing.....	4		4
Supervisor of drawing and music.....	1	2	3
Supervisor of music.....	11	6	17
Supervisor of writing.....	4		4
Supervisor of writing and music.....	1	1	2
Supervisor of physical training.....	5		5
School nurse.....	1		1
Total.....	423	166	589

It is interesting to note the small number of supervisors of drawing, there being only four in the 37 cities. The amount of attention given to music, as indicated by the number of supervisors employed, is much greater. Writing uses the time of but four supervisors, and domestic science employs but three teachers in the elementary schools, while there is but one teacher reporting who scheduled herself as a school nurse.

TABLE 60.—Salaries of 593 elementary school-teachers.

Amount.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Less than \$450.....	1	2	3
\$450-\$629.....	28	60	88
\$630-\$719.....	146	81	227
\$720-\$809.....	178	13	191
\$810-\$899.....	65	3	68
\$900-\$1,000.....	30	1	31
Above \$1,000.....	33	3	36
Not reporting.....	2	2	4
Total.....	476	166	642

It is seen that the income of the larger number of the teachers reporting falls between \$630 and \$809. Reference to the table showing the positions now held by the teachers studied reveals the fact that the 36 who are receiving above \$1,000 are in all probability principals of schools.

TABLE 61.—*Living expenses of 593 elementary school-teachers for the school year.*

Amount.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
At home.....	26	14	40
Less than \$180.....	6	5	11
\$180-\$224.....	18	32	50
\$225-\$299.....	140	83	223
\$300 or above.....	212	11	223
Not reporting.....	25	21	46
Total.....	427	166	593

A glance at this table shows that the large majority of the teachers report an expense of above \$225 per year. Indeed, the number reporting an expense from \$225 to \$300 is precisely the same as the number reporting that it is above \$300. It will be observed that 46 made no report. It was their judgment that this was too private a matter to be reported. Thus certain data were withheld which must be in hand if the arguments necessary to secure increased salaries are to be brought to bear effectively on those having in charge the regulation of salaries.

TABLE 62.—*Distribution of 593 elementary school-teachers living at home or elsewhere.*

Place of residence.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
In home town.....	177	57	234
Not in home town.....	246	104	350
Not reporting.....	2	1	3
Total teachers.....	427	166	593

Almost three-fifths are nonresident teachers in the community where they are at work. This is a factor, of course, making it necessary that the wages of teachers should be in keeping with the added expense by reason of teaching where they can not live at home.

TABLE 63.—Distribution in age of 593 elementary school-teachers.

Years of age.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
20 or less than 20.....	6	4	7
21.....	5	10	15
22.....	15	15	30
23.....	31	15	46
24.....	35	11	46
25.....	43	24	67
26.....	42	13	55
27.....	38	11	49
28.....	29	11	40
29.....	21	7	28
30.....	21	7	28
31.....	17	7	24
32.....	14	4	18
33.....	7	2	9
34.....	5	2	7
35.....	12	5	17
36.....	9	1	10
37.....	2	1	3
38.....	16		16
39.....	10	2	12
40.....	1		1
41.....	1		1
42.....	3	1	4
43.....	5		5
44.....	4	1	5
45 or more.....	9	9	18
Not reporting.....	22	3	25
Total teachers.....	427	166	593

A study of this table shows that the median age of teachers in cities of 1,000 to 2,000 is 26 years, while that in cities of above 2,000 is 26 years. Following the age of 32, the number drops very rapidly.

TABLE 64.—Distribution of single and married teachers among 593 elementary school-teachers.

Married relation.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Single.....	394	152	546
Married.....	25	8	33
Widow.....	6	6	12
Not reporting.....	2		2
Total teachers.....	427	166	593

TABLE 65.—Distribution of answers to the question as to whether the 593 elementary school teachers expect to continue teaching.

Intentions.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Will continue.....	252	96	348
Will not continue.....	110	51	161
Undecided.....	45	10	55
Not reporting.....	20	9	29
Total teachers.....	427	166	593

The number who will not continue, or who are in doubt, shows the largeness of the problem of developing a fundamental concern for the business of teaching in the body of teachers under study.

TABLE 66.—*Distribution of the reasons assigned for continuing or discontinuing teaching by 593 elementary school-teachers.*

Reasons.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Like the work.....	129	41	170
Influenced by salary.....	46	21	67
Preparation.....	48	16	64
Support.....	15	4	19
Prefer it to other work.....	29	9	38
Too hard work.....	5	4	9
Health.....	3	1	4
On account of the war.....	2		2
Marriage.....	7	2	9
Patriotic duty to remain.....	1		1
Go to school or change occupation.....	104	13	119
Not reporting.....	36	53	89

Those who are discontinuing assign in the main two significant reasons—continuing education and changing the occupation.

TABLE 67.—*Organization in which the 593 elementary school-teachers hold memberships.*

Organization.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
South Dakota Education Association.....	321	100	421
District Education Association.....	16	3	19
National Education Association.....	4	2	6
National Music Association.....	5	1	6
State Music Association.....	3	2	5
Parent-Teacher Association or Mother's Club.....	82	7	89
Reading Circle.....	16	26	42
Local Study Club.....	27	8	35
Red Cross.....	253	64	317
Civic Organization.....	17	5	22
Young Women's Christian Association.....	16	1	17
Women's Clubs.....	4	2	6
Miscellaneous.....	6		6

Not one of these organizations succeeded in enrolling every teacher. The South Dakota Education Association came nearest it, with 421, and the Red Cross came next, with 317.

The teacher's disposition to grow and to take her work seriously may be measured somewhat by the investment he makes in professional helps and by the amount of reading and studying he does.

The total number of books reported by all concerned was 108. Of the entire list of books, 18 were mentioned by but two teachers,

while 39 were mentioned by but one. The book mentioned by most teachers was Strayer and Norsworthy's "How to Teach." It was listed by 61 teachers. The six most frequently mentioned books, with the frequencies of mention, are as follows:¹

How to Teach, Strayer and Norsworthy.....	61
Motivation of School Work, Wilson and Wilson.....	59
Teaching the Common Branches, Charters.....	42
School Measurement, Bagley.....	36
How to Study, McMurry.....	23
Socializing the Child, Dynes.....	22

TABLE 68.—Kinds of books read and distribution of this reading among 593 elementary school-teachers.

Kind of book.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Games.....	33	17	50
Stories and story telling.....	80	34	114
Books on school subjects or text books.....	367	90	457
Plan or device books.....	99	59	158
Reference books.....	104	25	129
Miscellaneous.....	118	21	139
Total.....	801	246	1,047

It is seriously to be regretted that only 50 teachers out of 593 mention any book dealing with games; and only 114, any dealing with stories and story telling. Even the number of teachers mentioning books on school subjects or textbooks is only 457—136 less than the total number reporting. It will be observed that the total number of teachers reporting with reference to all the kinds of books listed is but 1,104—less than two books per teacher. Undoubtedly some provision should be made whereby it is possible to insure that every teacher in the public schools shall every year invest a few dollars in modern books which should be a help to her in her daily duties, and likewise to insure that these books are understandingly read.

The six magazines most frequently mentioned, together with the frequencies of mention, are as follows:

Normal Instructor and Primary Plans.....	300
Literary Digest.....	108
Current Events Magazine.....	108
National Geographic Magazine.....	102
Primary Education.....	77
American Magazine.....	56

¹ These are recent State Reading Circle books.

TABLE 69.—Character of magazines read, together with the frequency of their use among 59½ elementary school teachers.

Type of magazine.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Educational journals.....	92	38	130
School devices and special subjects.....	352	152	504
Current literature and political.....	79	124	203
Fiction and miscellaneous.....	286	65	351
Total.....	809	379	1,188

Section 5.—ATTRACTING POWER OF TOWN AND CITY SCHOOLS.

One measure of the efficiency of a school system is the extent to which it enrolls the youth of school age in the community. The following tables show the enrollment of the school population in the towns and cities of South Dakota:

TABLE 70.—Cities of over 2,000 population.

City.	Total school census.	Total elementary and high-school enrollment.	Percentage of enrollment to census.
1.....	4,996	3,813	76.3
2.....	2,946	2,162	72.4
3.....	2,480	1,529	61.7
4.....	2,103	1,579	75.1
6.....	1,443	1,300	90.1
7.....	1,112	1,057	92.3
8.....	1,065	844	79.3
9.....	1,034	790	76.1
12.....	745	673	90.3
14.....	670	506	75.5

TABLE 71.—Towns of 1,000 to 2,000 population.

Town.	Total school census.	Total elementary and high-school enrollment.	Percentage of enrollment to school census.
1.....	734	530	72.7
4.....	550	455	80.2
6.....	482	393	81.1
7.....	429	435	100.1
13.....	452	391	86.4
15.....	329	179	54.4
20.....	348	299	85.9
21.....	310	290	90.0

It will be observed that the cities of above 2,000 population vary in their enrollment of the census population from above 90 per cent in cities 6, 7, and 12 to as low as 61.7 per cent in city No. 3, while the range in the towns is from above 100 per cent to as low as 54.4

per cent. To measure with careful justice the extent to which each town and city is meeting its responsibility for the education of its children, other data than those at hand are needed. Manifestly, however, many of the towns and cities enrolling such a low percentage of the children are not meeting their responsibility adequately. One factor which operates heavily in some communities in reducing the public-school enrollment is the parochial-school enrollment. To the extent that this factor enters in, the public schools are blameless. Town 7, enrolling over 100 per cent of its school census, evidently enrolls many children from outside the town or is growing rapidly.

The following tables show the distribution of pupils by ages and grades in the towns and cities of South Dakota. The percentage of retardation runs very high in all grades above the first in the towns of less than 2,000 population, and in all grades above the second in the cities of over 2,000 population.

Section 6. THE COURSE OF STUDY IN TOWNS AND CITIES OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

Legal requirements and the course of study.—The subjects taught and the special activities or special days and events observed or commemorated in the towns and cities are regulated by statute. Chapter 214 of the session laws of 1917 (see sec. 138 of the Laws of South Dakota) specifies that instruction shall be given in the common schools of the State in the following branches in the several grades in which each may be required:

Reading, orthography, arithmetic, geography, primary language and English grammar, history of the United States, history of South Dakota, physiology and hygiene, with special instruction as to the nature of alcoholic drinks and narcotics in their effect upon the human system, civil government, and drawing, and such other branches, including high-school subjects, as the electors of the district at the annual election may have ordered.

This general provision is added to by various enactments whereby the elements of vocal music, including, when practical, singing of simple music by rote, shall be taught.

Moral instruction intended to impress upon the mind of the pupils the importance of truthfulness, temperance, purity, public spirit, and respect for honest labor, obedience to parents, and due deference to old age shall be given by every teacher in public service in the State.

There shall be taught in the public schools of this State, in addition to other branches of study as now prescribed, a system of humane treatment of animals.

It is also provided that the proper officers are authorized and empowered in their discretion to appropriate funds for the purpose of defraying the necessary expense of a proper observance of Memorial Day each year.

The law also requires that on September 28, or on the school day in each year thereafter nearest that date, Frances Willard Day shall be observed in the different public schools of the State, one-quarter of the school day being set apart for instruction and appropriate exercises in patriotism, civic improvement, the history and benefits of the prohibitory amendment to the constitution, the prohibitory laws of the State of South Dakota.

An opinion of the attorney general, report of 1916, page 305, holds that the board of education has authority to provide for instruction in manual training and domestic science; also to prescribe a course of study. Chapter 225 of the Laws of 1917 provides that the board of education in each city constituting a municipal corporation of the first or second class, in addition to the inherent and other powers now vested in such board, shall have power to establish and maintain a uniform system of instruction in the grades to and including the eighth, in substantial conformity to the course of study adopted for the public schools of the State, to establish and maintain kinder-

garten departments, courses in physical training, courses of study and practice in vocational training.

Observations on the course of study.—The courses of study in use in the towns and cities of South Dakota were investigated in light of the legal provisions and requirements above set forth. In the 22 towns below 2,000 population, but three reported any course of study directions in use other than those provided in the State course of study. One of these merely issued three pages of typewritten directions in language and grammar. Another city reported a total of six typewritten pages supplementing the State course of study, one page being devoted to reading and literature, one to language and grammar, one to arithmetic, one to geography, and two to history. A third town reported a course of study in addition to the State course, consisting of 60 typewritten pages.

In the 15 cities above 2,000 population, seven reported course of study directions in addition to the State course of study. With one exception, however, this material was all issued in typewritten form. In cities 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, the typewritten material was organized by grades. In cities 2 and 9, the organization was by subjects.

The following comments by cities are descriptive of the course of study situation in these places:

City No. 1 issued extensive mimeographed outlines providing reference helps for pupils and teachers and indicating text omissions and text enrichments. Objective standards were suggested only in the subject of writing. There was evidence in this course of study that the teachers had participated rather liberally in the development of the details.

In city No. 2 complete mimeographed outlines in all subjects were provided. It was found, however, that a complete set of outlines was not furnished to each teacher, there being but one complete set for a building. Each teacher was furnished only with the outlines for the subjects taught by her. These outlines provided ample reference in the various subjects for pupils and teachers. In the examination of these outlines at the superintendent's office the following notes were made: In reading, each child is encouraged to read extensively, and an ample amount of material is supplied that he may be able to read very largely what he likes. In arithmetic the addition combinations to 10 were to be taught in the first grade. Omissions of obsolete material in arithmetic were not very liberally specified, although the language of the directions gives teachers freedom to make omissions according to their judgment. The geography course of study placed large emphasis on using such means as picture illustrations, construction, and so on, as a means of rendering the work concrete. The language course of study gave detailed directions in reference to a wide use of stories.

but specified the use of the book rather extensively. There was little formal grammar before the seventh grade, but after that large quantities of material now considered functionless were required to be taught. The physiology and hygiene outline was excellent, emphasis being directed to producing action and forming habits rather than to the mere teaching of facts to be remembered. The industrial and fine arts outline was quite detailed for the first seven grades. The art outline provided for picture study. The aim of the industrial arts outline was to enable the children to know how the world's work is done.

There were committees of three or more to give attention to the course of study in each of the following subjects: Reading, language, geography, arithmetic, physiology, history and civics, nature study and school gardens, music, drawing. The bulletin announcing these committees suggests they should meet about once in two weeks. The plan of working was the gathering of data in reference to actual practice and the gathering of sources of inspiration and guidance. Special emphasis was placed upon the study of courses of study and practices in other systems. Such books as the committees might need access to were to be provided by the board of education.

With provision made for working cooperatively, it was surprising to find so little evidence of motives for work, methods of teaching, results expected, illustrations of results secured. While not operative as yet, the superintendent assured me that standard scales for the measurement of results secured were coming more and more into use and that he was hoping to be able to indicate the results expected in spelling, writing, arithmetic, and reading in terms of objective standards.

In city No. 4 courses were available in reading and literature amounting to 10 pages, in writing amounting to one page, in history amounting to one page, and in nature study amounting to two pages. Within these limits it is evident that there was merely space to indicate the text to be used and the scope to be covered.

In city No. 7, while the typewritten course was brief, it was good in the reference list if supplied for the use of teachers and pupils.

The course of study in the other three cities merely specified the books to be used and the limits to be covered. In their reports regarding their practice two superintendents indicated that the course of study is supplemented monthly by outlines. In so far as access was had to any of these outlines they merely indicated any modifications from the regular course of study in the pages or chapters to be covered.

It is evident from the foregoing description of the courses of study in use that the work in the towns and cities of South Dakota is for

all practical purposes directed by the State course of study, which was prepared with the thought of giving such general directions as might be followed by all schools of all types in carrying out the provisions of the law regarding what should be taught in the public schools of South Dakota. Owing to the small size of the towns under 2,000 population and of many of those above 2,000 population, it may be that the expense of printing a course of study based upon the State course of study but adapted to the particular needs of the community served is too great. If, that be true, it would seem that local initiative in supplementing the course of study might be greatly encouraged if the State course were issued especially for the use of towns and cities in loose-leaf form, so that detailed additions to the work suggested might easily be made. Much help could be brought to teachers if a page could be inserted wherever necessary supplying sources of help which should be made available to teachers and pupils, lesson outlines for the guidance of the teachers, illustrations of results expected for the guidance of the teachers, method suggestions and games and devices for the guidance of the teachers, ways of motivating work for the teacher's assistance, problem procedure in teaching, socialized possibilities for the assistance and guidance of the teachers. This same form of issue would make it possible for a superintendent, as standard tests are applied to the results secured, to issue tentative objective standards to be inserted in the course of study for the guidance of teachers in the various grades and subjects.

In view of the above facts showing that the State course of study is essentially the guide in the work of instruction in the towns and cities of South Dakota, all of the criticisms and suggestions for improvement of the State course of study indicated elsewhere apply here. Further, in towns and cities more intimate adaptations to the peculiar needs of communities should be expected. These communities pay salaries enabling them to secure leadership capable of diagnosing community needs and of establishing ways and means of meeting them. Also, where larger numbers of pupils are congregated, as in towns and cities, differentiations to suit the needs of special abilities and to meet the vocational needs are economically possible to an extent that does not obtain in rural communities served by one-room schools. Actually, therefore, the suggestions for improving the State course of study could not be considered detailed and searching enough to supply all the criticisms and suggestions which should be made for the improvement of the course of study in towns and cities.

Section 7. SOCIALIZING THE SCHOOLS IN THE TOWNS AND CITIES OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

Socialization of schools defined.—The large objective in progressive modern education evidently is the socialization of the school. While it is becoming rather common for educators and teachers to state this as the object of their endeavors, there is not an overwhelming uniformity as to their meaning. It may be well, therefore, to raise the question as to what a socialized school or school system is. A person of ordinary intelligence knows when a railway is electrified, he knows the essentials of a modern house, he knows something about when a suit of clothes is in style; but the question as to what we mean by a socialized school or as to when a school is socialized needs a detailed and concrete answer, that the public which supports the public-school system may definitely understand the answer when they are told that we are endeavoring to improve the public schools by socializing them more adequately.

For the purpose of this discussion a socialized school is an institution so organized that its work and activities and methods of procedure are such that the result is immediately and directly a functional product. In other words, the pupil of a school so equipped should be able to enter upon the customary social and civic relationships. He should be able to share in the ordinary occupations of the working world, and satisfactorily discharge the duties which fall to him.

The progress which has been made in the towns and cities of South Dakota in socializing the schools can only be discussed briefly because of the limits of this survey. The discussion is presented under the proper heads in setting forth the essentials of a socialized school. Briefly stated, these essentials are as follows: Right objectives, appropriate subject matter in each of the school subjects, proper standards of discipline and control and of attainment in work, appropriate methods of teaching and management, satisfactory results.

The objectives of the socialized school.—The first essential of a socialized school is a body of objectives for its guidance which, if realized in its children, will fit them for successful social service. Everything that is done in planning all the details of a school must find its justification in the effort of the school to realize the objectives set up. The socialized school accepts as its general objective the training of the oncoming citizens for social efficiency. What this involves may perhaps be most adequately presented in a brief space in the following table.

TABLE 74.—*Social efficiency: The objective of modern education.*

Phases of efficiency.	Ingredients essential to social efficiency.			Planes of efficiency.		
	Knowl- edge.	Habits and skills.	Attit- tudes.	Ability to maintain one's self regardless of how it affects others.	Ability to maintain one's self and not in- terfere with welfare of others.	Ability to maintain one's self and aid progress of others.
1. Vital: Health and physical develop- ment.....						
2. Vocational: Agricultural, industrial, com- mercial, professional, and do- mestic.....						
3. Avocational: Right use of individual and so- cial leisure.....						
4. Civic: American and world citizenship.....						
5. Moral: Morality and religion, including social service.....						

As the above table shows, involved in the large objective of the school's work are five phases of efficiency—health or vital, vocational, avocational or leisure, civic, moral, and religious. These descriptive terms are so concrete that detailed explanation is unnecessary.

Concrete and satisfactory programs for the development of each of these phases of efficiency must be established in light of the ingredients entering into each of them. These the table shows to be knowledge, habits and skills, and attitudes. Further discussion as to the content of this terminology is unnecessary.

Not only must we strive earnestly to provide for all phases of the child's efficiency and for the ingredients essential to efficiency, but educators generally must be guided in reference to the thoroughness and efficiency of their work by a knowledge of the different planes of efficiency on which oncoming citizens may stop in their development. Manifestly, the ideal which should guide education is to raise every citizen possible to the highest plane of efficiency.

The basis for measuring the extent to which the guiding objectives in the schools of South Dakota meet the requirements of the objectives of the socialized school is the data gathered from the State course of study, the outlines issued in certain towns and cities to supplement the State course of study, and the bulletins issued by the superintendents of schools and the supervisory staffs in directing the execution of the course of study. The State course of study implies the aims or objectives in teaching the various subjects to a greater extent than it states them specifically, although this course

compares favorably with the average course of study in its attention to defining aims and objectives in the subjects of geography, arithmetic, language and grammar, and physiology and hygiene. No course of study as yet has attempted to show with reference to each subject just what its teaching should contribute to the establishment of each phase of efficiency—vital, vocational, avocational, civic, moral, and religious; nor has any course of study yet attempted to indicate just what knowledge, just what habits and skills, and just what attitudes should result from the teaching of each subject in the curriculum. Evidently, a more exact definition of the phases of efficiency to be ministered to through teaching and of the ingredients to be established is desirable.

The State course of study in physiology and hygiene is a fairly satisfactory model from the standpoint of stated aims in teaching of what all courses of study should do. Even it, however, is not sufficiently detailed and specific. Preceding the directions for the work of each year, however, the aim is indicated. The following sentences will illustrate: The aim in the work of the fourth year is—

to strengthen the child in habits of right living; to make him act automatically in the matter of caring for himself; and to give him understanding, in so far as he is capable of knowing, about the necessity of precaution in every case of danger; to correlate the work in this subject with the work in every other subject in such way that there may be no sharp distinctions.

The aim of the sixth year work is—

to have the pupil get an idea of some of the laws of nature that help to maintain health.

The aim of the eighth year work is—

to fix definitely in the mind of the pupil the real value of a sound body and a sound mind. The pupil should be taught that good health is the best thing in the world; that his success in life will depend largely upon his ability to do his part of the world's work, and that his ability to do his part will depend entirely upon his physical and mental fitness.

The aims as stated are not quoted in full, but the sentences quoted are illustrative of the definiteness with which the aims in the teaching of physiology and hygiene are indicated.

The failure of a course of study to state aims adequately may be somewhat satisfactorily atoned for if the concrete results expected are fully illustrated. In this respect, however, the State course of study is lacking. It does this most adequately in the subjects of arithmetic and language and grammar. Even in those subjects, however, the results expected should be detailed much more fully, and illustrations easily understood by the average teacher should be provided.

The failure of a course of study to indicate aims and objectives in accordance with the terminology employed in the table above may

be fairly adequately met by indicating objective standards, such as the application of the standard tests in arithmetic, writing, spelling, geography, language, and silent reading has made it possible to establish. The limitation in relying upon the indication of objective standards is that they are not available for all the subjects and are not applicable to all phases of the subject matter in any subject, nor to all of the outcomes essential to social efficiency. The State course of study, however, has not supplemented its failure to state aims and objectives adequately by the indication of objective standards. Only one city reports having supplemented the State course of study by indicating objective standards as a guide to its teachers. Undoubtedly, however, in the immediate future, as the result of the initiative on the part of superintendents and teachers and as the result of the cooperative research work done by the Northern Normal and Industrial School, tentative objective standards will be available in many of the towns and cities for the guidance of teachers in their work.

The subject matter of the socialized school.—The second essential of the socialized school is an appropriate body of subject matter and an appropriate body of opportunities and activities through which the objectives of the school may be realized. Many careful and extended studies of the last two years have made it clear that only those materials which have large value in relation to the outcomes sought through education should be retained in the curriculum. The criticisms of the content of the State course of study appearing elsewhere apply here, and need not be repeated.

It can not be considered, however, that satisfactory progress has been made in the socialization of the curriculum for the towns and cities of South Dakota until all obsolete, functionless subject matter has been eliminated therefrom, nor until such enrichments of the curriculum have been made as modern progress in all fields of knowledge make possible. The various studies (particularly those in Part I of the fourteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth yearbooks of the National Society for the Study of Education, being the reports of the National Education Association Committee on Economy of Time pertaining to minimal essentials in the elementary school subjects) are available as guides in determining the subject matter which should be taught in the various elementary school subjects. It can not be considered that any final studies have been made, but no course of study which is not formulated with due regard for the recommendations in the efforts above referred to—to formulate minimal essentials—can properly be considered to be socialized to the extent even that is possible with present knowledge.

From the standpoint of desirable differentiations in the upper grades, the curriculum in the towns and cities of South Dakota is

hardly satisfactory. As was pointed out elsewhere, no community can properly be said to have a junior high school. The opportunities offered, with slight exceptions, in three cities to the pupils in the upper grades are the traditional seventh and eighth grade course of study in use in all schools throughout the United States.

Provision should be made for enabling the pupils of these grades to elect work in keeping not only with their abilities and dominant interests, but in keeping with their immediate educational and vocational intentions. In view of the varying differences in children, provision is not made adequately by the traditional uniform course of study.

The standards of the socialized school.—The third essential of the socialized school is the standards needed for guidance in all the details of the school. These standards are of three kinds, at least: (1) Those pertaining to discipline; (2) those pertaining to equipment; and (3) those pertaining to attainment in work.

The standards of discipline to be maintained and the methods by which they are to be enforced are not discussed in the State course of study, nor in any of the bulletins of any of the superintendents included in this study. These standards can only be judged, therefore, upon the basis of the schools visited. Of the 107 teachers seen at work in their classrooms by the observer, there were but five cases of poor discipline, in which the school was "running riot." In the other schools there was what is called "good order." The pupils were quiet and were busy about their work. The number of schools visited, however, in which there was evident freedom and naturalness on the part of the pupils was small. Predominantly, the children were holding their hands or in other ways securing the permission of the teacher to do common, ordinary things which they ought to be trained to do without interfering with the teacher's other duties, such as passing to the dictionary, passing to the wastebasket, consulting the library, consulting the atlas or wall map, and so on. A school could hardly be considered to have progressed very far in the matter of establishing freedom and independence and self-control in which the teacher stands guard, applying to every act of every child the standard which she has set to be maintained.

In the matter of equipment standards, the observer was unable to secure from any superintendent a standard list by which equipment was supplied to the schoolrooms of any grade or to buildings of any size or to schools of any particular type. As a guide to teachers and principals in making requisition for materials needed, a standard equipment list should be developed. The following standard building equipment list in use in a certain city will illustrate the meaning intended here.

STANDARD BUILDING EQUIPMENT.

Building.

Set of relief maps:	Balances (scales).
a. World (4 A, 7 A).	Reference books—New educational reference work.
b. United States—2 (4 A, 6 B).	Unabridged dictionary, to be kept in highest grade room.
c. North America (3 A, 4 B, 5-B, 6 B).	Foster's history chart.
d. Europe—2.	Globe.
e. South America (4 A, 6 A).	Hectograph.
f. Kansas (3d, 6 B).	Paper cutter.
g. Asia (4 A, 7 B).	Pencil sharpener.
h. Africa (7 A).	Printing outfit.
i. North America—physical.	Sand table for each floor.
j. South America.	Scissors—2 sets.
k. Europe—physical.	

Grades.

First: Kindergarten chairs, pair of large scissors, sand table.	Sixth: Collegiate dictionary.
Second: Pair of large scissors.	Seventh: Collegiate dictionary.
Fourth: Academic dictionary.	Eighth: Government map of Territorial divisions.
Fifth: Academic dictionary.	

As was pointed out in the discussion of the course of study, the attainment expected in work is not specified in the towns and cities of South Dakota in terms of objective standards, nor are concrete illustrations given of the type of results which teachers are expected to secure from grade to grade in the various subjects.

Methods of managing and teaching the socialized school.—The fourth essential in the socialized school is appropriate methods of managing and teaching. In the matter of management, the business world has thoroughly demonstrated that the keynote in any enterprise promising success is cooperation. The most progressive school systems generally have likewise come to this point of view and are modifying their attack accordingly. There is no longer any place for the "know it all," the autocrat, or the martinet in education any more than in business or government. In all of the school's problems or undertakings the cooperative attack must be employed.

The extent to which superintendents and principals in the town and cities of South Dakota work from this standpoint was only to be gathered from the reports regarding meetings held and from personal conferences with them. As was noted in the discussion of the course of study, the teachers participated in the development of these courses in at least three towns and cities studied. There was internal evidence that they had made contributions in two other cities. The following notes left with the teacher following the superintendent's visit evidence a proper cooperative relation.

QUESTIONS ON THE ASSIGNMENT.

1. Am I careful in my assignments to state very definitely just what is to be done, and how?

2. Are my assignments made orally or written on the blackboard so that a misunderstanding is impossible?
3. Is a misunderstanding of the assignment ever allowed to pass as an excuse for not having the lesson?
4. Do I outline the next lesson, showing the main things to be noted, or is the pupil's first introduction to each lesson obtained from his own study of the textbook?
5. Is my assignment of the next lesson made by topic or by pages?
6. Do my assignments to supplementary reading state the book, the chapters, the pages, or is a topic given, leaving pupils to find it where they can?
7. Do I prepare the advance lesson before it is assigned?
8. Do I assign merely the amount to be studied for the next lesson, or do I show the pupils how to study it?

QUESTIONS ON THE TEACHER'S PREPARATION.

1. Do I outline the thought of the text on paper as I study it?
2. Does anything short of a complete understanding of the topic satisfy me?
3. Do I make use of (1) the reason, (2) hearing, and (3) sight to fix the idea in my mind?
4. Do I stop to think out illustrations and examples as I study?
5. Do I swallow whole what I read or do I insist upon evidence and proof?
6. Do I study while I study, or merely "spend time on my lesson"?
7. Do I study a subject from the point of view of teaching it?
8. Do I study, knit, talk, and eat peanuts at the same time?
9. Do I take time to think over and digest what I have studied?

The responses of teachers, principals, and superintendents in reference to cooperative relations with the public are indicative of good attack from this standpoint. The following table shows the cooperative activities, together with the distribution of the same, as reported by 593 elementary school-teachers in the towns and cities of South Dakota:

TABLE 75.—Cooperative activities in 593 elementary schools in South Dakota towns and cities.

Type of activities in which schools cooperated with the community.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Junior Red Cross organization.....	141	53	194
Food conservation.....	143	37	180
Thrift stamps and baby bonds.....	60	28	88
Gardens.....	63	9	72
Donations to Red Cross.....	33	33
Red Cross work.....	146	80	226
Sold Red Cross Christmas seals.....	46	27	73
Assisted in Y. M. C. A. drive or contributed.....	24	3	27
Red Cross members.....	25	25
Contributions to relief funds.....	17	1	18
Less candy, etc.....	3	3	6
Soldier's Liberty fund.....	7	7
Y. W. C. A. contributions.....	3	3
Assisted Liberty loan drive.....	11	11
Temperance.....	17	8	25
Own Liberty bonds.....	15	15
Subscription to local funds.....	67	16	83
Clean-up work.....	14	7	21
Taped shovels.....	4	4
Nothing.....	12	12
Not reporting.....	20	20
	871	200	1,161

One superintendent reports the following community activities aided by the schools: Adult Red Cross work (participated in by teachers and pupils), Junior Red Cross auxiliaries, elaborate program furnished for municipal Christmas tree, high-school boys were enlisted in farm work, everything possible was done to further the food-conservation propaganda, thrift stamps, baby bonds, and Liberty bonds were sold through the schools, "Tag your shovel day" was observed, flower and vegetable gardens were planted throughout the community by the pupils, vacant lots were cleaned of rubbish and cultivated. Doubtless this report duplicates certain items reported by the teachers from the city concerned in the table quoted above, but the list of undertakings in which the schools have co-operated with the community is presented as typical.

Evidence of the socialization of the methods of teaching and conducting the school activities of the children was altogether too limited. Too generally the school work visited evidenced that the children had studied paragraphs, pages, and chapters in their textbooks and were reciting them to the teacher rather than discussing them and sharing them with each other. For illustration, the observer listened to a 25-minute language lesson in a fifth grade in which the children attempted to define and illustrate and otherwise talk learnedly about monosyllables, dissyllables, trisyllables, and polysyllables. When the lesson had finished two or three of the brighter pupils understood intellectually what they had been talking about. Of course, even that mastery would soon pass, as the pupils would find the information of absolutely no practical use and therefore would have no occasion to employ it as would be necessary to fix it in memory.

In the matter of spelling also, although the common ordinary words in the examination papers and composition papers were found to be misspelled, in schoolroom after schoolroom the children were trying to acquire the spelling of such words as the following, taken from a fifth-grade assignment: Demeanor, Phrixus, Colchis, devour, execrable, infancy, bug-bear, delectable, Actes, potentate, dethrone, obeisance, chiron, propriety, execute, solicit, rejoin, vacan. In the seventh grade the children were not only to master the spelling of the following list but were to be able to write each word and mark it correctly discriptically during the spelling lesson: Authentic, ominous, vicissitude, venerable, maimed, current, commodities, farthing, species, tankards, billion, buccanera.

In only 11 classes did the children talk with and to each other, asking questions of each other, differing with each other, and offering additional information on the topic or subject the child leading the discussion had reported upon. In two of these schools the children had a variety of books at their disposal and were discussing

a topic pertaining to the coal famine, which prevailed at that time, with considerable naturalness and ease. In seven lower-grade classes the children were engaged in playing games with naturalness and enthusiasm, being employed in the teaching of phonetics, spelling, and good usage of language.

The reports from teachers show that there was some attention given to combining rooms as a means of enabling one class to share its good work with one or more other classes. The following table shows the distribution of this tendency:

TABLE 76.

Rooms combined in school work.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Regularly.....	167	49	216
Not at all.....	56	40	96
Occasionally.....	120	44	164
Not reported.....	84	33	117
	427	166	593

The following table shows the types of program activities participated in by the rooms and the teachers of the towns and cities reporting:

TABLE 77.—Types of program activities.

Types of program activities participated in by rooms.	Teachers in cities of 2,000 population or over.	Teachers in cities having a population of from 1,000 to 2,000.	Total.
Special day programs.....	205	52	257
Red Cross.....	17	21	38
Music.....	4	4	8
Exhibits.....	2	2	4
Public entertainments.....	109	29	138
Parents meetings.....	107	6	113
Regular assemblies.....	18	1	19
Reporting none.....	37	13	50
Not reporting.....	29	48	77
	517	176	693

One city supplied the observer with a number of programs which had been prepared for the purpose of enabling all of the grades participating to share with each other their good work. The following typical program is quoted as illustrative of the type of thing which should become more common:

OPENING PROGRAM.

Patriotic song.....	School.
Rhythms and games.....	Kindergarten.
Slumber song }.....	Girls' chorus.
Boating song }.....	
Danish dance of greeting.....	First-grade girls.
Halloween song.....	Seventh grade.
Washing the clothes }.....	Intermediate grades.
Reap the flax }.....	
Halloween parade.....	First-grade boys.
Sailor song.....	Boys' chorus.
Halloween.....	Second grade.
The story of a seed.....	Third and fourth grades.
Story of the Boston Tea Party.....	Doris Willard.

Boston Tea Party.

(Characters listed with names of pupils taking part.)

The Star Spangled Banner..... School.

The following program was supplied by one of the smaller towns reporting:

Folk Dances.

First grade, 1. Bohemian; 2. Children's Polka.....	Miss Mangan.
Second grade, Bickling.....	Miss Waugh.
Third grade, Bourree.....	Miss Krause.
Fourth grade, Ace of Diamonds.....	Miss Curry.
Fifth Grade, Rustic Reel.....	Miss Spensley.
Sixth and seventh grades, Maypole Dance.....	Miss Mangan.
Song, "Old Glory".....	Chorus.

National Songs and Living Pictures.

1. America, "The Melting Pot".....	Miss Waugh.
2. "Dixie".....	Miss Waugh.
3. "Columbia, the Gem of the Ocean".....	Miss Waugh.
4. "When Johnny Comes Marching Home Again".....	Miss Waugh.
5. "Yankee Doodle".....	Miss Curry.
6. "The Girl I Left Behind Me".....	Mrs. Scott.
7. "Hail Columbia".....	Mrs. Scott.
8. "The Star Spangled Banner".....	Mrs. Scott.

It should be remarked that recently erected buildings in at least five cities provide special facilities for promoting meetings of the entire school in assembly exercises. Evidently, teachers and principals have not had sufficient training in their normal school and university courses to show them the value of making use of these provisions and to equip them in ways of making profitable use of such facilities. Reports indicate that five superintendents are particularly anxious to provide facilities and equipment and in other ways en-

courage the social meetings of the school as well as encourage the use of the school by the patrons and by civic organizations.

Measuring results of school activities.—The fifth essential of the socialized school is the securing of results which approximate the ends set up for realization. The administrative plans must provide for the regular, systematic, and scientific checking of the results which the schools are producing. This aspect of the work is not thoroughly provided for in any town or city school system in South Dakota. However, superintendents and principals are to be commended for their endeavors to cooperate with agencies in the university or normal schools which seek to evaluate the results secured through the application of standard tests.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

1. The law should provide for the responsible participation of the superintendent of schools in the making of the annual report, "financial as well as educational, of all of the schools." This report is now made by the clerk.

2. In accordance with modern practice, higher qualifications than are now required under the law should be enforced upon persons aspiring to be superintendents of town and city schools. In South Dakota, in addition to successful experience, the A. B. degree or its equivalent should be required.

3. The compulsory education law should be strengthened so that if a child is instructed outside of a public school, the persons instructing shall possess qualifications equivalent to those required of teachers in the public schools.

4. All boards of education should transact their business without committees, except as special and temporary committees may be appointed to do specific pieces of work.

5. It would make for dignity and efficiency in the transaction of educational business if all boards were required to provide a public school office for the superintendents of schools and transact all school business there.

6. The law should define elementary schools (grades 1 to 6), intermediate (junior high) schools, and secondary schools (senior high), and provide for encouraging the development of intermediate schools.

7. Unless the provision of the law that all school-building plans shall be approved by the State superintendent's office will effectually reach the improvements needed in school plants, the law should specify lighting, ventilating, seating, gymnasium, auditorium, and fire-protection standards.

8. The law should definitely encourage the provision of educational and recreational advantages during the vacation season.

9. A law should be enacted requiring all boards of education to file with the State superintendent a copy of the printed rules and regulations governing the schools they control.

10. Provision should be made to insure the use of standard report and record forms, including the use of cumulative record cards in keeping the records of pupils.

11. The State course of study should be issued to towns and cities in such form as to encourage local initiative in modifying it to adopt it to local needs.

12. There should be State legislation regulating the minimum salaries teachers may be paid. Advancement in equipment up to a good standard should be compulsory and should be rewarded by annual salary increments.

13. Provision should be made through State and, perhaps, local communities to provide special facilities (1) for helping retarded children and for preventing retardation, and (2) for giving proper education to atypical children. If necessary, superintendents should be required to make a report annually showing pupil distribution by ages and grades that the extent of retardation, normality, and acceleration may be studied at least once a year.

Chapter XVI.

THE HIGH-SCHOOL SYSTEM.

Section I. THE PROBLEMS OF THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

The high schools of South Dakota are for the most part small, with few pupils and few teachers. They are widely scattered, but the great majority lie in the eastern third of the State. They are not recognized in the State law, so far as the distribution of funds is concerned. There is no high-school inspector. There are conflicting laws regarding the certification of teachers, forgotten clauses concerning the content of the program of studies, provision for some types of high schools that do not even exist.

That the present system of high-school instruction is not all that it should be is indicated in the following array of facts, favorable and unfavorable:

(1) *South Dakota has a smaller per cent of its possible high-school pupils enrolled in high school than any other State in the north-central or western group, New Mexico alone excepted.*—If a person takes the data, for 1915, determines the number of children in the States 15 to 19 years of age, finds the per cent of the total population enrolled in public high schools, and then finds the ratio of this per cent to the number 15 to 19 years of age, he arrives at the per cent of those enrolled of those 15 to 19, which may be assumed as a fair measure of those who might be enrolled. If it excludes those under 15 who may be in high school, it includes many over 17 who have graduated. The facts are given in the following table.

TABLE 78.—Per cent of population in high schools, North Central and Western States.

States.	Per cent of total population enrolled in public secondary schools.	Per cent of total population between the ages of 15 and 19 inclusive.	Per cent of population 15 to 19 enrolled in public secondary schools.
California.....	2.39	8.2	29.1
Oregon.....	2.07	9.0	23.0
Kansas.....	2.26	10.1	22.7
Washington.....	1.86	8.7	21.4
Iowa.....	2.18	10.2	21.2
Nebraska.....	2.18	10.4	20.9
Colorado.....	1.73	8.9	19.4
Utah.....	1.92	10.0	19.2
Indiana.....	1.94	10.2	19.0
Michigan.....	1.78	9.6	18.5
Idaho.....	1.71	9.3	18.3
Minnesota.....	1.74	9.7	17.9
Nevada.....	1.14	6.4	17.8
Montana.....	1.36	7.9	17.7
Ohio.....	1.64	9.8	16.7
Wisconsin.....	1.64	10.1	16.2
Illinois.....	1.40	9.5	14.7
Wyoming.....	1.10	7.9	14.0
Missouri.....	1.33	10.5	13.1
Arizona.....	1.07	8.5	12.6
North Dakota.....	1.23	9.8	12.5
South Dakota.....	1.24	10.0	14.4
New Mexico.....	.69	9.9	7.0

(2) *South Dakota stands well in the number of schools and of teachers.*—In 1916 South Dakota had one high school for every 3,290 people in the State, and one high-school teacher for every 970 people. The comparison with certain States is as follows:

TABLE 79.—South Dakota and other States compared as to schools and teachers.

States.	Number of schools in 1916.	Number of teachers in 1916.	Population in 1910.	Population—	
				Per school.	Per teacher.
Nebraska.....	423	1,596	1,192,214	2,810	730
Iowa.....	696	2,891	2,224,771	3,600	770
Kansas.....	450	2,094	1,696,949	3,700	810
Minnesota.....	279	2,288	2,075,708	7,440	907
North Dakota.....	173	629	577,056	3,330	915
Indiana.....	598	2,901	2,700,870	4,500	939
South Dakota.....	177	607	585,888	3,290	970
Wisconsin.....	312	2,224	2,333,800	7,480	1,040
Michigan.....	410	2,602	2,810,173	6,890	1,070
Ohio.....	705	4,176	4,767,121	5,970	1,140
Missouri.....	612	2,240	3,263,335	6,440	1,470

(3) *South Dakota has more square miles per public high school than any other State in the north central group.*—This, of course, means that while there is no great difference in the number of schools per unit of population, there is a large problem in regard to the size of the State and the sparseness of population. This emphasizes the problems of centralization of control, of inspection, and supervision.

TABLE NO. 5—Square miles per high school, North Central States.

	High schools, ¹	Area of State (sq. miles)	Square miles per high school.
Ohio	798	41,010	51
Indiana	598	36,454	61
Illinois	658	56,965	86
Michigan	410	57,980	141
Wisconsin	312	56,066	180
Minnesota	279	84,692	304
Iowa	696	56,117	91
Missouri	542	69,429	126
North Dakota	173	70,817	408
South Dakota	177	77,517	438
Nebraska	423	77,450	183
Kansas	450	82,158	183

¹ Number of schools reporting to Bureau of Education in 1915-16.

The study which follows will take up a few of the problems which these small, scattered, and poorly-attended high schools are forced to meet. In general the problems are those which pertain to all the schools, not to a few; and they will be treated from the point of view of the State as a whole. These are (1) the problem of the program of studies, (2) the problem of adequate supervision, (3) the problem of State aid, (4) the problem of a proper teaching force, (5) the problem of economy in time of war, and (6) the problem of equalization of opportunity. In certain features each individual school will be compared with others.

Section 2. THE PROBLEM OF THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES.

So far as the State law is concerned the high schools of South Dakota are left practically free in their choice of subject matter. There is one clause in the law which prescribes that schools must teach the humane treatment of animals and that no experiments upon live animals may be tried in schools. Moral instruction is also required in every school in the State; this instruction to be given in truthfulness, temperance, purity, public spirit, patriotism, respect for honest labor, obedience to parents, and due deference to old age. Physiology and hygiene must also be taught with special reference to alcohol and narcotics, "as thoroughly as arithmetic and geography." All further regulation of the program of studies comes from the power given to the State superintendent of public instruction of inspecting all high schools and accrediting them to institutions of higher learning. This means that the State superintendent has the power to say to a school that a certain subject shall or shall not be taught at a given time. The school may obey or not as it sees fit, the penalty for failure to comply being the removal of the school's name from the accredited list, with the loss of prestige that goes with it. Only 86 out of 200 schools were accredited in 1916-17.

The regulations for the program of studies for the accredited high schools are as follows:

Constants: The constants or required subjects of an approved high-school course shall be—

	Units.
English I, II, and IV as defined in the high-school manual.....	3
American history and government.....	1
Algebra, to quadratics.....	1
Plane geometry.....	1
Science, one year's work in any of the following: (1) Physics, (2) chemistry, (3) botany, (4) zoology, (5) physiography.....	1

Electives: The electives of the course shall be—

Latin.....	4	Physiology.....	½
German.....	4	General science.....	½
French.....	2	Advanced algebra.....	½
English III.....	1	Solid geometry.....	½
Ancient history.....	1	Trigonometry.....	½
Medieval and modern history.....	1	Physical training.....	½
English history.....	1	Public speaking.....	½
Economics.....	½	Vocal music.....	½
Physics.....	1	Manual training.....	(²)
Chemistry.....	1	Domestic science.....	(²)
Botany.....	1	Agriculture.....	(²)
Zoology.....	1	Commercial branches.....	(²)
Physiography.....	1	Pedagogy.....	(²)

A one-year high school shall offer English I, elementary algebra, and two electives; a two-year school shall offer English I and II, algebra, and geometry, and four electives; a three-year school shall offer six constants, including those offered for the two-year schools; while a four-year accredited school shall offer all of the constants and not less than eight of the electives. Credit will not be allowed for American history and government, physics, chemistry, or trigonometry if given before the third year of the course, nor for economics if offered before the fourth year.

What an effective high-school program should offer.—An efficient high-school program of studies should give to every pupil a maximum of knowledge and training which will be of real service in the life that he is to lead. This implies at least three points of emphasis. The pupil must be trained to earn a living, so that he will not be economically dependent upon his graduation from school. The pupil must be a good member of society, which implies that he must have good health, must be a loyal, patriotic, and public-spirited citizen, that he must be moral and upright, and that he must be able rationally to make good use of his leisure period. The pupil must have the most for his time in school. The program of studies must be adapted to the needs of the boy or girl who is going to drop out, quite as well

¹ In a four-year school only.

² As defined in high-school manual.

as to the needs of the graduates: There are therefore at least three elements which a well-worked-out course of study should provide for: (1) Vocational direction, (2) cultural training, and (3) provision for those who drop out.

If a high school were equipped with a large teaching force and with boys and girls, all of whom were going into the same profession and all of whom were to remain in school full four years, it would be quite possible to have an efficient program of studies. This, however, is not possible in the high schools of South Dakota. Pupils are dropping out all along the four years of the course. A wide variety of occupations are followed by the graduates of these schools. Few teachers and narrow lines of work are the rule. The efficient program of studies for this State will therefore be the best compromise between the three elements, probable stay in school, probable occupation of the pupils, and the ability and capacity of the teachers to do the needed work.

The size of the schools of South Dakota, with their importance as shown by the number of teachers employed and the number of pupils attending, is given in the following table:

TABLE 81.—Size of the schools in South Dakota.

Number of teachers.	Number of schools employing.	Percentage of schools.	Cumulative percentage. ¹	Number of pupils attending these schools.	Percentage of pupils.	Cumulative percentage. ¹
		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
1.....	22	14	14	252	2.5	2.5
2.....	42	27	41	991	11.0	13.5
3.....	31	21	62	1,436	15.5	29.0
4.....	17	11	73	975	10.5	39.5
5.....	11	7	80	648	7.5	47.0
1-5.....	126	80	80	4,302	47.0	47.0
6-10.....	21	13	93	2,157	23.0	70.0
11-15.....	6	4	97	1,206	13.0	83.0
16-20.....	2	1	98	692	7.5	90.5
21-25.....	1	1	99	324	3.5	94.0
26-30.....	1	1	100	572	6.0	100.0

¹ Includes all given above each number.

These data are very significant when considering the possibilities of the program of studies. Nearly one-third of the high-school pupils in nearly two-thirds of the schools have but three teachers, including the principal, to instruct them. Four-fifths of the schools instruct nearly one-half of the pupils of the State with a teaching staff of five teachers or less, including the principal.

The possibilities for real vocational training.—It is generally recognized that real training calculated to provide efficiency in a particular vocation is no easy task for the school. The Smith-Hughes Act and its administration by the Federal board, have shown that a great amount of practical experience in the work in question

under shop or farm or home conditions is necessary to this training. The numerous rules and regulations that are being laid down show that it takes special training upon the part of the teacher, a special attitude upon the part of the school, special equipment, and much time. Vocational education is quite possible in some of the larger high schools in South Dakota. Here there are enough pupils, enough teachers, and equipment to carry out the enterprise successfully. In many of the smaller schools the only possibility would be that there might be enough pupils (nearly all) going into some one occupation, so that the entire attention of the school might be turned in that direction.

If the boys and girls entering in 1918 have anything like similar experiences to the boys and girls who have been in school since September, 1914, the conditions given below under Groups I, II, and III may be expected.

The following arbitrary classification was adopted on the basis of the returns received: Group I, high schools reporting enrollments of 110 or more; Group II, high schools reporting enrollments of 50 to 109, inclusive; Group III, enrollments of 49 or less.

Group I.—Of 100 boys entering high school, 50 will leave before the close of the fourth year, 27 will go on to college, 14 will go into trade or industry, 13 will go on the farm, and 13 into business. Others will go into scattering occupations.

Of 100 girls, nearly half will go on to school or college, about one-fifth will stay at home or marry immediately after leaving school, about 15 will go into offices, and 23 will teach school.

Group II.—Of 100 boys and girls entering school, 40 will leave school before graduation.

Of 100 boys entering high school, 26 will go on to college, 25 will go on the farm, 10 into business, 6 into teaching, and 8 into trade or industry.

Of 100 girls entering school, 30 will go on to college, 26 will remain at home or marry immediately after leaving school, 5 will go into business, and 34 will teach immediately after leaving school, only half of the latter remaining to graduate.

Group III.—Of 100 pupils entering school, 60 will leave before completing four years' work. Part of this is due to three and two-year schools, but this is taken account of in the data given above.

Of 100 boys entering, 24 will go on to college, 35 will go on the farm, 7 into business, 3 into teaching, and 6 into trade or industry.

Of 100 girls, 35 will go to college, 19 will remain at home or marry, 10 will go into office work, while 29 will teach.

In all three groups college preparation is the type of work pursued by the greatest number. For the boys, commercial training and agriculture rank next in order, the commercial training being of greater importance in the larger schools, agriculture in the smaller. For the girls, preparation for teaching claims the largest number, next to college preparation. It is unfortunate for the rural schools of South Dakota that nearly one-third of the high-school girls teach

without further preparation, and that one-half of these leave school before graduation.

The following is the distribution of pupils taking courses in these high schools during the first semester of 1917-18. The number after each subject indicates the number of pupils who have registered for a course in that subject, one pupil registering for two courses in the same subject counting as two:

TABLE 82.—Number of pupils registered in courses in the various subjects, fall semester, 1917-18, arranged in groups, for 157 schools.

Subject	Group I (19 schools)	Group II (46 schools)	Group III (103 schools)
Total number pupils enrolled in school	3,975	2,631	2,641
Number of registrations in college preparatory subjects:			
English	4,481	2,435	2,193
Science	3,154	1,516	1,316
Mathematics	2,821	1,351	1,392
Latin	1,189	982	688
Modern languages	1,017	516	514
History	1,889	1,309	1,644
Registration in vocational subjects:			
Commerce	1,511	492	413
Manual arts	1,067	508	180
Household arts	1,787	503	508
Agriculture	182	86	52
Teaching	96	131	50

The subjects offered by the high schools are given in the following table:

TABLE 83.—Subjects offered by South Dakota high schools.

Subject	Group I (19 cities)		Group II (Rural)		Group III (22 cities)	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
English	19	100	33	100	82	100
Mathematics	19	100	33	100	81	95.4
Science	19	100	33	100	79	92.7
History	19	100	33	100	75	91.1
Latin	19	100	27	81.8	55	67.0
Modern languages	18	91.7	25	75.8	49	59.7
Commerce	12	63.2	15	45.4	26	31.7
Manual arts	15	78.0	16	48.5	7	8.5
Household arts	17	89.1	16	48.4	8	9.7
Agriculture	10	52.6	5	15.1	8	9.7
Teaching	4	21.0	3	9.0	3	3.6

Vocational training in the larger high schools.—It is quite possible for the larger high schools of South Dakota to give real vocational training. It takes money. It takes expensive and well-trained teachers. It takes equipment. The large enrollment in commerce is justified by the experience of past classes. Nevertheless, when past experience shows that about the same number of high-school boys enter trade and industry and agriculture as do commercial pursuits, it is not right that over 1,500 shall be enrolled in commerce classes, over 1,000 in manual arts, and less than 200 in agriculture, particu-

larly as South Dakota is preeminently agricultural. In a similar way, only 96 girls are taking work in teacher training, while 25 per cent teach without further preparation. A few classes in methods of teaching the elementary-school subjects, with opportunity for observation and a limited amount of practice in the local schools, would serve to raise professional problems for these young girls which would tend to stimulate a better professional attitude and have the ultimate result of building up attendance at the normal schools.¹ For the schools of Group I, therefore, the committee recommends that—

- (1) The emphasis being placed upon commercial work be continued.
- (2) The emphasis being placed upon home economics be continued and that more work be given, if possible.
- (3) The work in industrial arts and agriculture be greatly increased.
- (4) The facilities for teacher training be increased. That four-year accredited high schools organize teacher-training departments in a fifth or graduate year, as recommended in Chapter XIX of this report.

For the schools of Group II, ranging in size from 50 to 109, it is difficult to recommend much vocational training. We find that at present about one-third as many are registered for commerce, home economics, and manual arts as are registered for college preparatory subjects. This is necessarily due to the size of the schools and the constricted condition of the program of studies. It is strange, however, that these subjects should be so popular, when few go into commerce or industry and when more than one-fourth of the boys go on the farm and more than one-third of the girls teach. For the schools of Group II, when it is at all possible to add work in vocational training, the committee recommends—

- (1) That the facilities for the teaching of agriculture be greatly increased, even at the expense of commercial subjects.
- (2) That the facilities for teacher training be increased.
- (3) That home economics be further emphasized.

The schools of Group III, all with four teachers or less, half with two or one, represent a very difficult problem. Here, while the student bodies are small and equipment and apparatus meager, nevertheless the occupational features are quite distinct. More than one-third of the boys farm. More than one-third of the girls teach. Despite this fact, there are only 52 registrations in agriculture and 50 in teacher training out of 2,641 pupils. We can not pass over lightly the vocational responsibilities of these schools. Many of these small schools offer the only educational opportunities that are anywhere available for miles about. Nearly 30 per cent of the pupils go to these schools. They can not be neglected. The committee recommends that agriculture and home economics be empha-

¹ For details of teacher training in high schools, see Chapter XIX.

sized in the order named if any vocational education be attempted. This, of course, is doubtful in these small schools.

The possibilities for cultural training.—Certain responsibilities the high schools have in connection with earning a living. This we call vocational responsibility. Certain responsibilities have been thrust upon the high schools that have connection with no particular vocation. This we term cultural. The boys and girls that are turned out of the schools must be moral and upright. They must be loyal and patriotic, high-minded citizens of the United States, acquainted and practiced in their duties and quite as well familiar with their rights. They must be healthy and capable of caring for their physical welfare. They must be able to make good use of their leisure period, to read the best, sing the best, appreciate the best. These, coupled with good manners and a national and international rather than local point of view, mark the man or woman of culture. It is here that the great duty of the American high school lies. So long as the schools are small; so long as the teachers are few; so long as the boys and girls are unable to decide the particular line of work which they wish to follow; so long must vocational education be weak and comparatively inefficient. But no matter how efficient vocational education may in time grow to be, fundamental to it and far more important in the long run is the training that turns out men and women healthy, loyal, public spirited, moral, and capable of enjoyment. High-school work that is capable of producing these results must forever be encouraged.

This is of course the fundamental purpose of the college preparatory work. The English is to teach elegant and clear expression and to instill a love of the best. The sciences and history are there that the pupil may interpret life about him. Mathematics and language have their end here. The program of studies as it is at present outlined takes cognizance of this. Still, there is a phase of it that may be improved. The great ends of health, citizenship, morality, and the leisure period may be aimed at more directly and still may achieve college preparation.

The "core" of the program of studies as laid down is mathematics and English. Much of this is highly necessary, but not universally so. The great emphasis should be laid upon English, upon the social sciences (especially history and government), and upon the natural sciences (especially those relating to health). The school law recognizes health (narcotics and stimulants) and morality. Far more effective provision should be made to widen the scope of these provisions.

It is just possible that the problem of securing culture is not a curriculum problem. Some teachers can teach Latin so that all these

things come from it. Many more fail to do so. Some teach history so that patriotic citizens are produced. Many more fail to do so.

The school-teachers of South Dakota should firmly resolve that no student should leave the high school without having firmly fixed as a part of his equipment for the battle of life (1) high character; (2) good health and a knowledge of how to care for it; (3) a knowledge of our history and Government, of our habits and customs, of our ways of doing things, and a love of our country; (4) some acquaintance with the best things that have been thought and said; and (5) a well-mannered expression of life, in habits, dress, speech, writing, and in dealing with others. These gained, the people of South Dakota would reap ample reward for the expense of their high schools.

Provisions for the students who drop out.—It will be noted in the program of studies laid out by the State superintendent of public instruction that the three, two, and one year schools are only abbreviations of the four-year school. The assumption has been that students will go elsewhere to attend a full four-year high school after completing the shorter school course at home. It is evident, however, that this is not the case. Only 50 pupils in 100 finish the course as laid out. Half leave before graduation. Nevertheless, all are treated exactly as if they were going to graduate. No credit is given for American history before the third year, or for economics before the fourth.

Furthermore, the courses as outlined do not proceed upon the cycle system, which is designed to bring the work to a close, so that those forced to leave may not be left with a mere remnant of what they might have had.

The committee, therefore, recommends that:

- (1) The work in the schools of South Dakota be conducted with a view to the needs of those who drop out as well as to the needs of those who graduate.
- (2) The teachers be brought to realize that they are responsible in their high school for the final education of all the pupils that enter high schools.
- (3) The high-school inspector and State superintendent and State course of study recognize this principle, previously neglected.

The compromise between these principles.—Vocational education, cultural training, and provision for varying stay in school are each difficult enough to provide separately. It is quite impossible to achieve them all equally well in any system of schools, not to mention the small high schools of South Dakota. The following suggestions are submitted for the schools of varying size:

- (1) *The one-teacher high school.*—There are 22 of these schools. The curriculum varies from one to four years, the high school at Faith offering four years of work with but one teacher.

The committee recommends that the following standards be followed as nearly as conditions will permit:

- (a) That one-teacher high schools do not offer more than two years of work.
- (b) That teachers be permitted to teach eight periods a day, 30 minutes being deemed the proper length of period on account of the small number of pupils.
- (c) That English, science (including physiology and hygiene), civics and history, and agriculture and home economics be made the core of the curriculum.
- (d) That if there are more than 15 pupils enrolled, two teachers should be employed.

(2) *The two-teacher high school.*—There are 42 of these schools offering from one to four years of work in the 157 considered in this report. The committee recommends that the following standards be followed as closely as possible:

- (1) Two-teacher high schools should offer not more than three years of work.
- (2) The course of study should be adjusted both to those who are preparing for college and for those who are to stop school at the end of two years.
- (3) That the major portion of the course be designed for culture, centering about English, science (as above), and mathematics or languages.
- (4) That students not preparing for college be allowed to substitute practical arts for mathematics or language.
- (5) That teachers be allowed to teach seven 35-minute periods, the small size of classes allowing this.
- (6) The program of studies for the two-teacher high school would appear as follows:

First year.

COLLEGE PREPARATORY.

English.
History (government and politics).
Algebra.
Foreign language.

NONCOLLEGE PREPARATORY.

English.
History.
Elective.
Practical arts, agr., comm., or manual training.
Practical arts, home economics.

Second year.

English.
Science (hygiene and physiology).
Geometry.
Foreign language.

English.
Science.
Elective.
Practical arts, agr., comm., or manual training.
Practical arts, home economics.

This arrangement allows two teachers to carry two years' work, combines cultural with very meager vocational work, provides for those who drop out, and does all this on 12, or at the most, 14 separate classes.

(3) *The three-teacher high school.*—There are 31 three-teacher high schools, offering three and four years of work. The committee recommends, where three teachers are employed, that an additional year, or possibly two, comprising studies conforming to community needs, be superimposed upon the proposed two-teacher school. By suitable alternation this can be accomplished.

(4) *The four-teacher high school.*—There are 17 four-teacher high schools. Four years of work should be offered, the first two like the two-teacher school; the second two teachers strengthening the work of the last two years, and possibly teaching a class or two in the lower classes.

(5) *Five teachers and more.*—No specific suggestions can be made for each of the 42 high schools without intensive study. It is of course more easy for them to effect a suitable compromise between the three principles than for the smaller schools. The ultimate solution will depend upon a thoroughly competent high-school inspector who can not only travel about the State, but remain long enough in a school to study the situation and upon this as a basis give helpful counsel and advice.

Section 3. THE PROBLEM OF ADEQUATE SUPERVISION.

High-school education in the United States is in need of constant supervision. This is for the reason that the schools are relatively new, that the problems are so recent as to be imperfectly solved, and that the superintendent, principal, and teachers are unable to meet them efficiently without aid of some sort.

Supervision of the high school partakes of two kinds, supervision from within the school system and supervision from without. Improvement is needed in both kinds.

How to make supervision by the superintendent and principal adequate.—The high-school principal in South Dakota spends the major portion of his time in teaching. In the Group I schools (110 pupils and over) the median principal teaches three periods a day, the quartiles being two and four, respectively. In the high schools of smaller size the principal does more teaching, nearly as much as the teachers who are supposed to have little administrative work, the median principal teaching five periods daily, with four and six periods representing the quartiles.

It is not only true that the high-school principal in South Dakota spends a great deal of his time in teaching; he teaches many different subjects and is called upon to perform the difficult feat of preparing in many lines in which it is impossible for him to be a specialist. This is because of the need for readjustment of the program that comes from continual employment of new teachers.

Not only does the high-school principal spend a great deal of his time in teaching; he has many other duties which leave little time for the supervision of teaching. In the large schools the median principal spends 50 hours a week on school work. Of this time he spends $13\frac{1}{2}$ on teaching, $8\frac{1}{2}$ in preparation for teaching, and the remainder on varying duties. It is important to note that he only finds 3 hours a week to spend in the supervision of teaching. In the middle-sized schools of 50 hours' work, the median principal spends 18 hours teaching, 15 hours in preparation for teaching and correcting papers, but only 2 in the supervision of the teaching of the other members of his staff. The principal of the small school spends even less. It should further be noted that in very few of the schools is there any further supervision.

Consideration of the data brought out in other sections of this study, the immaturity of the teachers, their brief experience, and their continual moving from place to place, securing very brief tenure in office, shows the need of the supervision of their teaching. The principals of the high schools are employed to teach and to handle various administrative details, but the supervision of the teaching of the school is lost in the rush. This is a bad situation and should be remedied. The committee recommends:

(1) That the State superintendent of public instruction incorporate in his provisions for the accrediting of schools a clause to this effect: "No school shall be accredited as a four-year accredited high school in which the principal shall teach more than three periods daily. No school shall be accredited as a three-year accredited high school in which the principal shall teach more than four periods daily."

(2) That in the increased State inspection recommended below additional work upon the problems of supervision be carried on by the inspector of high schools, with the idea of training high-school principals to supervise; and that in the small high schools the inspector spend much of his time in the supervision of teaching and in meeting with the teachers.

(3) That emphasis be laid upon the problems of supervision of instruction in all agencies that work to that end.

How to make supervision by the State department of public instruction more adequate.—At present the system of accrediting and inspection of high schools in South Dakota is altogether inadequate. The law merely makes the provision that the State superintendent of public instruction or his assistant shall have the power to inspect these schools and accredit them to institutions of higher learning. No high-school inspector is provided, and no provision is made for traveling allowances adequate to the needs of the schools or the size of the State. As was stated above, the State superintendent has certain power over such schools as desire to be accredited, but only 78 schools so far have complied with the regulations of the central authorities in this regard.

The schools of the State are largely bunched in the eastern third of the State. In the middle and western parts the schools are far apart, scattered, and not at all adequate to the needs of the boys and girls of those sections. This is, of course, very largely due to the sparseness of the population. There is only one high school (usually small) for every 400 square miles of territory. The areas are smaller in the more densely populated portion of the State and much larger in the more sparsely populated sections. Anyone who has spent time in traveling in South Dakota will also realize that train connections are not of the best, and that it is not easy to go from place to place in the State.

The high-school plan of inspection at present in force consists in utilizing a small portion of the time of the deputy State superintendent. The size of the State, the sparseness of the schools, and the difficulties of travel make this poor provision altogether inadequate. With large schools and ordinary problems it would be all too little.

In times like these, however, such a force for inspection can not be excused. Bigger problems are confronting the schools of South Dakota than ever before. Some one has to check up the schools and see if the work is satisfactory. The schools must be inspected that reports may be verified. This will be particularly necessary when State aid to high schools will depend upon their performance of certain duties. But the high-school inspector that South Dakota needs will not be a mere inspector or reporter. He must be more than an educational police officer. In a real sense he must be the teacher of the teachers in the high schools of the State.

There should be at least two inspectors, one with the sole duty of traveling from one to another of the small high schools, say of 100 pupils or less. The inspector of smaller high schools would have as his duty the collection of data for the State superintendent and the verification of reports. He should assist with the content of the program of studies, advise with regard to the purchase of books, and the content and management of the library, observe classes and confer with teachers, possibly hold teachers' meetings to the betterment of the work of the school. Each year he should pick out one problem of a special nature to carry to the schools of the State, with the idea of effecting general improvement.

There should also be an inspector or supervisor of large high schools. He should be a specialist in school administration, to assist the superintendents in the larger cities. He also should be an investigator and teacher, not only an inspector.

The permanent betterment of the high-school system rests upon these inspectors and upon their influence upon the State. If they are mere clerks, their influence will be little. If they are teachers

and men of ability, whose decision will either bring or fail to bring State money to the schools, they will command the respectful attention of the high-school teachers. Both men should have good training and experience in problems of high-school administration. They should have had at least two years of graduate work. They should be able to fill professorships in the State university. Their salary should at least equal what is paid superintendents in the larger cities of the State. They should be appointed by the State board of education from a list of eligible candidates recommended by the superintendent of public instruction.

The proper program of studies, the proper content of each subject, the proper government of the school, good relationship in athletics, an adequate system of records and reports, improvement in teaching, and a realization of the true task of the small high school can only come from a *continuous intelligent survey* of the State, made from day to day by these men, and *continuous teaching* following as a result of their efforts.¹

Section 4. THE PROBLEMS OF STATE AID FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION.

It is probably true that the major portion of the power that the State governments in the United States have become accustomed to exercise over the local unit has been the result of subsidy from the Central Government. With the proceeds of the sale of public lands and with the remission to the local units of fines and poll taxes and other sources of income, the States found that they exercised a certain power over the governmental units within them.

This power has been used for three main purposes:

- (1) To return to the various individual governmental units their share of State money not otherwise distributed.
- (2) To help to equalize educational opportunity in various parts of the State, helping poor districts and sparsely populated sections to maintain good schools.
- (3) To inspire the school boards of the State to progress by granting sums of money for various types of improvements.

As was shown in Chapter IX, only the first of these is secured by the present system of distribution of funds. The State moneys are distributed to the counties, and from the counties to the districts, in proportion to the number of children within the county above 6 years of age and under 21. This distribution is made regardless of

¹ The reorganized State department of education (Chapter V) is planned with provision for a division of secondary schools, in charge of a high-school staff. While work of high-school inspection and professional supervision undoubtedly will require the full time of two experts to make it fully effective, it may be wise to ask for one full-time inspector only at the outset until other just as urgent needs in the State department shall have been met.

the kind of schooling offered, regardless of whether a high school is founded or not, and the only report that the district has to make comes from the report of the county superintendent. In return for the grant that is made, the State has very little power in saying how it shall be spent. If a district already has an elementary school and wishes to add a high school, no additional funds are given. If a seven months' term is provided in a certain school, and a nine months' term in another, no credit is given the school for the longer term. One school may have one teacher for 20 pupils, another four teachers, and still the State funds would be distributed in the same fashion. No provision is made for local need. No stimulus is given to local initiative.

This is a very inefficient method for distributing the school fund of a State, and it works an injustice to the pioneers of the State, those who live in the outlying districts. Where land valuations are low, where distances are great, and where there are relatively few people of school age, the provision of any facilities for high-school education is very expensive, much more expensive per pupil than in the more settled areas. No provision is made for this in the law. In this respect the law was once far more just than it is at present. When the Territory was granted statehood, there was nothing like the difference between one part of the State and the other. As the eastern third of the State has been settled and built up, it has received an increasing share of the State money.

Distribution of funds according to school population also has the effect of making for poorer schools and fewer of them. There is no incentive for a community to build a high school; nor is there additional aid. All the expense of the high school is placed upon that now needed for the elementary school.

This method of distribution of funds also has the effect of hurting the instruction in the elementary school. Effort is required to build up the high school. Money is required. It often happens that, when the high school comes in without additional State aid, the real strain falls upon the elementary school. This of course is unfortunate.

A further disadvantage of this type of wholesale and automatic distribution of State funds is that the State has no power to help remote and backward communities to better themselves. The State should grant those funds only upon the most complete cooperation of the district.

Plans of State aid now in use.—In general there are five ways in which States give financial aid to high schools which yield better results than the system now in use in South Dakota: (1) State aid for general high-school purposes; (2) State aid for high-school libraries and laboratories; (3) the use of State aid for the extension of high-school privileges to pupils who do not live near high school;

(4) State aid to special courses within the high school, such as agriculture, teacher training, citizenship, and the like; and (5) State aid for the founding and maintenance of special high schools, such as agricultural high schools, normal training high schools, etc.² The first of these five methods is considered in this study because of its greater simplicity and because it is capable of including the others within it. Its features are as follows:

(1) The State establishes a high-school fund. This is not universally true, but many States have done so. For illustration, Wisconsin established a high-school fund of \$100,000, Texas \$50,000, Arkansas and West Virginia \$40,000. The establishment of the separate fund has the force of putting the stamp of public approval upon high-school education. At the same time it protects the public elementary education of the State. One great danger in the establishment of high schools has been the fact that too often the elementary schools were not as well supported thereafter.

(2) Money appropriated according to need of the local units. The great difficulty with the present plan of distribution of South Dakota's school fund is that money is given regardless of need. The big schools, little schools, and no schools at all share alike in proportion to the population of school age. The second fundamental principle is to center attention upon these schools in the State that are *in real need of State aid*. Several plans have been devised to care for this. Massachusetts excludes from State aid all high schools in communities of 500 families or more. Arkansas, South Carolina, and North Carolina exclude towns having a population of 3,500, 2,500, and 1,200 respectively. Massachusetts also has a plan whereby every town having a taxable valuation per pupil in excess of that of the average of the State is thereby excluded from State aid. Missouri, just cited, gives this aid: The maximum tax stipulated in accordance with the valuation of the district. A district complying with all regulations receives \$800 if its valuation is less than \$300,000; \$600 if its valuation is from \$300,000 to \$400,000; \$400 if its valuation is from \$400,000 to \$600,000; and \$200 if its valuation is \$600,000 or more. It is clear that the best thought upon State aid is, at least for the present, to help the poorer and less populated districts to maintain good high schools.

(3) Money appropriated according to the efforts of the local units. Many States reward efforts of the local units by helping them, provided certain things are done. This may be incorporated in the original proviso, fundamental to any State aid. For instance, Mis-

¹ See Chapter XI.

² These plans are outlined in detail in the various State laws (see Bul. of Bu. of Educ., 1915, No. 47, for a digest of school laws), and commentaries upon them are found in Gubberley's "School Funds and Their Apportionment" and in Butterworth's "An Evaluation of Methods of Financing Public Secondary Education in the United States."

souri, just cited, gives this aid: The maximum tax stipulated by law is levied, provided a high school is maintained and a principal employed, provided each teacher is paid at least \$40 a month, provided nonresident pupils are admitted at a reasonable fee, provided the average attendance of the previous year has been 15 or more, and provided it gives a year's course in agriculture. Such aid can not be more than one-half of the high-school teachers' salaries. A sum of money may be granted in proportion to the amount furnished by the local community, a sum according to the classification of the high school, a sum varying according to the daily attendance, a sum according to the number of teachers, or a sum according to the cost of running the school. Probably the best plan is to appropriate a lump sum of money to a school of a certain class, provided it meets standards laid down by the State department of public instruction.

Upon this as a basis the committee recommends that—

(1) The legislature create a special fund for the improvement of secondary education. (This should be set aside from the State tax, proposed in Chapter IX, or be an annual State appropriation in addition to and separate from the State school fund. It should include at least \$75,000 annually.)

(2) This fund be utilized to aid districts that need it most.

(3) Aid be granted to high schools in proportion to the efforts of the local community on the following basis: A lump sum of \$800 for a standard four-year high school; \$600 for a standard three-year high school; and \$500 for a standard two-year high school. (To secure this money the high school to be in operation 36 weeks; to follow the State course of study, to pay its teachers a sum double the State aid or receive proportionately less, to reply to and meet the requirements of the State superintendent for accrediting.)

This program of aid to the high school based upon the principles outlined above would go a long way toward establishment of a State-wide system of secondary education. It would help centralize control of secondary education. It would free the children of certain communities from the shortsightedness of members of certain boards of education. It would enable the State to exercise healthful control of the big investment which it has been making for years past.

With this established as a basis, it would then be possible, as the education in the State develops, to include other types of State aid, such as the establishment of other types of secondary schools and the subsidy of various types of subject matter, as is now being done by the Smith-Hughes Vocational Education Act.

The important thing for the people of South Dakota to realize is that special State aid for high schools is fundamental to their development; that these funds should be given with two ideas in mind, the one to encourage and reward effort on the part of the local community and the other to equalize educational opportunity for the boys and girls of the State; and that the future development and improve-

ment of these schools and the institution of new and better work are dependent upon this course. Montana, Minnesota, and North Dakota all follow this plan.

Section 5. THE PROBLEM OF A PROPER TEACHING FORCE.

The problem of securing a high-school teaching force that is capable of assuming in an efficient way the burden that is thrust upon it is as important a part of a program of school development as any other single feature. In order to make the improvement that is needed in high-school education, South Dakota must be able to train, employ, and hold competent teachers.

As indicated in Chapter XVII, the school laws of South Dakota provide for the certification of high-school teachers under five categories: (1) Life diploma; (2) State certificate; (3) vocational certificate; (4) provisional certificate; (5) first-grade certificate. Under the State law a teacher may teach in a high school in South Dakota if he has graduated from a standard college or from a normal school four years in advance of high school, or two years, if he has taken certain work in education. The law provides that these standards may be lowered for teachers of certain subjects, and that in some schools teachers may be employed who hold the first-grade certificate, meaning the equivalent of high-school graduation. This law is more or less ineffective, and to supplement it the State superintendent of public instruction has included in his specifications for a place on the accredited list the requirement that all teachers in four-year accredited high schools must have training equivalent to graduation from the State university, while in all other high schools the training must be the equivalent of a two-year normal course beyond a full four-year high-school course. It can thus be seen that the State superintendent in accrediting schools sets up higher standards than the State laws, and justly so. It must be remembered, however, that this ruling of the State superintendent has no effect unless the school wishes to be accredited, and that only about 40 per cent of the schools actually do become accredited.

Training of the teachers.—Without a great deal of patient study and personal conference it is almost impossible to secure an accurate idea of the exact training of a teacher. It is necessary to know the time spent in school, the subjects taken, the standing of the institution, and the character of the individual. Even then the information must be largely in the nature of an estimate. The data submitted below, therefore, are not to be regarded as scientifically accurate, but as the best means at hand by which the training of these teachers may be expressed.

TABLE 84.—Training of high-school teachers in South Dakota, expressed in years beyond the high-school course.

Length of training.	Teachers in Group I schools. ¹	Teachers in Group II schools. ²	Teachers in Group III schools. ³
No years beyond high school.....	0	0	10
One year beyond high school.....	8	0	13
Two years beyond high school.....	21	19	74
Three years beyond high school.....	7	8	28
Four years beyond high school.....	142	116	221
Five years beyond high school.....	26	6	7
Six years beyond high school.....	5	2	0
Seven years beyond high school.....	2	0	0
Median.....	4.0	4.0	3.7
Q1.....	3.6	3.6	2.4
Q3.....	4.4	4.4	4.1

¹ Schools having more than 110 pupils.
² Schools having 50 to 109 pupils.

³ Schools having less than 49 pupils.

On the whole the high-school teachers seem to be comparatively well prepared, much better than the State law would require.

Experience of the high-school teacher.—The teachers in each school were ranked in order of length of experience in months, and the median secured for each school. The conditions are shown in the following table:

TABLE 85.—Median experience of high-school teachers of South Dakota.

Teachers' experience.	Group I.	Group II.	Group III.
Under 10 months.....	0	7	19
11 to 20 months.....	1	7	14
21 to 30 months.....	2	7	14
31 to 40 months.....	3	9	11
41 to 50 months.....	9	2	12
51 to 60 months.....	2	1	5
61 to 70 months.....	2	0	6
71 to 80 months.....	0	0	2
81 to 90 months.....	0	0	2
91 to 100 months.....	0	0	6
101 to 110 months.....	0	0	1
111 to 120 months.....	0	0	1
121 to 130 months.....	0	1	0
131 to 140 months.....	0	0	0
141 to 150 months.....	0	0	0
151 to 160 months.....	0	0	0
161 to 170 months.....	0	0	1

This table reads as follows: In Group I there were no schools the median of the experience of whose teachers was under 10 months; in Group II there were 7 such schools, in Group III 19.

The high-school teachers of South Dakota for the most part are relatively inexperienced.

Tenure of the high-school teachers.—It is true that teachers do not remain in one place. The median teacher in South Dakota high schools remains in his position but one year and seven months. This is not worse than in adjoining States, however. In Iowa the tenure is but one year and 10 days, in North Dakota one year and four and

one-half months, in Nebraska one year and two months. The following table shows the conditions in these four States:

TABLE 86.—Tenure of office in four States as shown by the per cent of teachers in same place for a given number of years.

Length of tenure	South Dakota.	North Dakota.	Nebraska.	Iowa.
	Per ct.	Per ct.	Per ct.	Per ct.
Holding place—				
1 year.....	29	34	45	49
2 years.....	27	32	25	19
3 years.....	17	14	14	15
4 years.....	9	6	5	4
5 years.....	7	6	5	3
6 years.....	3	2	2	1
7 years.....	2	1		1
8 to 30 years.....	5	6	5	3

Age.—The teachers of the high schools of South Dakota form a young group. The median age for men is 29.5 years, for women 26.5 years. Half of the men teachers are included within the ages 25 to 35; one-half the women between 24 and 32.

Causes of leaving the teaching profession.—The following questions were asked: Why do the high-school teachers leave the schools? Within the past three years (since September, 1914) how many teachers regularly employed on your high-school faculty have resigned? Of this number, how many resigned to study? How many quit permanently? How many resigned to accept another position in South Dakota? In other States? These data are given in the following table:

TABLE 87.—High-school teachers resigning.

Groups.	Schools in group.		Schools reporting usable data.		Teachers reported as resigning.		Teachers reported as resigning to study.		Teachers reported as resigning to quit permanently.		Teachers reported as resigning to take another position in South Dakota.		Teachers reported as resigning to accept a position in another State.	
	Num. ber.	Per cent.	Num. ber.	Average number.	Num. ber.	Per cent.	Num. ber.	Per cent.	Num. ber.	Per cent.	Num. ber.	Per cent.	Num. ber.	Per cent.
Group I.....	19	18	91.6	208	11.5	15	7.2	57	27.1	29	13.9	107	51.5	
Group II.....	35	28	80.0	127	5.2	8	6.3	52	41.0	21	18.9	43	34.8	
Group III.....	104	73	70.2	204	2.3	26	12.7	68	33.3	72	35.3	38	18.7	
Total.....	158	119	75.3	539	4.5	49	9.0	77	32.8	125	23.2	188	34.9	

It has already been shown that the teachers of South Dakota remain but a short time in one place. From this table it can be seen that, of those who leave, about one-third quit the profession permanently, about one-third leave the State to teach in another State, and about one-fourth move to another school.

Load carried by these teachers.—To illustrate the typical amount and character of this work it was decided to find out the number of subjects taught by each teacher. Subjects were classified as

follows: English, ancient languages, modern languages, mathematics, United States history, other history, chemistry, physics, other science, commercial, pedagogy, normal reviews, industrial arts, domestic science, music, drawing, penmanship, physical training, and grade work. The number of subjects which these teachers taught is shown in the following table:

TABLE 88.—Number of subjects taught by teachers in South Dakota high schools.

Subjects taught.	Group I.			Group II.			Group III.		
	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Total.
One.....	65	20	85	14	4	18	4	1	5
Two.....	73	31	104	42	14	56	19	1	20
Three.....	18	11	29	37	23	60	55	15	70
Four.....	3	3	6	13	9	22	45	25	70
Five.....				4	4	8	16	12	28
Six.....				1		1	5	8	13
Seven.....							3	3	6
Median.....	2.6	2.1	2.3	3.0	3.4	3.2	3.9	1.6	4.1

This means that in the schools of Group I most of the teachers teach two or three different subjects for which special preparation is needed, but an appreciable part teach only one. In schools of Group II most of the teachers distribute their efforts over two to four different subjects; in Group III they distribute over three and four, with as many teaching five as teach two. This, of course, has the significance of emphasizing broad preparation. High-school teachers in South Dakota for the present should not specialize in one subject, but rather should have two or three in which they are equally expert.

Salaries paid high-school teachers.—The salaries of high-school teachers in South Dakota are given in the following table:

TABLE 89.—Salaries of teachers in the high schools.

Salaries.	Group I.		Group II.		Group III.	
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
\$1,700.....	1					
1,600.....	3					
1,500.....	2	1				
1,450.....	1					
1,400.....	2					
1,350.....	4	1	1			
1,300.....	9	3				
1,250.....	3	1				
1,200.....	14	10	1			
1,100.....	2	11	1			
1,050.....	1	3				
1,000.....	10	13	1	1		
950.....		4	2			
900.....	5	20	4	3	1	
850.....	1	12	1	9		1
800.....	2	30	3	14	2	5
750.....	1	19	2	30		18
700.....		18	3	25	1	18
650.....		3	1	13	1	44
600.....		2		2	1	19
550.....		2			2	3
500.....						1
250.....						1
150.....						
Median.....	\$1,228.50	\$980.00	\$675.00	\$714.00	\$675.00	\$445.00

These data give in a complete way the material rewards gained by high-school teachers (excepting principals) in the high schools studied in South Dakota. The salaries of the principals are given in the following table:

TABLE 90.—Salaries of high-school principals in South Dakota.

	Group I.		Group II.		Group III.	
	Men.	Women	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
\$3,100 to \$3,150	1					
2,200 to 2,250	1					
2,000 to 2,050	2					
1,900	1					
1,800	2		1		1	
1,700	5		3			
1,600	1		4			
1,550			1			
1,500	3		5			2
1,450	1		2			
1,400	2		5			1
1,350			1			1
1,300		1	1			7
1,250			3			3
1,200			5			10
1,150			1			6
1,100		1				9
1,050	1		1			2
1,000	1	2			11	3
950					2	1
900		1	2		1	2
850				1		1
800				1	1	2
750		1		1		1
700				2		
Median	\$1,715.00	\$1,025.00	\$1,435.00	\$810.00	\$1,111.00	\$825.00

The characteristic teacher.—The teacher that is typical of the high schools of South Dakota can best be described by the medians given above.

The man teacher in the larger schools is over 30 years of age, has graduated from a four-year college, and has been in his present position nearly two years, after having taught three years elsewhere. He teaches two or three subjects, more often two than three, and receives a salary of over \$1,200, and if he is promoted to a principalship can do better. The woman teacher is over 27 years old, has graduated from a four-year college, has been in her present position nearly two years, having taught three years elsewhere. She usually teaches two subjects, but is more likely to teach three than a man. She receives a salary of \$860.

In the Group II schools the male teacher is just under 30 years of age, has taught but one year before coming to his present position, and has taught nearly two years in this place. He teaches three subjects and receives a salary of \$875. The female teacher has graduated from a four-year college, teaches three or four subjects, has had experience and tenure equal to the male teacher, but only receives \$714 in salary.

In the small schools the age and training of the teachers is very little different. The teachers are a little younger, not quite so well trained. The male teacher receives \$675 and teaches four different subjects; the female teacher receiving \$685 and teaches four or five different subjects, more often five than four.

About one-half of these teachers will leave their present positions this year, one-third to leave the profession permanently, one-third to teach in another State, one-fourth to take a place in another school within the State, and the remainder for varying reasons.

South Dakota has as good a teaching staff as the States which lie adjoining. The teachers are fairly well paid, well trained, and remain at their posts somewhat longer than the teachers in Iowa, North Dakota, or Nebraska. The weaknesses found are common in other States. The strong points in the State are not so strong that they might not be stronger.

Whatever there is of excellence in the situation is not due to the law concerning the certification of teachers. It comes solely from the office of the State superintendent of public instruction, who has made the schools live up to the standard set by him, with practically no authority.

Chapter XVII contains recommendations making provision for a gradual reorganization and unification of the certification laws. If these are accepted, certificates will, in due course of time, be issued to graduates of professional courses in normal schools and other professional schools only. It will also reduce the number of certificates to be issued. In addition to these provisions the committee recommends—

That five types of certificates, carrying certain privileges and granted only after certain requirements, be granted to teachers for high schools, viz:

First-grade high-school certificate.

Valid for life.

Good in any high school in the State.

College graduation, or its equivalent necessary for.

Twenty semester hours in education and psychology.

Five years of successful teaching.

Second-grade high-school certificate.

Valid for five years and renewable once.

Graduation from junior college, normal school, or its equivalent.

Ten semester hours in education and psychology required.

Three years of successful teaching.

Valid in all high schools, except four-year accredited high schools.

Provisional certificate.

To be granted to those who meet above requirements, experience alone excepted.

Vocational high-school certificate.

To be granted as at present, omitting foreign languages.

Special high-school certificate.

To be granted to those teaching in high schools in South Dakota before the passage of this act.

Valid for two years in any high school of the State.

May be renewed as often as desired by attendance and successful completion of four semester hours of work at a six weeks' summer session of a standard college, normal school, or teachers' college.

Section 6. THE PROBLEM OF SPEEDING UP THE WORK.

A number of agencies are combining to speed up the work of the public schools. The increasing demand for higher training for entrance to professions has placed emphasis upon economy of time. When the young physician has spent eight years in the elementary school, four in high school, two or three in college, and four in professional education, followed by a year or two as an interne, it would seem as if there had been some valuable time wasted somewhere along the line. The practice of 15 years of preparation for professional education is not warranted by experience in the French or English schools. This has had the tendency to increase agitation for speeding up.

The prospect of military training, consuming a year or two of a young man's life, will increase the difficulty. It will advance the age of entrance into professions nearly to 30. The result will be, without doubt, to cause the schools to do the work they are now doing in less time.

As a war measure, the speeding up of the high-school work will do much good. America needs trained men—the better trained the better. There will be bigger problems to solve. Many boys will be called from school at the age of 21 for military service. The public schools are confronted with the problem of giving even more training in less time. Anything that will tend to increase the speed with which our schools may work without decreasing the quality of the work will be of real service to the nation, not only in times of war but in the peace that is to come. Two features of the speeding-up process will be discussed here.

(1) *The schools may speed up the work by spending more time in teaching.*—Many of the schools in South Dakota were forced to increase the speed of school work either by lengthening the school day or by teaching on Saturday. This was true this year because of the failure of the coal supply, or because of the demand for early closing to assist in planting the crops. Good results were found as a result of this plan.

Another plan for speeding up the work of the schools is the institution of the summer high school, an institution which has become increasingly popular in the last few years. In 1916 there were summer high schools reported by 109 cities, the majority running for six or eight weeks. The plans, value, cost, and practice in the case

of summer high schools are set forth in Bulletin No. 45, 1917, Bureau of Education. It is plainly shown there that the plan is simple, the administration not complex, the results good, and the cost relatively little.

Wherever possible the schools of South Dakota should increase the length of their school day, week, and year. Credit for work so done and pay for the teachers should be proportionate to the time put in.

(2) *The schools may speed up the work by bridging the gap between the elementary and secondary schools.*—One great source of waste of time is the gap that lies between the elementary and secondary schools. The pupil is accustomed to certain treatment in the grades. He usually has but one teacher. He remains in one room. He is accustomed to certain subjects that he has taken for some time. Suddenly he is transferred to the high school. Here he moves from room to room. He is taught by different teachers. New subject matter confronts him. So difficult is it for him to accustom himself to the new order that he finds it hard to keep up. The greatest number of pupils drop out of the high school in the first few months.

From these arguments have come the agitation for the junior high school, a reorganization of grades seven, eight, and nine, the better to suit the needs of the age involved and to make a "lap joint" between the schools.

Seven of the schools answering the questionnaire reported junior high schools, two additional schools planning to have them next year. They are—

	Year established.
All Saints (Sioux Falls) School.....	1914-15
Madison.....	1913-14
Huron.....	1916-17
Rapid City.....	1916-17
Waubay.....	1916-17
Herreid.....	1916-17
Redfield.....	Planned for 1918
Owanka.....	Planned for 1918

These schools are planning to reorganize the work in an effective way.

It is not necessary, however, for the majority of the schools in South Dakota to have junior high schools. Quite as good an effect may be produced otherwise. This is true for a number of reasons:

(1) The high schools in South Dakota are not separate from the elementary schools. Out of 186 schools, 172 have the grades and high school both in one building. The teachers also spread between the work in the elementary and high schools.

(2) In many of the schools the upper grades and high schools share the same study hall. This is true in 85 schools.

(3) In 29 out of 122 schools there is departmental work in the upper grades, particularly in the seventh and eighth. This has the effect of making the work more alike in the two schools.

(4) In 17 out of 129 schools elementary-school pupils are allowed to take some high-school work upon certain conditions, such as "on trial," "upon ability," "fast group," and the like.

(5) In 48 out of 124 schools elementary-school pupils take part in the student activities of the high school, such as literary societies, athletics, etc.

While the small high school has the disadvantages shown in the previous sections of this study, it is probably true that it has the possibility of more completely solving the problem of the relationship of the elementary school and the high school than is possible in the cities, even where there is a junior high school. In buildings where both schools are located, where upper grade pupils sit in the high-school study hall, where both are taught by the same teachers, where exceptional grade children are allowed to start high-school work, and where the rest is on the departmental plan, where both elementary and high-school pupils take part in athletics and other social activities, then there is no gap. All that is necessary is a little careful planning on the part of the teachers.

The committee therefore recommends that the high schools of South Dakota take the following steps toward the solution of the problem of the elementary and high school:

(1) That the two schools be considered one school as much as possible.

(2) That the practice of teaching in both the eighth and ninth grades be encouraged.

(3) That exceptional elementary school pupils be allowed to take certain subjects in the high school, thus shortening the time for their high-school course.

Section 7. SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

1. The creation by the State legislature of a special fund for the improvement of secondary education in needy districts, to aggregate at least \$75,000 annually.

2. The enlargement of vocational training by—

(a) Continuing and increasing the emphasis now placed on commercial work and home economics;

(b) Increasing the work in industrial arts and agriculture;

(c) Enlarging the facilities for teacher training.

3. Conducting the work in the high schools with a view to the needs of those who drop out as well as to the needs of those who graduate.

4. Amending the present certification laws to provide for granting five types of certificates for high-school teachers.
5. The strengthening of high-school supervision by—
 - (a) Requiring the principals to teach less and to supervise more;
 - (b) Increasing the amount and closeness of high-school inspection by the State.
6. The appointment of one, and preferably two, high-school inspectors.
7. The equalization of opportunity for all children to acquire a high-school education through a system of competitive examination, scholarships, and remission of tuition.
8. The speeding up of the work in the high schools by—
 - (a) Increasing the amount of time devoted to teaching;
 - (b) Spanning the gap between the grades and the high schools, and organizing junior high schools wherever practicable.

Chapter XVII.

THE TEACHING STAFF AND TEACHER CERTIFICATION.

Problem of adequate teacher certification.—No phase of the survey is more important, and none is in more urgent need of remedy, than is an adequate teacher supply for the schools. It is undeniably true that for many years the teaching profession has been held in less high regard in the United States than is its due: the teachers have been ranked and rated more by their salaries than by their service to the public. Teachers' salaries are inadequate, and the professional requirements are correspondingly low. The profession has suffered because almost any kind of amateur can get permission to instruct school children. If it were not that the average public school teacher has given the public much more than he has received, it would have gone hard with the schools and education in our country.

The world war is making this already serious problem more acute. Since 1914 the cost of living has increased by leaps and bounds. Teachers' salaries have also advanced, but not so rapidly as the cost of living. Meanwhile, there is an urgent demand for competent persons in the numerous war industries: many are called to their country's flag. As a result the schools may soon go begging for teachers, unless the public and law-making bodies of the States take the matter seriously in hand. Now, in the days of urgent need, is the right time to secure the future of the teaching profession by making it possible for the profession to become *professionalized*.

Composition of the teaching staff.—But, first, who are the teachers that have been intrusted with the education of school children in South Dakota? What is their number and preparation? Their teaching tenure and remuneration? Their social status? And what is the probability that they will follow teaching as a life work? These and other questions are answered in the following paragraphs.

The State requires an army of more than 7,000 teachers to fill the elementary and secondary schools: of these nearly 2,300 must be renewed annually, because of the instability of the profession. The actual number of teachers employed has not varied much in the last five-year period. In 1912 there were in the schools 1,071 men teachers and 5,493 women teachers. Since then, the number of men has decreased slightly each year, and the women have increased

correspondingly. Thus, in 1916 there were 1,032 men and 6,025 women teachers. Since the entry of the United States into the war there has been further marked decrease in men teachers. Women teachers will undoubtedly increase steadily in numbers. While this is to be expected, it is also quite essential to the welfare of the schools to keep in them as large a number of men teachers as possible. Par-

PERMANENT AND TEMPORARY TEACHERS

ANSWERS FROM 3,941 RURAL TEACHERS

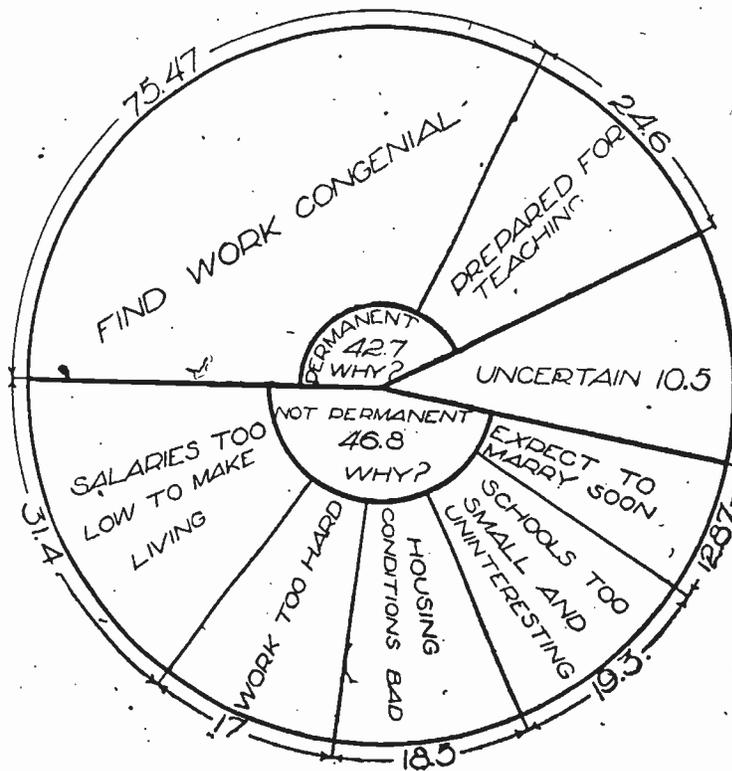


FIG. 16.

particularly is this true if this great agricultural State is to realize its hopes of organizing the strong farm community schools discussed in a former chapter. But the teaching profession must first be stabilized and the opportunities in teaching be made the equal of opportunities in other callings. Without this South Dakota can not expect any large number of well-prepared, experienced men to remain permanently in the schools.

Cases of present instability.—Figure 16 is a graphic illustration of the above assertions. It is based on answers received from 3,941 rural teachers who were questioned in regard to permanency in the schools. Forty-six and eight-tenths per cent declared frankly that they do not intend to follow the profession permanently. And why? Thirty-one and four-tenths per cent find salaries too low for them to make ends meet financially; 17 per cent find the work too hard, chiefly because of bad hygienic and sanitary surroundings, long distance to school, many classes, etc. On much the same grounds 19.3 per cent declare the schools too small (in attendance) and uninteresting; 18.5 per cent find housing conditions bad, some using the expression "intolerable"; finally, 12.8 per cent expect to marry soon. Conditions in the village schools are practically as unsatisfactory as in the rural schools. Of 1,360 teachers, 39.1 per cent expect to remain in the profession permanently; 47.7 per cent desire to change for "more attractive and remunerative occupations" as soon as opportunity knocks. The rest are undecided.

Additional reasons for dissatisfaction are these: 913 teachers "find it advisable" to board and lodge with members of the school board; 741 teachers declare living conditions bad; unheated rooms, lack of privacy, poor cooking, and high cost of board are included in this list. Many complain that life in the country is lonesome and often unattractive; others find that the well-to-do people in the towns don't care to be bothered with the teachers. Here are reasons enough why many of the best young people in the State do not wish to invest much time and money in becoming professional teachers and why they do not remain long in the calling.

Length of teaching tenures.—What then is the length of teaching tenure in the different schools? Figure 17 shows that 31.2 per cent of the rural and 19.2 per cent of the village teachers are teaching their first school, and that only 9.6 per cent and 13.9 per cent, respectively, have taught as many as four schools. Few teachers have taught more than one or two years in a school. Finally, the average teaching life of a rural teacher is 3.76 school years, and of a village teacher, 4.95 years. Throughout it is found that the village schools are better stabilized than the rural.

Age of the teachers.—One of the greatest obstacles to establishing teaching on a professional basis, such as law and medicine, is the ease with which many persons, children almost, can get teaching credentials, particularly at the present time, when the demand has become exceptionally urgent. The law requires that "no person shall be entitled to a certificate who has not attained to the age of 18 years." Yet the questionnaires answered by rural teachers contain the names of 29 teachers under 17 years of age and of 53 who are just 17. How these persons have procured their certificates

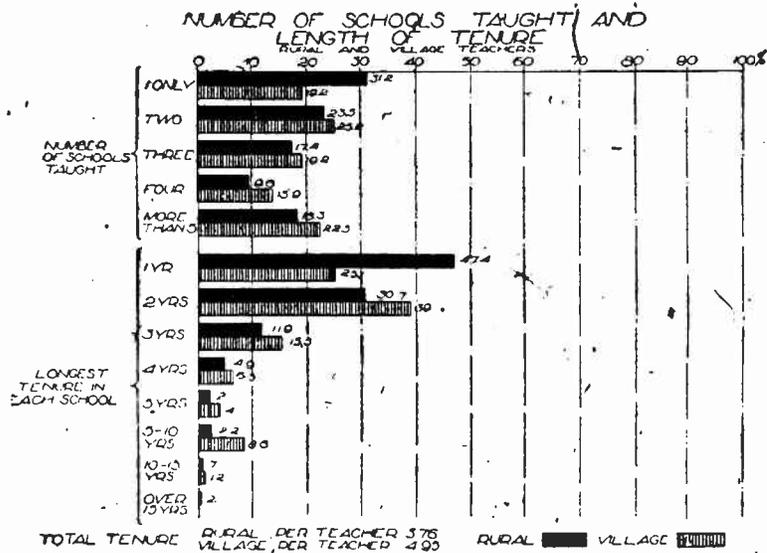
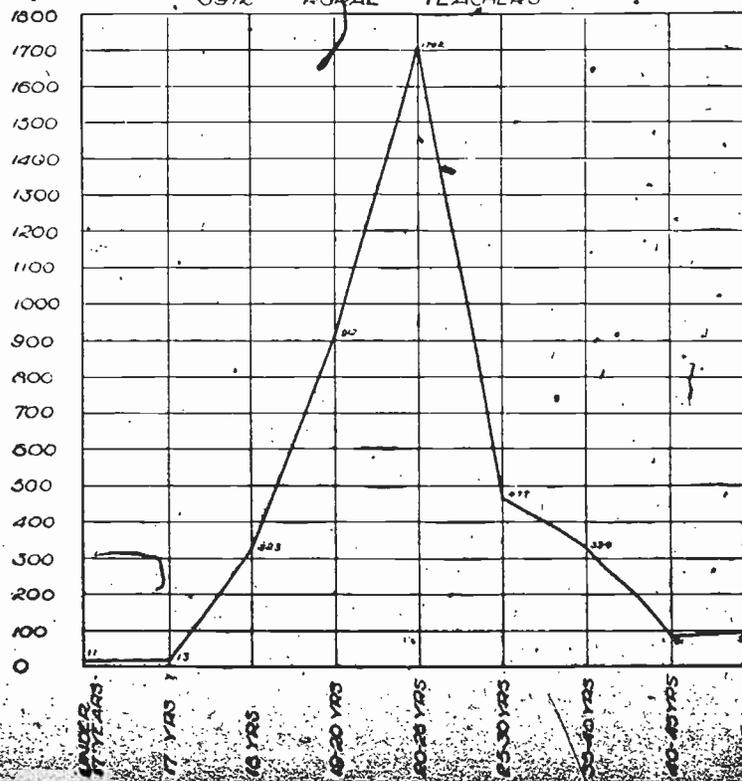


FIG. 17.

RANGE OF TEACHERS' AGES BY GROUPS
3972 RURAL TEACHERS



is hard to understand, unless they deliberately falsified their statements to the examiners. At any rate such youngsters should be attending school instead of teaching. The largest group of rural teachers (2,641) range between 19 and 25 years of age; while the largest group of village teachers (553) range between 25 and 30 years. For really satisfactory results there ought to have been a gradual increase from the 19 to 20 group well upward of the 30 to 35 group. Some day this must come to pass.

RANGE OF TEACHERS' AGES BY GROUPS
1316 VILLAGE TEACHERS

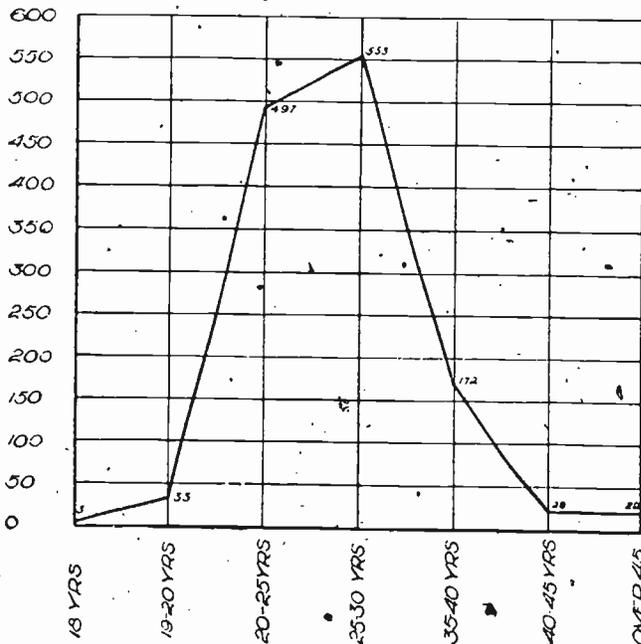


FIG. 13.

Marital condition of teachers.—Very few of the teachers are married. Out of 3,941 rural teachers reporting, only 434 are married; and in a total of 1,360 village teachers, only 210 are married. Very few except the married teachers have persons depending on them for support, there being 510 persons with dependents among the rural teachers and 264 among the village teachers. The small number of married teachers is another indication of the present instability of the profession. Well prepared, married men teachers can not be attracted to rural, or even village schools, before the permanent year-round community school is organized. It would also be

worth while to induce married women, with grown families, to matriculate at the normal schools, preparatory to reentering the profession. Such women would at least understand children.

Homes for teachers needed.—As stated in Chapter X, homes are urgently needed for the teachers, and organized as a part of the school plant. Of the rural teachers, 90 per cent live in the district where they teach; the other 10 per cent live mostly in near-by towns. But many declare the living conditions so bad that they "must give up teaching in the country or ruin their health." The trouble is that well-to-do farmers seldom care to be bothered with an extra boarder, and the homes of the poor are not fit for young persons who have probably been reared under more satisfactory conditions. The solution lies in the erection of modern teacherages as an integral part of the school plant.

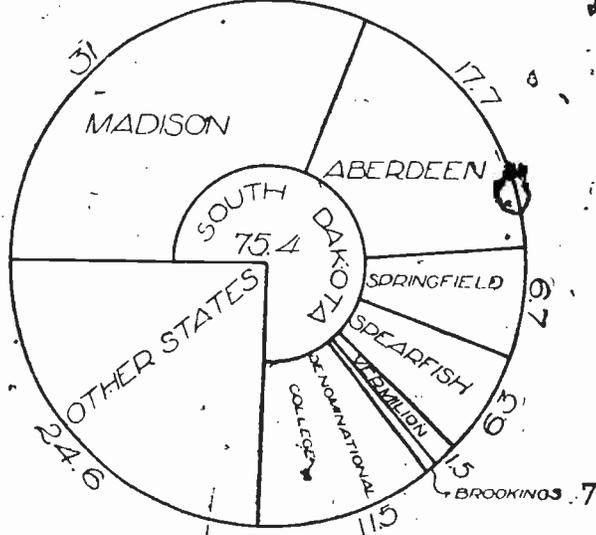
Academic and professional preparation.—The village teachers have had better academic preparation than the rural teachers. It appears that some of the teachers reporting have not completed their elementary-school course. Most of these have, however, been enabled somehow to continue their studies in high school. Of the rural teachers, 58.3 per cent, and of the village teachers, 76.2 per cent, have completed a four-year high-school course. In high-school preparation the South Dakota teachers compare favorably with those of other Middle Western States. Unfortunately, very few have pursued college studies. The few in the rural-village group who are credited with college work are almost exclusively from the denominational colleges of the State.

Of the rural teachers, 45.8 per cent, and of the village teachers, 35.1 per cent record attendance in regular courses at professional schools. There is no explanation at hand why the village teachers should make a lower showing than the others. Of rural and village teachers, 54.2 per cent and 64.9 per cent, respectively, have entered the profession by the examination route instead of coming from the normal schools and the colleges of education. Figure 20 gives the places and institutions where the professional preparation was acquired. Almost one-fourth of the teachers responding came from other States. Of the rest, the normal schools at Aberdeen and Madison prepared almost one-half.

It is now generally accepted that no person should be allowed to teach in the schools unless he has completed a high-school course of four years, or its equivalent, and has had in addition a liberal professional training of at least two years. South Dakota is far from this minimum standard now; particularly is it true of the teachers' professional preparation. The plan of teacher training and teacher certification should be so arranged that certificates to teach would be issued by the State department only on credentials from teacher-

PLACE WHERE SOME SOUTH DAKOTA RURAL AND VILLAGE TEACHERS ACQUIRED PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

1805 RURAL TEACHERS



478 VILLAGE TEACHERS

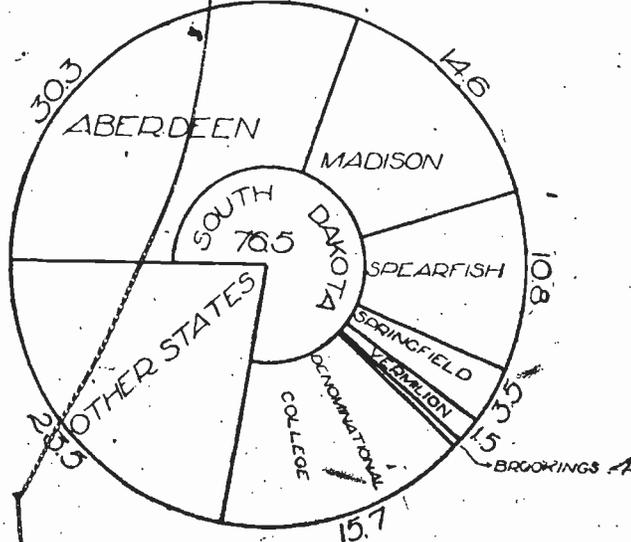


FIG. 20.

training schools. As soon as possible, certification based on public examination should cease. Not till such time can the profession become truly professionalized.

System of certification.—The system of teacher certification used in the State is sound. All regular certificates are issued by the State department of education, through its certification division. The county superintendents may issue "special" certificates "to applicants who present satisfactory proof that they were unable to be present at the last regular public examination." The special certificates are valid only "until returns are made for next public examination for regular certificate of equal rank."

The regular certificates issued are¹—

1. *Life diploma*—granted on examination and to graduates of the University of South Dakota and approved colleges; and of the South Dakota normal schools in courses of at least two years beyond high-school graduation.

2. *State certificate*—granted on examination and to graduates as in case of the life diploma. Range of examination, length of experience, etc., more limited than in above.

3. *First-grade certificate*—granted on examination and to graduates of certain courses in the State normal schools and accredited colleges.

4. *Second-grade certificate*—granted on examination, and to graduates of certain limited courses in the State normal schools and accredited colleges.

5. *Third-grade certificate*—granted to those who pass a satisfactory examination in orthography, reading, writing, arithmetic, physiology and hygiene, geography, grammar, United States history, civil government, South Dakota history, didactics, and drawing. The minimum grade required in any one subject is 60 per cent; required average, 75 per cent. No experience required. Certificate valid for one year only and is not renewable. On reexamination two such certificates only may be held.

There seems little excuse for continuing this grade of certificate. The second grade is certainly low enough. The same subjects are included in the examinations for both certificates, with the difference that for second grade the candidates must reach an average of 80 per cent, with no one subject below 65 per cent. The second-grade certificate ought to be established as the lowest grade of examination certificate until such time as certification through examination is abandoned altogether.

6. *Primary certificates*—granted on examination only.

¹ For details of conditions under which these certificates are issued to the normal schools and colleges, see Chapters XVIII and XIX.

7. *Vocational certificates*—granted on examination to special subject teachers of cities and other independent districts.

Figure 21 shows that the chief dependence of rural teachers is on the second-grade certificate, 56.56 per cent of them teaching on this grade. Of the village teachers, 37.1 per cent hold State certificates. This is none too good a showing.

NUMBER AND KINDS OF TEACHERS' CERTIFICATES, 1916

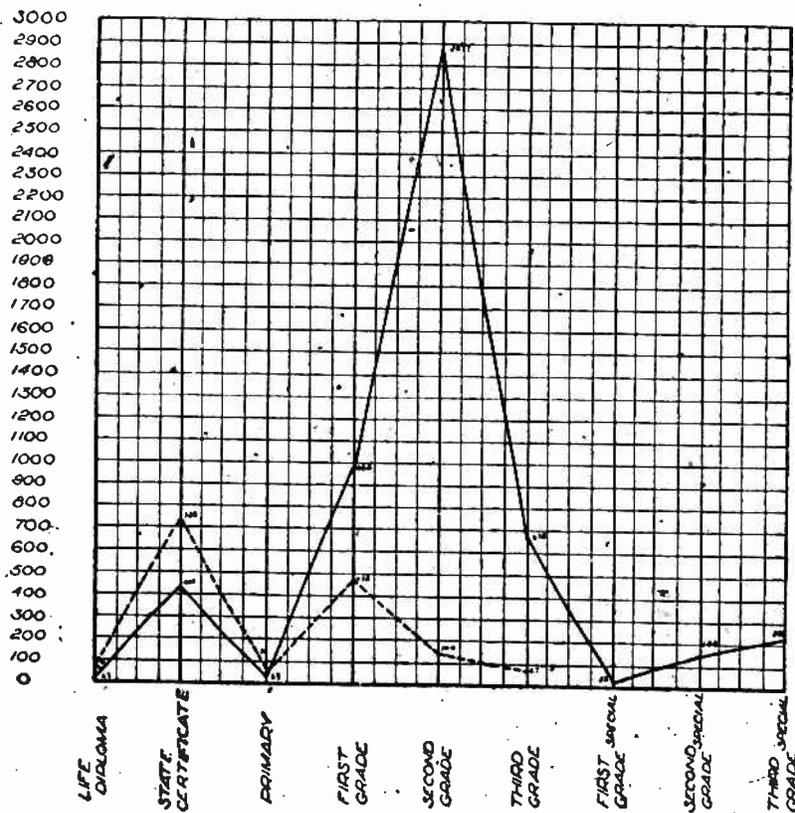


FIG. 21.

The solid line indicates rural teachers and the broken line village teachers

Compensation of rural and village teachers.—What compensation do the teachers receive? What, if any, is the relation between teacher preparation and efficiency, and teacher remuneration?

The salaries recorded (fig. 22) from the questionnaires are for the school year, which ranges from five to nine or more months. It should be kept in mind that the amounts herewith included are, as a

rule, all that the teacher earns in the course of a calendar year, and must support him throughout the vacation period, which many progressive teachers devote to summer school attendance. It is true, many teachers are obliged to canvass for books, sell insurance, etc., during the summer months. If law or medicine were so poorly paid that its practitioners would be obliged to find some other source of

PERCENTAGE RANGE IN SALARIES OF RURAL AND VILLAGE TEACHERS

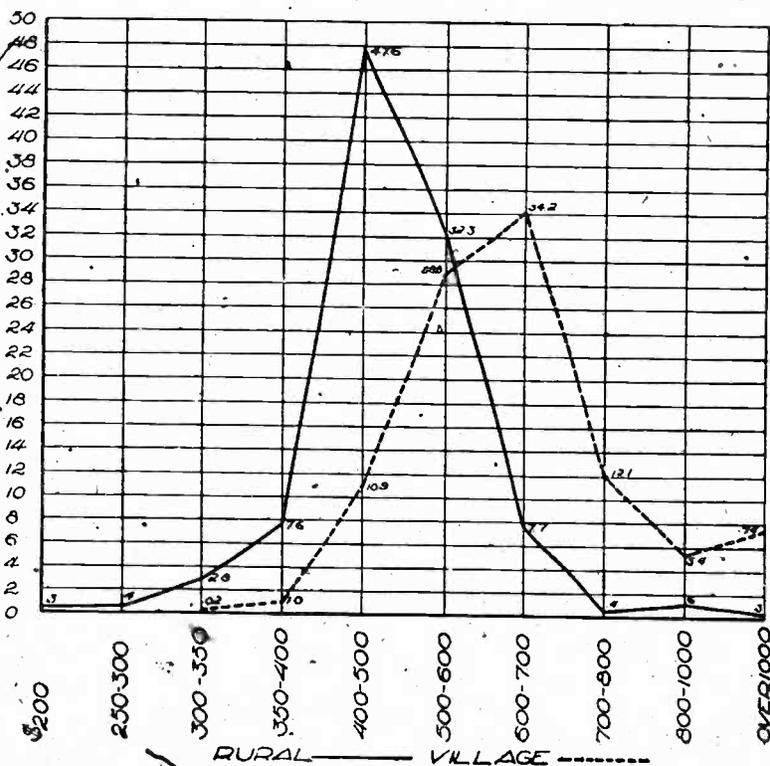


FIG. 22.

income during the slack periods, how many would continue in the profession?

The largest number of South Dakota rural teachers receive between \$400 and \$500 per annum. This is much less than a hired hand gets. Of the village teachers, 34.2 per cent receive between \$600 and \$700. From this point the graph drops rapidly.

Teachers are paid entirely too low salaries any way one looks at the problem. It takes both courage and devotion to one's work to

spend time and money on a thorough preparation, and then receive such beggarly returns on the investment. South Dakota should increase the teachers' salaries and make them worthy of the State. Other States are doing much better.

Table 92 shows conclusively that other Middle Western and Western States have all outstripped South Dakota in amount paid for salaries, and this State now stands lowest in the group of 23 States.

TABLE 91.—Average length of school year in months, and average annual salaries paid public-school teachers (1915-16), North Central and Western States only.

States.	Months.	Salaries.	States.	Months.	Salaries.
1. California.....	8.80	\$998.45	13. North Dakota.....	8.63	\$574.76
2. Washington.....	8.73	896.58	14. Kansas.....	8.19	572.60
3. Nevada.....	8.30	782.86	15. Missouri.....	8.09	559.74
4. Arizona.....	8.00	770.40	16. New Mexico.....	7.13	546.03
5. Illinois.....	8.20	750.85	17. Wisconsin.....	8.69	645.00
6. Idaho.....	7.75	742.81	18. Ohio.....	8.77	528.88
7. Utah.....	8.15	721.92	19. Minnesota.....	8.39	521.52
8. Montana.....	8.84	702.43	20. Iowa.....	8.50	517.65
9. Oregon.....	8.80	630.41	21. Wyoming.....	7.65	600.39
10. Colorado.....	8.35	632.85	22. Nebraska.....	8.18	438.45
11. Michigan.....	8.60	605.47	23. South Dakota.....	8.50	433.71
12. Indiana.....	7.75	580.32			

It is also suggestive to compare figures with salaries paid rural teachers in Saskatchewan, Canada. In a group of 1,982 teachers reporting, 46 receive from \$600 to \$700; 113 from \$700 to \$800; 838 from \$800 to \$900; 786 from \$900 to \$1,000; 199 from \$1,000 up. Should South Dakota not do equally well?

Summary.—The problem of teacher supply, which has always been difficult, has become especially trying on account of the world war. Unless radical steps are taken by the State's educational leaders and the next legislature to improve teaching conditions by offering larger salaries, better housing conditions, and in other ways improving the status of the teachers, there will soon be a dearth of professional teachers. Eighteen counties were actually short of teachers when this survey was made, with conditions getting worse daily.

The State's teacher-training institutions have been unable to supply the schools with well-prepared teachers even under normal conditions. Many teachers have been attracted to the State from the outside, and many have come into the schools by the examination route, without any professional preparation whatever. The normal schools must be assisted to do a larger service than hitherto, and strong high schools should be drafted to help in the work.

Recommendations for professionalizing the teaching staff.—The greatest educational problem in South Dakota, then, is how to get and retain in the profession a sufficient number of well-prepared

teachers. Before teaching can be thoroughly professionalized, several things must come to pass: The public must become fully awake to its responsibility toward the teachers; it must make the schools and housing conditions more attractive than they are; and in other ways make possible long, well-paid tenures in the same community. The State must, by legal enactment, safeguard the profession and offer special inducements to all teachers to equip themselves well for their profession and make it their life work. Finally, the teachers must do what they can to attain genuine professional standards of teaching.

To these ends the survey committee makes the following specific recommendations:

1. Improve teaching conditions by—
 - (a) Establishing reasonable minimum salaries for all teachers;
 - (b) Scaling all teacher's salaries to the grade of certificate held, thus placing a premium on special preparation.
2. Require higher teaching qualifications by—
 - (a) Increasing, gradually, the entrance requirements of the State normal schools and lengthening their study courses;
 - (b) Eliminating the third-grade certificate;
 - (c) Discontinuing the issue of certificates on examination as soon as the normal schools, the department of education in the university, and department of education of the State college, and other teacher-training institutions have become fully equipped to supply all the professional teachers required;
 - (d) Placing the minimum requirement for permission to teach at graduation from an accredited four-year high school, or its equivalent, and in addition, at least one year's professional study, acquired at a professional school for teachers. The standard to go into effect not before September, 1922.
3. Increase the supply of professional teachers by—
 - (a) Organizing teacher-training departments in not to exceed 20 fully accredited high schools well distributed over the State; the schools to organize the professional work in fifth-year courses, and to receive State aid;
 - (b) Establishing well-equipped departments for rural teachers at all the normal schools. (See p. 240);
 - (c) Enlarging the facilities of the State agricultural college to prepare teachers of general agriculture and teachers of vocational agriculture and home economics. (See p. 249);
 - (d) Granting State bonuses to teachers as rewards for long service in a single school community;
 - (e) Establishing a retirement fund for teachers.

The recommendations further detailed.—Every teacher who has devoted his time and money to preparing for teaching should be assured of a reasonable return on his investment. To this end the legislature should set a minimum of not less than \$60 per month for the lowest-grade certificate.

Similarly, teaching rewards should bear a definite relation to the expense and time incurred in securing a higher certificate. Salaries ought, accordingly, to be based on the kind of certificate held. There should be a legal minimum salary for each kind. Thus the present second grade (the third grade not being considered) might receive the minimum of \$60 and upward; first grade, 15 per cent additional and upward; State certificate, 15 per cent more than first grade and upward; and so forth.

Long service in a single school community is good evidence of tact and ability. Moreover, nothing is more detrimental to school progress than constant change of teachers and administrative policy. The State should make reward for long tenure in the same community. Several States have found this good investment. Thus a second year in the same school might be awarded with State aid to the amount of \$5 per month; a third year with \$10 per month; and a fourth and each subsequent year with \$15 per month. It should be made unlawful for local boards to curtail local salaries by reason of these bonuses.

The fundamental reason for retirement pensions for teachers, as for any class of public employees, is the betterment of the service. The State is young and does not yet perhaps feel the need for retirement of superannuated teachers so strongly as some of the older States. By establishing an adequate pension system now, however, while the problem is still comparatively simple, nearly all the financial difficulties that beset retirement plans can be avoided. The exact details of the system should be worked out by a committee appointed by the governor, including both laymen and educators. It is essential that scientific insurance principles be allowed to control in the drafting of a law, and expert actuarial assistance should be employed from the outset. Any plan adopted should include financial support by both parties to the compact—the teachers and the State.

The third-grade certificate is a bid for immature and incompetent persons to gain entrance to the profession. Even on the plea of teacher shortage such certificates are untenable. The surest way to obtain a good teaching staff is to eliminate the incompetents, scale up teaching requirements, and add dignity and satisfaction to teaching by increasing its compensation to the level of modern living.

With proper financial support from the State and a reasonable enlargement of study courses and tightening of entrance requirements the State's teacher-training institutions should be able within five or six years to provide all the professional teachers required. When this time comes to pass certification through public examination should be discontinued, except that permits to teach may be

issued to teachers from outside the State until their credentials can be validated.

The minimum requirement for teaching (four-year high-school course and two-year professional course) should not go into effect fully before September, 1923, in order to permit the teachers in service who may not now have these requirements to attain this minimum. The normal schools should establish a well-supported extension service to reach all teachers who can not do the study under the added requirement in residence. (For details see p. 233.)

All other recommendations are discussed in Chapter XVII.

Chapter XVIII.

PREPARATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS—THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Section 1. FUNDAMENTAL PREMISES.

The State maintains four normal schools whose function is to prepare teachers for the public schools. These schools are the chief source of teacher supply in the State. The University of South Dakota supports a department of education which devotes its energies, in the main, to preparing high-school teachers, school administrators, and superintendents, and special-subject supervisors. The State College of Agriculture also gives courses in agricultural and related phases of education to students of college rank. In addition to the above, several denominational colleges and academies are accredited under law to offer educational courses, on the completion of which certificates are granted by the department of education. Finally, several of the larger high schools have begun, in a small way, to offer educational courses for elementary teachers.

The teacher-training program determined largely by legislative enactment.—Neither the normal schools nor the other higher State schools are limited by the legislative acts creating them to preparing a specified grade or grades of teachers. The function of each school has become delimited, largely through statutory legislation, under which students of the several schools may receive professional State and lower grade certificates upon completion of specified courses of study. The State board of regents of education have also followed a consistent policy of limiting the major activities of the normal schools to the large elementary field in education and the other higher State schools to the secondary field. The real anomaly in the educational field are the denominational colleges, which have the legal right to issue certificates, after approval by the State department of education. Some of these schools have virtually the same, and in some respects greater, privileges than have the normal schools, with their much larger professional equipment. That the limitations which are placed upon the schools may not in every respect redound to the best interests of teacher training in the State will appear later in this chapter. Before proceeding with the discussion of the several schools, however, the committee desires to state what appears

to be good national policy in regard to the functions of the several State schools in teacher preparation.

The largest, and in many respects the most important, function of normal schools is to prepare an ample number of rural and other elementary teachers. For this task the normal schools are admirably adapted. Their teaching force and physical equipment have been selected for this purpose, and their general professional atmosphere has developed with this purpose in view, namely, the preparation of elementary teachers. This should not be construed, however, to mean that normal schools may not be permitted to realize the praiseworthy ambition and prepare subject supervisors and even high-school teachers, if they have their chief function well mastered, and if the State otherwise can use the service of the normal schools to good advantage in this field. If, by way of illustration, it appears that the university and colleges of the State, by reason of poor location or for other reason, can not supply the required number of high-school teachers, it would seem only reasonable to encourage one or more of the normal schools to assist in this work, provided, as before stated, that their other more important function be well looked after.

In the eastern States, notably in New England, the line is clearly drawn. Here the normal schools limit their activities to preparing elementary-school teachers. In other sections of the country the lines have not been drawn so close. The explanation is that in the Middle West, West, and to a lesser degree in the South, the normal schools have grown up contemporaneously with the State universities and colleges and have often become well established as the chief institutions for preparing all grades of teachers, while the universities centered their energies on organizing their schools of arts and science. Here and there the normal schools have developed into colleges of education, competing for prestige and patronage with the schools of education in the universities and colleges.

The comparatively large and expensive laboratory equipment required for adequate preparation of high-school teachers, administrators, and supervisors is already at hand in the universities and larger colleges, which is a consideration to be remembered when determining the field and functions of the schools. Without question, the universities and colleges are by reason of their organization and equipment the logical institutions to supply teachers for secondary schools and school administrators and supervisors.

The survey committee wishes to summarize the fundamental purposes and limitations of the teacher-training schools in an average State in the following brief terms:

1. The State normal schools are by organization and educational traditions best fitted to prepare every grade of elementary school teachers. This should be their chief function.

2. The university and college have the equipment and scholastic atmosphere necessary for adequate preparation of teachers for higher grades of work. They should accordingly limit their function to supplying secondary school teachers and school administrators and supervisors.

3. These limitations may be modified so far as the normal schools are concerned to include also preparation of special subject supervisors and even high-school teachers—

(a) Whenever it appears that the normal schools are fully occupying the elementary school field and have the time and equipment to give this type of instruction advantageously; and

(b) Whenever it appears that the universities and colleges of the State can not for good and sufficient reasons alone cope with the problem of supplying these teachers.

The State should determine the functions and limitations of the normal schools and schools of education.—As stated above, each of the South Dakota teacher-training schools has hitherto been held to a definite field of activity indirectly by legislative enactment and directly by decree of the board of regents of education. Unfortunately neither the normal schools nor the university and accredited colleges have been able to supply the large number of teachers that are required to man the schools. The normal schools graduate yearly good size classes for the elementary schools and small high schools, but the numbers are entirely too small to meet the demand. The university and the colleges each year send forth a few teachers who have majored in education in the regular college courses and some who have pursued regular normal school courses.

The tabulation given below contains the whole number of students graduated in 1917. The total number is 686. Of these, however, 125 are not teaching, leaving as net total in the schools 561, or about one-fourth the number required to fill vacancies occurring in the schools. Assuredly, many other teachers have gone out from these institutions during the year, have taken partial courses, or summer-school work; but these can not be classed with the professionally prepared teachers.

TABLE 92.—*Graduates of accredited teach-training schools in South Dakota, 1916-17.*

Institutions.	Total number of graduates	Where teaching.				Total number not teaching.	Total number teaching.
		Rural.	Village.	City.	Place not given.		
Northern Normal and Industrial School.	243	80	45	33	19	66	177
State Normal School, Madison.	133					40	93
State Normal School, Spearfish.	44	22	9		3	10	34
State Normal School, Springfield.	44	25	7	2		10	34
University of South Dakota.	7					0	7
State College of Agriculture.	17					2	15
Dakota Wesleyan University.	31		15			6	22
Huron College.	21	4	4			6	15
Yankton College.	22	5	9			5	17
Lutheran Normal School.	38	25	3			10	28
Augustana College.	23	10	4		3	6	17
Sioux Falls College.	6		2			4	2
Weston Springs Junior College.	27	13	7		4	3	24
Ward Academy.	24	20	4			5	19
Totals.	680	211	112	64	29	176	504

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Normal school control.—The normal schools are under the general control and management of the State board of regents of education. This is preferable to one board for each school. In one respect alone does this board fail to reach the best results of administrative efficiency, viz, in the manner of organizing its standing committees of two members for each higher institution, the chairman of each committee becoming, through professional courtesy, the controlling power in his particular school. This plan of standing committees is provided to expedite business and to look after local details. The survey committee believes that business details of this kind now looked after by the standing committees should be handled through the executive division of the State department of public instruction, whose chief might be made the permanent paid secretary of the regents. It would also be highly desirable that the pay rolls and certain other business matters of the higher institutions be attended to by the regents through the same division. This change is suggested to remedy the prevailing practice of circulating vouchers and other papers for approval and signature, which has been the cause of serious delay in payments of salaries and current expenses. It would also provide the regents with a permanent business office in the State capital.

Location of normal schools and distribution of students.—Two of the normal schools are well located geographically; the other two are, unfortunately, located on the borders of the State and not easily accessible. The Northern Normal and Industrial School is situated at Aberdeen, at the center of a network of railway lines,

organization of its work—the specialized preparation of rural teachers. This school has not attracted students so uniformly from the different counties as has the school at Aberdeen, partly because it has not been so well supported financially, and probably also because it has not taken advantage of its opportunities as they have come.

The State Normal School at Spearfish is the teacher-training school of the Black Hills section of the State, and its drawing power is largely limited to that area. The school is attractively situated, in healthful surroundings. It is difficult to reach by rail, but with the advent of the automobile stage this drawback is no longer of serious consequence.

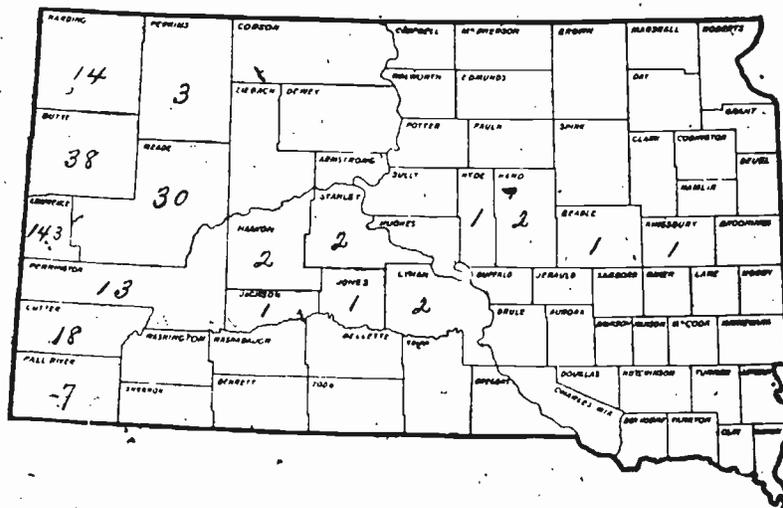


FIG. 25.—Map of South Dakota showing distribution of students in attendance at the State Normal School at Spearfish for the school year 1916-17.

The State Normal School at Springfield is the most unfortunately located of all the schools, lying, as it does, on a little-traveled branch line on the extreme southern border of the State. Its drawing power is decidedly local, a large majority of the student body being from Bon Homme County.

Were it not for the urgent demand for larger and still larger numbers of teachers prepared in normal schools the committee would feel justified in recommending that the school at Springfield be closed, and that the school at Spearfish be moved to a more accessible center in the Black Hills. This matter has been agitated in the State from time to time, probably to the detriment of the schools in question. The committee does not now feel justified in recommending the discontinuance of either of these normal schools.

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respective villages, which further accounts for the large academic student body that does not expect to become teachers.

TABLE 93.—Data pertaining to birthplaces, preparation, and probable teaching position of students in South Dakota normal schools.

Data pertaining to students.	Name of normal school.				Total.
	Aberdeen.	Madison.	Spearfish.	Springfield.	
Number reporting.....	485	250	309	165	1,209
Where born:					
On the farm.....	335	180	160	118	811
In town.....	88	49	126	37	300
In the city.....	41	21	22	9	96
Not reporting.....	0	0	1	1	2
Total.....	485	250	309	165	1,209
Guardian's occupation:					
Farmer.....	337	184	200	120	841
Business.....	85	37	58	24	204
Professional.....	18	9	12	12	51
Artisan.....	31	20	38	8	100
Not reporting.....	11	0	1	1	13
Total.....	485	250	309	165	1,209
Intend to teach:					
Yes.....	377	164	190	121	852
No.....	105	86	110	43	350
Not reporting.....	3	0	3	1	7
Total.....	485	250	309	165	1,209
Intend to make teaching permanent occupation:					
Yes.....	312	164	144	75	695
No.....	142	86	161	49	438
Not reporting.....	31	0	4	41	76
Total.....	485	250	309	165	1,209
Where they expect to teach:					
In the country.....	217	151	142	108	618
In town.....	104	48	44	13	209
Not reporting.....	101	51	123	41	322
Total.....	485	250	309	165	1,209
Kind of teaching:					
Elementary.....	90	67	153	12	322
Intermediate.....	92	11	29	13	145
High school.....	30	16	21	3	70
Rural school.....	157	75	81	63	406
Supervisor.....	11	0	1	0	12
Not reporting.....	105	81	24	44	254
Total.....	485	250	309	165	1,209
Desire to make rural teaching life's calling:					
Yes.....	80	33	154	43	310
No.....	355	166	130	80	731
Not reporting.....	44	51	25	42	162
Total.....	485	250	309	165	1,209
Under changed conditions would make rural teaching life's calling:					
Yes.....	175	89	111	87	462
No.....	206	110	70	33	479
Not reporting.....	44	51	128	45	268
Total.....	485	250	309	165	1,209

The students hope to teach in all grades of schools—rural, other elementary, intermediate, and high school, and as special supervisors. It is noticeable that the largest number expect to *begin* teaching, at least, in rural schools. Perhaps the most outstanding fact in the table is that, while so many were born and reared in the country, very few desire to teach there out of choice. This speaks volumes. But very many more express a desire to teach there under improved educational conditions. Apparently, then, the normal schools will be able to supply many more good rural teachers as soon as the public becomes aware of its responsibilities toward the profession.

Academic preparation and age of the students.—Table 91 gives the academic preparation at admission and age at completing the present course. In a total of 1,209 students, 603 come direct from the eighth grade. This is because many communities have little or no high-school facilities. It is gratifying that the next largest group (254) are graduates from four-year high schools. The ages of the students range according to expectation. Three groups (15, 16, and 17 years) will not yet have reached legal teaching age when the course is assumed to be completed. Many of these, no doubt, belong

From the above study these facts may be deduced:

- (1) Students attending the normal schools do not all expect to teach.
- (2) Very many rural-born students shun teaching in the country, knowing from their own childhood experiences the meagerness of teaching opportunities.
- (3) Many rural-born students would be glad to teach in the country if teaching conditions were improved.
- (4) The normal schools extend a service to communities without high-school facilities which might be done to better advantage by rural high schools, State junior colleges, and denominational colleges.
- (5) The mass of the student body are too young to give the normal schools that atmosphere of maturity and professional seriousness which marks the students in the other State colleges.

TABLE 94.—Data pertaining to entrance qualifications, ages, etc., of South Dakota normal school students.

Qualifications and ages.	Name of normal school.				Total.
	Aberdeen.	Madison.	Spearfish.	Springfield.	
Number of years completed above eighth grade at time of entering normal school:					
None.....	177	127	184	115	603
One.....	41	26	42	25	134
Two.....	60	38	31	11	140
Three.....	22	2	19	6	49
Four.....	163	57	27	7	254
Five.....	12				12
Six.....	4				4
Not reporting.....	6		6	1	13
Total.....	485	250	309	165	1,209
Age at time of completing present course:					
Fifteen.....	2	1	0		3
Sixteen.....	7	5	0	5	17
Seventeen.....	20	27	16	22	85
Eighteen.....	116	81	66	53	316
Nineteen.....	81	57	70	41	252
Twenty.....	90	40	57	19	206
Twenty-one.....	60	16	50	9	135
Twenty-two.....	33	9	21	3	66
Twenty-three.....	31	2	11	4	47
Twenty-four.....	17	2	5	2	26
Twenty-five.....	10	2	6	0	18
Twenty-six.....	2	2	2	1	7
Twenty-seven.....	7				7
Twenty-eight.....	4				4
Twenty-nine.....	3				3
Thirty.....					
Thirty-one.....					
Thirty-two.....					
Thirty-three.....					
Thirty-four.....	1				1
Forty-two.....	1				1
Fifty-four.....			1		1
Not given.....		7	6	3	16
Total.....	485	250	309	165	1,209

Justification for the presence of academic students in the normal schools.—Of the 603 students reporting normal-school entrance direct from the eighth grade, many are registered in the elementary and intermediate courses and expect to become teachers, but a number of students are in attendance to acquire an academic education. The normal schools are justified in making provision for such students coming from communities without high-school facilities, who wish to pursue the normal-school courses, since it would be impossible otherwise to obtain a sufficiently large number of academically prepared students for the professional courses. On the other hand, the normal schools should refuse to accept purely academic students who could just as well acquire instruction elsewhere.

TABLE 95.—List of graduates from the normal schools, 1917, and their present occupations.

Schools.	Course completed.	Present occupations.													
		Enrolled.	Teaching.				Attending school.	Home work.	Married.	Enlisted.	Government service.	Clergyman.	Deceased.	Not given.	Total.
			Rural.	Village.	City.	Place unknown.									
Aberdeen	Advanced.....	60	12	20	15	3	50	3				1	1	5	60
	Normal manual training.	2		1	1		2							0	2
	Normal household arts.	8		2	1	1	4	1	1					2	8
	Drawing supervisors.	3		1	2		3							0	3
	Music supervisors.	1					0	1						0	1
	Primary and kindergarten.	16	2	3	7	3	15	1						1	16
	Advanced industrial.	3			1		1	1	1						3
	Intermediate normal.	98	37	17	6	12	72	5	1	1	1			18	98
Elementary normal.	52	29	1	0	0	30	3	1	1			1	7	52	
Total.....	243	80	45	33	19	177	15	2	3	1	1	1	32	243	
Madison	Advanced.....	14													
	Advanced primary.....	11													
	Intermediate.....	73													
	Elementary.....	33													
Total.....	133														
Spearfish	General.....	4			1	1	1	1	1					0	4
	Advanced.....	37			33	33	1	2	1					0	37
	Commercial.....	2				0	1			1				0	2
	Home economics.....	1				0	1							0	1
Total.....	44														
Springfield	Advanced.....	18			11	11	4	1	1	2				0	18
	Intermediate.....	15			12	12	2		1					0	15
	Elementary.....	11			11	11	1		1					0	11
	Total.....	44			34	34									

It is deemed highly advisable by the survey committee that the students and courses should be reclassified gradually, so that ultimately all students of less than high-school graduation be ranked as prenormal students and grouped in a prenormal academic department. This can be realized as soon as the professional courses are lengthened to one, two, or three years above high-school graduation, instead of, as now, above eighth-year graduation.

Finally, the normal schools at Spearfish and Springfield are justified in furnishing their respective villages with high-school facilities through the medium of their practice schools and the elementary courses, because without this arrangement it would be impossible for either school to maintain its required practice school and because these students pay the required tuition fee.

Uniformity of fundamental courses in all the normal schools.—In 1911 the State legislature enacted a new law relating to granting teachers' certificates. Under its provisions second and first grade certificates, five-year State certificates, and convertible two-year provisional certificates are now issued by the State department of public

instruction to normal school and other accredited school students of prescribed age and attainments without examination. This is a long step in the direction of placing teaching on a professional basis.

The normal-school courses are planned to comply with the requirements of this law. They comprise three main courses—the elementary; intermediate, and advanced. The first of these meets the requirements for the second-grade certificate and embraces two years of study above the eighth grade; the intermediate course leads to first-grade certificate and embraces four years of study above the eighth grade; the advanced course leads to a life certificate and embraces six years above the eighth grade.

The schools, further, have a one-year course for high-school graduates, leading to first-grade certificate. In addition to all these courses, each institution offers certain other courses sanctioned by the regents and approved by the State superintendent. They appear in Table 95, which contains the number enrolled in each course, the kind of school in which teaching, and other occupation if not teaching.

Organization of study courses at Aberdeen.—The Northern Normal and Industrial School was organized in 1901. The object of its establishment was "to give instruction to persons of both sexes in manual training and in the industrial and mechanical trades, arts, and sciences and the allied branches of learning." The act creating the school is comprehensive and might be construed in such broad terms as to make it a competitor of the university and the agricultural college. This would have been unwise in the extreme. Fortunately, whatever ambitions the school may have had under former administrations have been directed wisely by the regents, with the result that the institution is satisfied to develop as a normal school, laying exceptional stress on the industrial subjects. In some particulars, however, the committee believes the school would do well to modify its study courses. The following is a statement of the present study courses:

ADVANCED.

(Six years from eighth grade.)

Normal, leading to diploma of graduation and to the State certificate and life diploma.

- (a) General course.
- (b) Normal-manual training.
- (c) Normal-music supervisor.
- (d) Normal-household arts.
- (e) Normal-drawing supervisor.
- (f) Normal-primary and kindergarten.

Industrial, leading to diploma of graduation and accrediting to junior university standing.

- (a) General course.
- (b) Manual training.
- (c) Domestic arts.

INTERMEDIATE.

(Four years from eighth grade.)

Normal, leading to second-grade teachers' certificate, valid for three years.
Industrial, preparatory to technical or engineering courses.

ELEMENTARY.

(Two years from eighth grade.)

Normal, leading to second-grade teachers' certificate, valid for two years.
Industrial:

- (a) Trade courses.
- (b) Commercial course (may be completed in 36 weeks).
- (c) School of agriculture (may be completed in winter terms comprising 38 weeks).

These courses have been approved by the State board of regents of education and by the department of public instruction, subject to the following general regulations:

On permission of the committee on extra credits, students may take 25 hours' work each quarter, this being the maximum amount permitted in any case. Thus the way is opened for 15 hours' additional elective work each year. (Regents' resolution and educational department ruling.)

These differentiated courses, which are taken from the 1916-17 calendar of the school, group all subjects as "normal" and "industrial" with subdivisions under advanced, intermediate, and elementary courses.

The general advanced course in the normal group represents six years of study above the eighth grade and "leads to full junior standing in the leading universities." The committee believes that this course should be abandoned. Young people who plan to attend university or college should enter those institutions as freshmen. Moreover, as a normal school is a unique, professional school, differing in aim from the purely academic institutions, it can in no sense be considered as a college preparatory school.

Subcourses b, c, d; e, f in the normal group are all advanced six-year courses, intended to prepare teachers and supervisors in these subjects. The equipment of the school is ample for this particular phase of school work, which is done so meagerly in the other higher institutions that the committee believes all these courses ought to be retained and strengthened by increasing, gradually, the entrance and graduation requirements, as discussed elsewhere.

The intermediate and elementary normal courses are discussed later under "Proposed courses and standards." The industrial courses are seven in number, including advanced, general manual training, and household arts courses of six years above eighth grade preparing for junior university standing, and several other intermediate and elementary courses of a commercial and trade-course nature. There is finally a school of agriculture, of 20 weeks' duration.

It is accordingly recommended by the committee that all the industrial courses be discontinued after the present war emergency has passed, and the equipment and facilities be utilized wholly for the industrial phases of the normal-school courses.

Organization of study courses at Spearfish.—This normal school maintains well-adapted advanced, intermediate, and elementary normal courses, as well as a three-year commercial course, and agriculture and industrial short courses of three years of 18 weeks each and a two-year vocational course for dressmakers and milliners.

It is unquestionably eagerness to serve their constituencies and a fear that people may otherwise go untaught that have tempted this and other normal schools to reach out and do work which does not legitimately belong in teacher-training schools. The committee believes that the vocational courses enumerated above have no legitimate place in a State normal school. It should be understood, however, that it is not the committee's intention to eliminate commercial, agricultural, and other industrial and vocational subjects from this or any other normal school, but rather to redirect the purpose of these subjects. Every normal school in the State should require a certain amount of instruction in bookkeeping, in farm accounting, in agriculture, etc., but the purpose should be to provide the State with better teachers rather than with expert accountants and professional milliners and agriculturists.

For this reason the committee recommends that all courses in the school not planned for teachers be discontinued.

Organization of study courses at Madison and Springfield.—These schools adhere quite closely to the courses of study outlined to meet the certification law of 1911. In addition to the professional two, four, and six year courses described above, Madison offers a two-year primary and kindergarten course for high-school graduates or the equivalent. The school is well equipped to do this work. Madison also offers a two-year course for rural teachers, open to eighth-year graduates. This course is too brief to prepare the right type of rural teacher. Furthermore, it is a course on paper only, as the school has not yet employed the necessary rural expert to have charge of the course, and no students are enrolled. The rural course should be reorganized and strengthened in accordance with the recommendations given later in this chapter.

Springfield offers, in addition to the regular elementary, intermediate, and advanced courses, a business course and special music instruction. The business course as advertised "gives to those who wish to engage in business pursuits an opportunity to fit themselves in a practical manner," etc. This goes clearly beyond the province of a normal school. The course should be discontinued, and the commercial subjects adapted to the needs of the regular professional

students. All students should have an opportunity to include much public-school music in their courses and even to take private lessons; but the committee is inclined to think that private instruction is carried to an extreme in this school and urges that the tendency be curbed.

During the year several hundred teachers came to the State who had received their preparation in other States. However, these are offset by an almost equally large number of teachers leaving this State to teach in other States. To say, then, that 1,500 teaching recruits go into the schools annually with little or no professional preparation is probably not overstating the case, although final data are not available.

The State needs annually about 150 high-school teachers. A very small number were supplied by the university and the State college. The denominational colleges supplied a larger number, most of whom had had little or no real practice teaching. This educational field is not fully occupied. The normal schools send a fair per cent of their graduates into rural schools; the rest go into village and town schools and the nonaccredited high schools. But the numbers are wholly inadequate.

The best interests of the State seem to demand that—

(a) The facilities for preparing teachers in the normal schools be greatly enlarged; that to this end one normal school devote its energies chiefly to preparing rural teachers, and three schools to rural and other elementary teachers and subject supervisors.

(b) The best high schools in the State be authorized to prepare elementary teachers (see Chapter XIX) to provide elementary schools with the required number of teachers.

Proposed standards for the normal school.—When the nonprofessional courses are eliminated the normal schools can concentrate all their efforts on improving the regular normal-school courses. The professionalization of the teaching staff must ultimately be decided by, or at least through, the normal schools. The way to procure a permanent staff of good teachers is, paradoxical as it may seem, to increase entrance requirements and lengthen courses of study. For a person who invests a good measure of time and money in his professional education will be loath to abandon his own calling for other callings, as is such a temptation to people who have made no real sacrifice in preparation for this life work.

The committee proposes at this juncture to restate and lay down for the guidance of South Dakota a few of the standards that have been formulated by the United States Bureau of Education and set down as reasonable guides for other States:

1. The State should require certain definite academic and professional attainments of all teachers.
2. The entrance requirements of the State normal schools should gradually be raised to graduation from a four-year accredited high-school course.
3. The lowest grade of certificate to be issued by the normal schools after 1924 should represent two years above high-school graduation. After 1925 the normal-school diploma should be given only to those who have finished satisfactorily a full course of three years.
4. The ultimate standard of attainment for all persons teaching in the State should be graduation from an accredited four-year high school and at least two years of professional preparation.
5. The process of elimination should be gradual, to permit teachers in service to meet the new requirements without undue hardship.
6. The normal schools should organize thoroughgoing extension courses for the teachers in service.
7. The normal schools of this agricultural State should recognize a special obligation to provide appropriately trained teachers for rural communities.
8. The normal schools should offer differentiated courses of study representing two and three years above high-school graduation.
9. The principal function of the normal schools should be the preparation of elementary teachers for the rural and other elementary schools, while the principal function of the departments of education in the university and the colleges should be the preparation of high-school teachers.

Recommendations for securing these standards.—To secure the establishment of the first six of these standards the committee recommends:

(a) That, beginning with the fall term of the school year 1920-21, the first year of all the courses (being the ninth year in the public-school course) as now given be discontinued, and that for that year the minimum requirement for admission to any regular course of the normal schools be made the completion of one full year of the course of an accredited high school or its equivalent.

(b) That, beginning with the fall term of the school year 1921-22, the second year of all the courses of study as now given be discontinued, and that each year thereafter an additional year shall be discontinued until by the fall term of the school year 1924-25 only graduates from fully accredited high schools, or the equivalent, be admitted to the regular courses in the State normal schools.

(c) That when the new entrance requirements begin to be realized the State normal schools may organize prenormal-school departments of an academic nature for students from sections of the State without good high-school facilities, provided that these prenormal-school departments be abandoned as soon as high-school distribution shall have become ample.

(d) That after the close of the spring session of 1924 all normal-school certificates or credentials given for the completion of courses representing less than two years of study after the completion of a high-school course of four years be discontinued.

(e) That after the close of the spring term of 1925 the two-year course normal-school diploma be awarded for the completion of a two-year full course above high-school graduation, and that the advanced normal-school diploma be awarded for completion of three-year courses above high-school graduation only.

(f) That, since there are in the service of the rural and other elementary schools of the State many teachers of less academic and professional preparation than will be required by the higher standards in use after 1925, special provision be made at the summer sessions of the normal schools for these teachers, and that such irregular courses be offered as may be necessary to meet their needs.

(g) That all such teachers be required to attend the summer session of some normal school, university, or accredited college to attain the new standards; or, in lieu thereof, to meet these standards through study at the study centers organized for this purpose (see next paragraph below).

Training of teachers in service.—The responsibility of the normal schools does not stop with the graduation of their teachers-in-training. If teaching is to be a definite profession, the teacher-in-service must continue to receive professional direction from the normal schools. To this end each of the four South Dakota normal schools should organize an extension service, each operating within its own normal-school extension district, the boundaries of which may be determined by the State board of regents or by the administrative heads of the four schools. The purpose of this extension service should be twofold: (1) To assist all teachers now in service to attain the gradually increasing requirements under the new standards. (2) To provide advanced work for normal-school graduates now in service.

It would be unfair for the State to require the higher certification standards proposed above and not to offer the means by which these requirements could be attained without temporarily abandoning the teaching field. Some of the teachers in the service of the State are mature instructors with families and others depending on them for support, which would prohibit actual school attendance on their part. To reach this large group of teachers is the primary purpose in recommending an extension service in the normal schools. The committee feels that this extension work can be made an important part of the normal-school service to the State. A director of extension should be appointed for each school with a sufficient number of assistants to establish week-end study centers within convenient reach of the teachers.

A similar extension service has recently been recommended by the Bureau of Education in its surveys of the educational systems of Washington, North Dakota, and Arizona. The details of the service must be conducted in the manner best suited to the needs of each

extension district and the State. The committee believe that a modified form of the so-called "Iowa plan" organized by the Iowa State Teachers' College for that State, would meet the South Dakota requirements.

Advanced work for graduates.—Graduates from the professional courses of the several State normal schools receive a normal-school diploma granted for life, which entitles the holder to teach without examination in any public school in South Dakota. Unfortunately, graduation from a normal school, however good, is no guarantee that the students will make successful teachers. Certain European countries never grant permanent certificates until the candidate has served a successful apprenticeship of two or more years, during which much time must be devoted to professional reading under Government direction. The committee believes that the professional standards of all teachers would be greatly improved if provisional licenses only were granted on the basis of normal-school diplomas, but that these licenses should be converted into life certificates after the graduates shall have proved both their ability to teach and their willingness and ability to carry forward cultural and professional study without the constant oversight of teachers and other school helps. To this end the committee recommends an extension service for normal-school graduates much like the service proposed by the Bureau of Education in its educational surveys of Washington, North Dakota, and Arizona, namely:

(1) That for all graduates of the normal schools who hold diplomas valid as certificates to teach in the State the State department of public instruction shall, with the assistance of the presidents of the normal schools and the heads of the departments of education in the university, prepare thoroughgoing courses of study, including both professional and cultural subjects, which may be completed within a period of three years from the time of beginning study; that examinations on portions of these courses be held from time to time; and that no person receive a permanent license to teach in the public schools of the State until after he has passed a final examination in all courses prescribed; the final examination should be passed not earlier than two nor later than five years after the time of leaving the normal school.

(2) That State, county, and city superintendents and supervisors be required to give special attention to young teachers who are pursuing these prescribed courses of study and have not yet received a permanent license to teach. Before granting the permanent license to any teacher the State department of public instruction should require a statement that such teacher has passed a satisfactory examination on the prescribed course of study, and also a specific report from a qualified superintendent, supervisor, or inspector that this

teacher has taught satisfactorily not less than 16 months in the schools of the State. And this report should be accompanied by detailed records of the work done within the past eight months, showing its excellence and defects.

(3) That the same policy in regard to permanent licenses to teach in the elementary schools of the State be pursued with teachers entering the service from other States. The first license granted to any such teacher should be a temporary license.

Specialized departments in which to prepare rural teachers.—The State requires about five rural teachers for each one needed in the towns and cities. The educational needs of the rural-school teachers have already been alluded to elsewhere, but the subject is important enough to warrant special discussion.

The tragic mistake has been to assume that rural teachers can get along with less preparation than is needed elsewhere. Consequently, inexperienced, immature, and half-taught persons have been pushed out into rural districts to teach, with the result that rural schools in many places do not provide the kind of education required by its patrons. It is not sufficient, therefore, that teachers in rural schools should have as much general education and professional skill as teachers in the elementary grades in town schools. In addition they need a wider range of knowledge in many subjects not necessary for the elementary teachers in town schools. Rural teachers must understand the underlying problems of country life and must have correct vision and point of view and zeal to undertake the trying tasks of modern rural teaching. This calls for many-sided specialized preparation which can not be acquired in the general pedagogical courses. Specialized departments in charge of rural life experts are necessary if the schools would solve this important problem. The courses offered must be practical and contain all the sciences that pertain to rural life; moreover, the courses must be made at least as long in time as the advanced courses preparing for teaching in town. Land and laboratories are needed in which to apply the course of study. There should also be a rural practice school of the consolidated type established in connection with each normal school, and other near-by rural schools might profitably be organized for rural observation purposes.

Teaching staff and class organization.—The following summary (Table 93) giving (1) the number of regular instructors, (2) salaries for the regular school year of three terms, (3) the average number of different subjects taught, (4) the average number of class periods per week for each instructor, (5) the average number of students per hours, and (6) the average number of student clock hours per week, furnishes an exact basis for a comparative study of the four State normal schools.

TABLE 93.—Number, salary, and class work of the instructors of normal schools of South Dakota.

Normal schools.	Number of regular instructors.	Average salary for regular school year.	Average number of subjects taught.	Average number of recitations per week.	Average number of students per class.	Average student clock hours per week.	Critic teacher and others not classed as regular.	Average salary of those not classed as regular instructors.
Aberdeen.....	33	\$1,383.58	3+	18	27	410	2	\$410
Madison.....	15	1,456.67	3+	14	35	466	14	374
Spearfish.....	23	1,293.50	3+	24	31	601	12	880
Springfield.....	4	1,121.43	3+	16	17	271	7	321
Average.....	21	1,313.77	3+	18	28	437	9	496

The table should be studied in the light of the following standards for normal schools now generally accepted by students of education who have given serious study to the internal administration of this class of schools:

(1) The average salary of regular instructors should approach \$2,000 per annum; the salary of practice school-teachers should approach \$1,800.

(2) The number of classroom clock hours per instructor should not exceed 20 per week.

(3) The number of students per class should not exceed 30 or 35, except in lecture work.

(4) The average number of student clock hours carried by an instructor may reach 300 and 400, the reasonable load in any case being determined by the kind of work required.

The summary distinguishes between regular normal school instructors and critic teachers, assistants, part-time teachers, etc. Aberdeen has the largest number of regular instructors, and Springfield the smallest. The salaries average very low throughout and should be scaled up to the standards laid down in the preceding paragraph. The average number of subjects is about what it ought to be, as the schools are organized on a reasonably definite departmental basis.

The number of recitations per instructor average only 18 per week, which is less than the standard load. Spearfish alone averages above the standard. The same may be said about the average number of students per class. None can be considered too large, and Springfield carries classes that are unusually small. The average number of student clock hours is too high at Spearfish, because the instructors carry more than the standard requirement of recitations. Springfield is not running at full capacity; the other two schools carry about the correct load of student clock hours, although the figures are somewhat high, due to the large number of physical culture and music students included in the tables.

From the above it appears:

- (1) That the normal school staffs are greatly underpaid.
- (2) That staff members can not be said to be overloaded with work; indeed, the standards being about right with the exception of Springfield, which operates at about two-thirds capacity, due to the small number of students in attendance.

Section 3. MAINTENANCE, PHYSICAL EQUIPMENT, AND PRESENT NEEDS OF THE SOUTH DAKOTA NORMAL SCHOOLS.

(A) THE NORTHERN NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.

Physical equipment.—The general equipment of this school is adequate for good instruction. The grounds comprise 25 acres, situated on the outskirts of Aberdeen, platted to lawns, shrubbery, agricultural experiment plats, playgrounds, etc. Six buildings are used for school purposes, two being dormitories, devoted entirely to the use of young women. The central building contains laboratories, classrooms, and the library collections. The administration building, as signified in the name, contains the executive offices, and in addition the auditorium, post office, book store, home economics, kitchen and serving rooms, and recitation rooms. The manual arts building contains the school's well-equipped wood and metal shops, tool and stock room, forge shop, foundry, drafting room, gymnasium, and other rooms and equipment. This building is exceptionally well adapted for advanced industrial work, as well as for the type of manual training required in the public schools. The central heating plant is well equipped with high-pressure boilers, which are ample for all purposes. This school has no practice school equipment on the premises, as all practice teaching is done in the Aberdeen public schools.

Additional equipment needed.—This school has unquestionably received more liberal appropriations than any other normal school in the State, although it has not had any too much. A liberal treatment of all the normal schools is the best policy for the legislature to follow. These schools must be assisted in every way to expand and attract more students. The Northern Normal and Industrial School should have certain definite equipment for future enlargement. This includes:

- (1) A new auditorium and gymnasium.
- (2) Remodeling the old dormitory for women.
- (3) A rural practice school.
- (4) Increased library facilities, equipment, and books.

Plans should be made for one substantial building to be used as auditorium and gymnasium. The present assembly hall should be converted into library quarters, and the present library transferred.

from the central building where the present quarters are needed for classrooms. The gymnasium is too small and poorly located for present needs. The space now occupied by the gymnasium could be used to good advantage by the industrial classes. For the new building \$200,000 would be needed.

The woman's building could be remodeled and modernized at an outlay of about \$10,000.

The most urgent need of the school is, however, rural practice school facilities. Since the biggest present task of the normal schools is to supply many well-prepared rural teachers, each of the four schools should be provided with good practice school plants of the consolidated type. Aberdeen should acquire the triangular tract of 15 acres adjacent to the athletic field. Here should be erected a model two-room school, with full basement, and a model teachers' cottage, both structures complying with the suggestions for ideal school plants discussed elsewhere in the report. It would be highly desirable for the school to enter into a cooperative agreement with the Aberdeen township board to consolidate its three one-room schools at the proposed model school.

(B) THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT MADISON.

Physical equipment:—The school is hampered for lack of ample financial support and up-to-date equipment. The school boasts an excellent training-school building, a good gymnasium, and an adequate heating plant. The rest of the plant and equipment is wholly inadequate. Aside from the buildings mentioned above, the school utilizes the so-called east wing and west wing for recitation rooms, laboratories, library, auditorium, and administration purposes. Another building is used as dormitory for young women.

The library collection is small (4,000 volumes) and poorly housed. A definite annual appropriation of not less than \$750 is necessary to get the collection brought up to date. This school has no equipment for manual training and shopwork, if one leaves out of consideration one poorly equipped cellar room not worth mentioning. The auditorium is small and difficult of access. The exit is badly planned and dangerous.

Additional equipment and teaching staff needed at Madison.—(1) The plan of the school authorities has been from the first to connect the east and west wings by a central main building. This is an excellent idea for a State like South Dakota, with its severe winter weather. The committee recommends that a large central building be erected at a cost of about \$200,000, between the present wings and connected to them by fireproof protected passageways. The new building should be fireproof throughout, and should be planned to house the administration offices, the library, a number of recitation

rooms, and the auditorium. This readjustment would allow ample space for industrial work in one of the present wings.

(2) This school should devote all its energies to preparing elementary-school teachers, including rural teachers, since it lies in the heart of a great agricultural section. To this end the normal school must establish a practical rural practice school. A school plant is recommended, identical with that recommended for Aberdeen. The normal-school campus contains 20 acres. It is urged that 20 acres lying near by (which the committee understands can be procured now at a reasonable price) be purchased and used for rural school plant and agricultural experimentation.

(3) The following staff members should be added without further delay: An expert to organize the rural school department, a manual-training director, one assistant in home economics, one instructor in public-school music, one critic teacher, and one additional janitor.

(C) THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT SPEARFISH.

Physical equipment.—The school plant is composed of four large buildings and a central heating plant set in 80 acres of land used for grounds and school farm. This school is fortunate in having its own school farm of 70 acres. This is sure to play an important part in the future rural teacher training at the school. The main building is large and well equipped. The laboratories and classroom equipment are very satisfactory. The library is the most complete (19,000 volumes) in any of the normal schools. The Wenona Cook Hall, or Young Women's Hall, while on the whole well planned, should be supplied with fire escapes without delay. The training-school building is a satisfactory structure.

The gymnasium and auditorium (under construction) as planned is a splendid structure; but, unfortunately, the present appropriation is insufficient to complete it. The exterior aspect of the building, at least, will be unattractive until the whole is completed according to the original plans.

Needed improvements.—The following improvements are recommended by the committee as essential:

- (1) An additional appropriation of \$60,000 to complete the gymnasium building according to original plans and specifications.
- (2) A rural practice school of the consolidated type, to be erected at a cost of \$7,500, and a home for its teachers to cost \$3,500.
- (3) An appropriation of \$10,000 to complete platting and planting the school grounds, which have received little attention in the past.
- (4) An appropriation sufficient to install new steam boiler to adequately heat the school buildings.

(D) THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AT SPRINGFIELD.

Physical equipment.—The grounds of this normal school comprise 20 acres of land on an elevation overlooking the town and the Missouri Valley. The school has just procured, through purchase, an additional tract of land suitable for rural practice grounds.

The present plant includes a substantial main building (the central section and one wing only completed), a young women's dormitory, a new building used for science classrooms and gymnasium, and a central heating plant.

Needed additions and improvements.—The committee recommends the following additions and improvements for the school at Springfield:

- (1) Erection of wing to complete the main building.
- (2) Construction of a second building to be used as dormitory and dining hall.
- (3) Construction of a complete rural practice school.

The regents should dedicate this normal school to the special function of preparing rural teachers. This calls for much land for experimentation and good laboratory equipment. It requires also good school "home" for the teachers in charge.

The main building can be completed at an outlay of \$50,000; \$10,000 additional required for remodeling the rest of the building. At the present time the school is obliged to house its home economics department and art department in the subbasement of the old building. This is bad.

The dormitory is overcrowded, 91 girls residing in a building planned for 80. Such a new building can probably be erected for \$50,000.

Finally, \$7,500 should be appropriated for a two-room consolidated rural practice school and \$3,500 for a teachers' cottage and community house, both of which should be erected on the 18 acres of land described above.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

1. The enlargement of the facilities for preparing teachers in the normal schools. That to this end—

(a) The normal school at Springfield devote its energies chiefly to preparing rural teachers.

(b) The normal schools at Madison and Spearfish devote their energies chiefly to preparing rural and other elementary teachers and special-subject supervisors.

(c) The Northern Normal and Industrial School at Aberdeen devote its energies to preparing rural and other elementary teachers and supervisors, including supervisors of industrial subjects.

2. The gradual increase of entrance requirements to graduation from an accredited four-year high school.

3. The granting of no normal-school certificates after the spring session of 1924 for less than the completion of two years of normal-school work above high-school graduation.

4. The award after the spring session of 1925 of a two-year course normal-school diploma for the completion of the two-year course above high-school graduation, and of the advanced normal-school diploma for completion of three years above high-school graduation.

5. The provision by the normal schools for differentiated courses of study of two and three years above high-school graduation.

6. The establishment of special summer and irregular courses to enable teachers in service to fulfill the new academic and professional requirements.

7. The division of the State into extension-service districts, one for each normal school, within which each normal school shall organize an extension service for the teachers of the State.

8. The preparation of courses of study for the further training of teachers in service, the satisfactory completion of which shall be necessary to secure a permanent license to teach.

9. The organization of specialized rural school departments in connection with each of the normal schools.

10. Liberal increase in the salaries of all normal-school instructors.

11. More liberal financial support of all the normal schools, to enable them to reach the largest possible number of future teachers.

The commission believes that the preparation of teachers for elementary schools, whether in rural communities or in towns or cities, should be just as thorough as for high schools, and that the ultimate training should include four years of work beyond the high school. How rapidly this standard shall be approached in South Dakota the commission can not foresee. As to how rapidly the courses of study in the normal schools should be lengthened to four years the commission is not prepared to make a recommendation. The constituency of the student body attending the normal schools and the means available for the support of the normal schools are conditioning factors which the regents of education will bear in mind. The foregoing recommendations do not in any way preclude the possibility of enhancing and extending the work of the normal schools beyond the minimum limits here prescribed.

Chapter XIX.

PREPARATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS—THE UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGES.

Section 1. THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH DAKOTA.

Purpose of the department.—The purpose of the department of education, as expressed by the university authorities—

is to furnish adequate facilities for the study of the science of education and the art of teaching. It is designed to fit teachers, supervisors, principals, and superintendents for the schools of the State, though its courses are open to anyone interested in the work of education.

At the time of the survey 161 persons who are teaching in the public schools, normal schools, or colleges of the State hold degrees from the University of South Dakota or have taken courses in the university. These teachers may be summarized as follows:

(a) Thirty-nine superintendents and principals and fifty-nine teachers who hold degrees or are working for advanced degrees and teaching in high schools, normal schools, or colleges of the State.

(b) Twenty-nine superintendents and principals and ten teachers, who are undergraduates of the university, teaching in the high schools of the State on State certificates.

(c) Twenty-nine superintendents and principals and ten teachers, schools of the State on State certificates.

Of the 161 teachers 19 are members of normal school, college, and university faculties and 4 have resigned for war duties. This leaves 138 in the public schools, 11 of whom are elementary-school teachers. The net total is 127 superintendents, principals, and high-school teachers employed in the State, or about 15 per cent of the actual number required to supply secondary schools. Furthermore, not all of the 127 teachers have come into the high schools through the department of education of the university, although probably most of them have had some courses in education. From this it can be seen that the university has only barely touched the problem of preparing teachers for secondary schools.

Number and distribution of students enrolled in education.—The number of students taking courses in education the first semester of 1917-18 was 141, distributed as follows: South Dakota, 131; Iowa, 9; Nebraska, 1.

Distribution of South Dakota students in education, by counties.

Beadle	1	Grant	1	Moody	2
Bonhomme	4	Gregory	4	Pennington	1
Brown	3	Hughes	3	Roberts	1
Brule	1	Hutchinson	1	Sanborn	6
Charles Mix	8	Jerauld	1	Shannon	1
Clark	1	Kingsbury	2	Spink	5
Clay	32	Lake	2	Turner	1
Codington	6	Lawrence	2	Union	5
Davison	2	Lincoln	5	Yankton	1
Day	1	McCook	6		
Douglas	4	Marshall	1	Total	131
Edmunds	1	Meade	2		
Faulk	5	Minnehaha	9		

The courses offered by the department of education the first semester of 1917-18 and the number of students enrolled in each were as follows:

	Students.
Course 1. Fundamental conceptions of education.....	80
Course 3. Principles of education.....	39
Course 7. Measuring results of teaching.....	6
Course 9. Theory and practice of teaching in elementary schools.....	29
Course 11. Theory and practice of teaching in secondary schools.....	9
Course 17. School administration and supervision.....	2
Course 25. Teaching processes.....	18
Course 27. Interest, motivation, and appreciation.....	7

Of these courses all but 17, 25, and 27 are elementary or introductory. The eight courses were given by a staff of two professors and two assistants, who, in addition, devote much time to extension teaching.

Future policy.—The committee is convinced that the time is opportune to reorganize the present department of education as a school of education in charge of a capable dean and an ample staff of professors and assistants. The school of education should occupy a building of its own, well furnished with laboratory equipment and other facilities required in a modern school of education. In this should be housed also the university practice school of high-school rank. It is essential that the students pursuing educational courses have access to such a well-organized practice school. Now, all students who have had teaching experience are excused from practice teaching; all others acquire some experience in the Vermillion high school. The present system, however, does not give the teachers in

training such adequate or systematic practice experience as they should have.

With its department of education reorganized as here proposed, the university should be able to overcome the drawbacks of poor geographical location and furnish the State with an annually increasing number of administrators, supervisors, and high-school teachers.

Section 2. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN THE STATE COLLEGE.

Present status.—The department of education in the State college is of recent origin, and is still in the process of organization. The department is organized for the purpose of preparing principals and superintendents for the agricultural and industrial high schools, and teachers of agriculture, home economics, and manual training.

As can best be seen from the list of graduates for 1917 (p. 225) who elected courses in education, the department does not yet occupy the place it should have in supplying teachers of vocational subjects, and administrators and supervisors for the new kind of rural schools proposed in this survey, the organization of which is likely to be hastened by the standards set up under the Smith-Hughes Act.

Policy of expansion.—It is definitely settled that the State college will prepare all the teachers for the secondary schools taking advantage of the agricultural-education provision in the Smith-Hughes Act, and at least some of the teachers in home economics. If the recommendations of the survey committee are adopted, the State college will probably prepare all the latter class teachers.

The atmosphere of the agricultural college and its large equipment make this an ideal place in which to prepare not alone the vocational teachers spoken of above, but also principals of the large consolidated and rural high schools and continuation schools urged by the committee.

At the present time a single professor is employed in this department. It should be the policy of the school to enlarge the department. It should be the policy of the school to enlarge the department as rapidly as is consistent with public demands. The committee recommends that the following organization be consummated immediately:

1. That the department be placed in charge of, a professor of education and director of the department (who shall conduct the courses in educational theory and practice).

2. That there be appointed to assist him (a) one specialist of agricultural education; (b) one specialist of home economics education; and (c) one specialist of rural education.

Section 3. EDUCATIONAL COURSES IN ACCREDITED COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES.

Legislative provisions.—Under the provisions of sections 13 and 14 of the school laws of South Dakota the State department of public instruction has approved the work of certain denominational schools in the State and has placed these schools on equal terms with the State schools in the matter of receiving State certificates.

Section 13, on life diplomas, provides that—

a life diploma from the State university or from any approved college having a regular course of study, in which at least four years above an approved high-school course are required, may be accepted in lieu of an examination in the subjects named, if the applicant has in his college course pursued one course of pedagogical studies and pedagogical professional training, comprising at least one-fourth work during at least 18 months.

Under this section the following institutions have been placed on the accredited list: Augustana College, Dakota Wesleyan University, Huron College, Sioux Falls College, Yankton College.

These schools are also accredited under section 14, providing for the issue of State certificates.

Section 14 of the school law provides that—

a diploma from any State normal school in South Dakota, having a course in which at least two years' work above an approved four-year high-school course is required, may be accepted in lieu of an examination in the subjects named: *Provided further*, That a diploma from any other school having a course of study equivalent in extent and similar in character may be accepted in lieu of an examination in the subjects named.

Provided further, That applicants for State certificate, upon normal or other school credentials, must show that the course of study pursued therein contained a course of at least 18 months of pedagogy and professional training, comprising at least one-fourth said time.

Under this section the following institutions have been accredited, in addition to the five enumerated above: Lutheran normal and Wessington Springs junior college.

In addition to the courses for State certificates, these two schools offer courses leading to first and second grade certificates. Notre Dame Academy and Ward Academy likewise offer courses leading to first and second grade certificates.

Annual teacher discessions from the accredited colleges.—Table 97 shows that 47 students in the accredited colleges completed the required pedagogical and professional courses entitling them to life diplomas; 37 others completed the six-year course for the five-year State certificate. In all, 192 students completed one or another of the four-certificate courses. Of these, 144 are teaching the present year.

TABLE 97.—*Graduates in education from accredited denominational colleges and academics, 1917.*

Institutions.	Life diploma.	State certificate.	First-grade certificate.	Second-grade certificate.	Total number teaching in 1917-18.
Augustana College.....			13	10	17
Dakota Wesleyan University.....	19	12			22
Huron College.....	15	6			15
Sioux Falls College.....	2	4			1
Yankton College.....	11	11			17
Lutheran Normal School.....		3	9	26	28
Wessington Springs Junior College.....		1	11	15	24
Ward Academy.....			10	14	20
Total.....	47	37	43	65	144

It is evident from these data that the denominational schools are taking an important part in the preparation of teachers for the schools of the State, which ought to be encouraged in every possible way by the State authorities.

Policy of inspecting and re-accrediting the denominational schools.—

It is vitally important that the State authorities which have placed these schools on the accredited lists should also exercise the authority of inspection over them, so far as their facilities for teacher training are concerned. The committee believes that former State superintendents have been too ready to grant the right of accrediting, and that as a result several schools enjoy this important function which are not adequately equipped for the work. It is not the purpose to go into details of all the weaknesses discovered. Attention is, however, called to the following facts:

1. Augustana College is only a junior college and should no longer be accredited for life diploma under the four-year college course.
2. Dakota Wesleyan University, Huron College, and Yankton College rank in a class by themselves, and are the only colleges fitted, by reason of teaching staff, laboratory and library equipment, etc., to grant the life diploma on equal terms with the State schools.
3. The colleges now accredited to offer courses leading to life diplomas and State certificates do not have the equipment (practice school, etc.) to instruct elementary school teachers which most of the six-year course teachers become.
4. The equipment of the schools that limit their courses to the State certificate and the first and second grade certificates, or first and second grade certificates only, is generally too meager. This refers particularly to training-school facilities and professional libraries.
5. The accredited schools that offer courses for certificates similar to the courses given in the normal schools should gradually raise their entrance requirements and lengthen their courses to comply with the standards set for the normal schools (see page 287).

Section 4. PROPOSED TEACHER-TRAINING DEPARTMENTS IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

In a total of 9,250 students enrolled in the South Dakota high schools, only 280 students study teaching subjects. Despite this fact, more than 25 per cent of these students teach without further preparation. This is a bad practice. The high schools have a real opportunity to stimulate a better professional attitude among the young people, with the ultimate result of hastening the raising of standards and building up the attendance at the normal schools.

What schools should offer training courses.—The committee believes that only a limited number of fully accredited high schools should be authorized to offer teacher-training courses. As a beginning the privilege might be limited to the 19 high schools in Group I (see page 187). However, the ultimate aim should be to establish one such school in each organized county. Teaching staffs, courses of study, and equipment of these schools should be approved by the State department of public instruction and should receive State aid for their training departments. The work should be organized as a fifth or graduate year, and it should be understood that this is only a temporary expedient. As soon as possible the normal schools should be so enlarged as to enable them to prepare a sufficient number of teachers for all elementary schools.

The committee accordingly makes the following specific recommendations:

1. That the State legislature appropriate \$40,000 for the biennium 1919-20 to aid in establishing and maintaining teacher-training departments organized as fifth-year courses in connection with four-year high schools approved by the State department of public instruction.
2. That no school shall receive more than \$1,000 per annum.

The following course is planned for fifth-year study in high schools organizing teacher-training departments:

FIRST TERM. 12 hours.	Total hours per week.
Practical introductions to teaching.....	4
<p>A simple course embodying such principles of education and of teaching as will aid the teacher-in-training to orient himself and get a grasp of the fundamental principles which should precede observation and practice teaching and special methods and rural school management. The course is necessarily elementary; little attempt is made to stress the physical facts underlying the principles of teaching.</p>	
English	4
<p>A course in English language, including grammar, oral and written composition, and spelling. The presupposition is that the students have already acquired a reasonable good English equipment in their high-school course. The present course is intended to intensify the work done in high school, and particularly to emphasize the special phases of English that should be taught in elementary rural schools—how best to teach composition; how much, when, and where to teach grammar; and how to teach and how much to include of spelling.</p>	

	Total hours per week.
Nature study-agriculture-----	4
<p>A course intended as an approach to the central subject in every rural curriculum, i. e., agriculture, from the educational and spiritual, rather than the occupational, point of view. The first term is devoted largely to the general environment in which rural children live, and to a study of plants, birds, insects, etc., with practical methods of presentation, for the purpose of placing children in harmony with the nature environment where they live, to the end that they may learn to love and honor the land.</p>	
Rural health and sanitation-----	2
<p>A comprehensive course, including personal hygiene, school sanitation, and home and community sanitation. It emphasizes the teacher's own health and the influence of the pupil's health on study and school progress. Much time is devoted to the principles of school sanitation, including ventilation, heating, lighting, communicable diseases, etc. About one-fourth of the time is given to farm-home sanitation and sanitary living, with emphasis on water supply, sewage disposal, air, food, and clothing.</p>	
Observation and practice teaching-----	4
<p>Local elementary and near-by rural schools to be used as laboratory, as prerequisites for best results in this course. Fully two-thirds of the time of this term is devoted to observation of class procedure and management, technique, and drill lessons. Some time is devoted to a study of general rural school conditions. No actual practice teaching is done during this term unless the class is too large to permit all required teaching to be completed by the students during the second and third terms.</p>	
Physical education-----	2
<p>A course devoted to the significance of physical training, corrective exercises, etc.</p>	
20	
SECOND TERM. 12 weeks.	
Rural school management and methods of teaching-----	4
<p>A course devoted to the problems of rural school organization, classroom procedure, daily program, and class technique. The study accompanies practice teaching, which begins the second term, from which it derives its meaning, as the discussions in class usually grow out of the daily experiences gained in observation and practice teaching.</p>	
Arithmetic and farm accounts-----	3
<p>A careful study of the fundamental principles of arithmetic, and special emphasis on application of these principles to the content matter available in every rural environment. Considerable time is devoted to simple farm accounts.</p>	
Reading and phonics-----	3
<p>A course designed to give the student a comprehensive view of the aims and purposes of teaching reading. Much time is given to <i>how</i> to teach the subject, what the different groups should read, and how to correlate reading to other subjects in the program.</p>	
School music-----	2
<p>This course is intended to prepare teachers to give music as a regular class exercise in the rural schools. Much time is devoted to sight reading and part singing. The aim is largely to develop the power to read the printed score and appreciate choice music.</p>	
Art-----	2
<p>Includes such phases of art as can be profitably undertaken in rural schools. It aims to develop appreciation of good pictures, understanding and love of the beautiful in nature, and outlines ways for improving and beautifying the farm home.</p>	

Total hours
per week.

Industrial arts..... 2

A course planned to help students prepare for such phases of industrial arts as should properly cover the first five years of the rural school course. The subject matter is planned to center about the activities of home and community, these activities are initiated in projects made by paper, cardboard, clay, and other materials which are easily manipulated.

Observation and practice teaching..... 4

This course is devoted to class teaching in the rural or other elementary practice school. The work centers about language, reading, spelling, and arithmetic. Conferences with critic teachers of the practice schools.

THIRD TERM. 12 weeks.

Rural-life problems..... 4

A thorough-going course in the fundamental characteristics of rural life; a history of its changes from pioneering to modern agriculture; a statement of its primary institutions and agencies, with special emphasis on the home, church, and school; place of the rural school in community leadership; modern school organization, administration, and supervision; farm community schools, continuation schools, extension courses, etc.

History and community civics..... 4

A course designed especially to teach the methods of these subjects. It supplements what has already been learned, and gives especially the phases of history and community civics which should be emphasized in rural schools. The course in civics stresses rural health and morals, responsibility in keeping rural communities wholesome and healthful; in protecting them from social vice, etc.

Nature study—agriculture..... 4

The course continues the work begun with the fall term. It emphasizes agriculture teaching in the laboratory of nature. The textbook is considered in the light of leading thread only. All students are expected to work in the school experiment plots, and should grow individual gardens. School and home gardens, school and home projects, and club work receive much attention.

Home economics (girls)..... 2

A course which emphasizes sewing, cooking as approached through the medium of the hot lunch, and similar phases of home economics which are practicable in the small rural school.

Manual training (boys)..... 2

This is a study of such manual activities as every farm boy should be acquainted with. It discourages the old limitation of keeping the boy at work at a few highly finished or elaborated articles, and emphasizes instead all the commonly practiced manual activities essential to successful agricultural life, which include work in wood, leather, metal, and cement.

Observation and practice teaching..... 4

The course for this term continues the practice teaching by classes and subjects begun with the second term. Geography, history, music, art, and industrial work receive considerable attention. The last half of the term is devoted to room teaching; i. e., the practice teacher takes entire charge of the room. Conferences with critic teachers continued.

Physical education..... 2

Devoted chiefly to supervised play and games. No preparation required.

This course may be organized for three terms with 60 term-hour credits or for two semesters with 40 semester-hour credits.

SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS ON TEACHER-PREPARATION IN THE UNIVERSITY AND COLLEGES AND SPECIAL HIGH SCHOOLS.

1. The reorganization of the department of education in the University of South Dakota as a school of education in charge of a dean and faculty of education.

2. The organization of a practice high school in connection with the university department of education.

3. The enlargement of the department of education in the State College of Agriculture to meet the new demands made on it under the Smith-Hughes Act.

4. The systematic inspection of the accredited denominational colleges and academies by the State department of public instruction.

5. The readjustment of certification privileges of the denominational schools on the following basis:

a. That Huron College, the Dakota Wesleyan University, and Yankton College alone retain the acquired right to offer life diplomas for the completion of the four-year college course; that these schools abandon the six-year courses by reason of lack of adequate practice school facilities.

b. That all the other colleges and academies offering courses leading to State certificates and to first and second grade certificates improve their practice-school facilities and enlarge their professional libraries under the direction of the State department of public instruction in order to retain the certification privilege they now hold.

6. The establishment of training departments for elementary teachers in certain accredited high schools.

Chapter XX.

HIGHER EDUCATION.¹

South Dakota is one of the comparatively few States of the Union that divide support for higher education among three or more institutions. Twenty-five of the States provide whatever higher education is afforded in one institution, with centralized administration and under a single board of control. Ten States maintain two separate institutions, and 13 States maintain three or four higher institutions in different localities, with separate administration and for the most part under separate boards of control. Only five States besides South Dakota (Colorado, Michigan, Montana, New Mexico, and Oklahoma) maintain separate schools of mines.

Experience and theory apparently justify two principles for the organization of higher education: (a) That, whenever possible, all higher education, other than that of the normal schools, should be consolidated in a single State university; (b) that, whenever two or more higher institutions are established, definite fields should be assigned to the different institutions, and great care should be taken to so coordinate the work of the institutions as to prevent wasteful duplication of courses or departments.

Section I. THE CONSOLIDATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN SOUTH DAKOTA.

In the judgment of the survey committee a serious error was made when the State of South Dakota established the present three institutions for higher education. The committee believes that the educational and material interests of the State would be served best if a single institution were maintained, that institution comprehending all forms of higher education now provided in the State university, the State college, and the State school of mines. Beyond question this would have been the best policy in the beginning, and the committee is convinced that even now it would be far better to consolidate all three of its degree-granting institutions, abandon the present plants, and establish a new State university centrally located and accessible from all parts of the State. The survey committee accord-

¹ The present statement on higher education is condensed from the report of the survey committee, which was too lengthy and detailed to be included herewith. The full report will probably be printed later as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education.

ingly recommends the establishment of a consolidated University of South Dakota. It makes this recommendation for the following reasons:

(1) The total number of collegiate students in the State of South Dakota is relatively small—so small that its division into three groups in the three institutions renders impossible effective and, at the same time, reasonably economical instruction. At the present time the total number of collegiate students resident in the State of South Dakota is much below 2,000, while the number attending public institutions in the State is less than 1,000. A single university could well provide for five or six times this number if the population should increase accordingly.

(2) The expense of maintaining a single consolidated university would be far less than the expense of maintaining the three existing institutions. In less than a decade the State could probably recover all the loss incident to the abandonment of existing plants, even if no other use were found for them.

(3) One of the greatest disadvantages of maintaining two or more institutions for higher education is the apparently inevitable rise of interinstitutional competition with its consequent duplication of work, wasteful expenditure of public money, sectional politics, and constant interference with the proper development of educational facilities. The State of South Dakota has been more fortunate than most States in escaping the sectional discord, political logrolling, educational discouragement, and interinstitutional difficulties which have appeared to be inextricably related to the maintenance of more than one higher institution in other States. It has not, however, entirely escaped interinstitutional competition, a certain amount of institutional politics, and a considerable amount of educational duplication with its consequent educational loss and financial waste. South Dakota has already paid a heavy bill for its educational duplication and has already failed to develop that degree of educational achievement which the committee believes would follow from the consolidation of its higher institutions. As time goes on the financial loss will be heavier and the educational loss will be irretrievable.

In any circumstance the committee recommends the abandonment of the State school of mines. It recommends also that the State seize on the favorable opportunity to reorganize its entire system of collegiate education by the establishment of a consolidated State university.

The establishment of junior colleges.—One of the strongest arguments for the maintenance of more than one higher institution is the

fact that interest in higher education and attendance at higher institutions are greatly affected by the proximity and accessibility of such institutions. In making the above recommendation for a consolidated State university the survey committee had in mind a further recommendation designed to meet the desirability of institutions located so as to develop a State-wide interest in higher education and to foster attendance at higher institutions. Within the past decade several States have encouraged the establishment of institutions which cover the work of the freshman and sophomore years of a collegiate course. To such institutions has been given the name of junior colleges. In most colleges and universities the major part of the work of the freshman and sophomore years is limited to elementary courses and courses which are foundational for the somewhat more specialized work of the junior and senior years. This work is comparatively inexpensive and the relatively large numbers of students enrolled in the courses does not cause wasteful duplication. It may well be provided in several institutions without educational or financial loss. On the other hand, the major part of the work of the junior and senior years in a college or university is somewhat specialized and therefore expensive unless consolidated in one institution.

The committee recommends for the serious consideration of the educational authorities of the State of South Dakota the establishment of three junior colleges affiliated with the consolidated State university and providing each a two-years' course of study coordinated with the junior year of the university. For one of these junior colleges provision might well be made in the western part of the State to take the place of much of the work now done by the general course at the State school of mines and possibly occupying the plant to be vacated by that institution. The location of the other two (or more) institutions would have to be determined with reference to the location of the State university. If that institution be located in the central part of the State, one of the junior colleges might well be located in the southeastern part of the State, possibly occupying the plant of the present State university, and one in the northeastern part of the State. Under no conditions should any of these junior colleges be affiliated with any of the State normal schools. They should be directly affiliated with the university and be considered as integral parts of that institution, their administration being subordinate to that of the State university.

Section 2. ENROLLMENT AT THE STATE HIGHER INSTITUTIONS.

The best measure of the size of any college or university is the number of collegiate undergraduates and the number of graduate students. Students listed in other categories must be considered as

benefiting by incidental (and in some cases detrimental) functions performed by the institution. At the State college the regular collegiate students enrolled are outnumbered by the other students in attendance. A truly college atmosphere can not be properly maintained where the subcollegiate, special, and irregular students outnumber the collegiate students. In a different way, and to a less extent, the university suffers from the presence of a relatively large number of "special students." At the State school of mines the number of secondary-school students is almost equal to the number of collegiate students.

TABLE 98.—Enrollments at the three degree-granting institutions of South Dakota in 1916-17.

Institutions.	Collegiate under-graduates.	Graduate students.	Special and irregular students.	Summer-school students.	Secondary-school pupils.	Totals, excluding duplicates.
State university.....	481	39	108	81		709
State college.....	367	5	67	155	346	896
State school of mines.....	48		27		43	118
Total.....	896	44	202	236	389	1,722

¹ Including 57 "short course" students at the State college.

² Including 263 pupils in the State college (secondary) school of agriculture.

The educational influences of the three collegiate institutions at present tend to be more localized than should be the case. This is shown by the geographical distribution of students in the various institutions. For the three institutions those figures may be summarized in the following table:

TABLE 99.—Geographical distribution of collegiate students in the State university, the State college, and the State school of mines, in 1916-17.

Distribution according to divisions of the State.

Full standing collegiate students only.	South-eastern division.	North-eastern division.	Western division.	Resident in the State.	Resident elsewhere.	Grand total.
Undergraduates and graduates only:						
State university.....	303	197	53	463	57	520
State college.....	85	249	15	349	23	372
State school of mines.....	2	3	40	45	3	48
Total.....	390	449	108	857	83	940
Percentages in different divisions of the State:						
State university.....	54.3	20.5	10.2	80.0	11.0	100.0
State college.....	22.8	66.9	4.0	33.8	6.2	100.0
State school of mines.....	4.2	0.3	37.1	38.8	6.2	100.0
Total.....	41.8	38.2	11.5	61.3	21.8	100.0
Percentages in each of the institutions of the State:						
State university.....	77.7	38.2	48.1	84.0	68.7	53.3
State college.....	21.8	66.4	12.8	34.7	27.7	38.6
State school of mines.....	0.5	0.6	37.6	3.3	3.6	6.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

From these figures several facts may be understood:

1. Of all collegiate students in these institutions more than nine-tenths are residents of the State. In other words, the facilities provided for higher education in South Dakota primarily benefit State residents. The proportion of nonresidents is not excessive and does not interfere with the legitimate interests of the State. Such a small proportion of nonresidents benefits rather than hampers the work of the three institutions.

2. Of the total population of the State approximately 40 per cent is found in the southeastern division and about 40 per cent in the northeastern division. Collegiate enrollments from those divisions are in proportion about the same. Enrollments from the western division of the State are somewhat below the proportion of population in that division.

3. Of the total collegiate enrollments from the southeastern division more than three-quarters are at the State university. Of the total collegiate enrollments from the northeastern division more than two-thirds are at the State college. Of the total collegiate enrollments from the western division nearly one-half are at the State university, slightly more than one-eighth at the State college, and somewhat over one-third at the State school of mines. Of the total collegiate enrollments for the State 55 per cent are at the university, nearly 40 per cent at the State college, and about 5 per cent at the State school of mines.

4. Of collegiate students at the State university nearly three-fifths are residents of the southeastern division of the State, about one-fifth from the northeastern division, about one-tenth from the western division, and about one-tenth from other States. Of collegiate students at the State college about two-thirds are residents of the northeastern division, about one-fifth to one-quarter from the southeastern division, 4 per cent from the western division, and 6 per cent from outside the State. Of collegiate students at the State school of mines more than four-fifths are from the western division of the State.

These facts emphasize the importance of consolidating the collegiate education of South Dakota into a single State university, which shall include all departments of higher education now provided in the three separate institutions and all departments of higher education hereafter to be established.

Section 3. COURSES OFFERED AT THE HIGHER INSTITUTIONS.

At the present time provision is made in one or more of the degree-granting institutions of South Dakota for those types of higher education which appear to be justified and to the extent which the needs of the State appear to demand. Each of the three institutions, and

particularly the State university and the State college, provides types of instruction which may be considered fundamental to higher education and which must form service departments to most kinds of specialized professional work, such as the sciences, social studies, English, languages, mathematics, etc. In addition special forms of higher education are provided in one or more of the three institutions.

In the following table are presented figures showing the number of courses in each department actually given and enrolling students in each institution in 1916-17, together with the gross enrollments:

TABLE 100.—Enrollment in courses and institutions.

Departments.	Courses given in 1916-17.				Gross enrollments in 1916-17.			
	Univer- sity.	College.	Mines.	Total.	Univer- sity.	College.	Mines.	Total.
English.....	27	12	2	41	445	452	47	944
Mathematics.....	13	11	5	29	143	154	37	334
Foreign languages.....	51	12	(?) 5	68	536	859	0	795
History and political science.....	15	7	(?)	22	282	130	0	412
Economics and sociology.....	13	4	2	19	322	83	16	421
Education.....	10	11	0	21	341	213	0	554
Home economics.....	14	12	0	26	213	295	0	508
Journalism.....	6	1	0	7	19	11	0	30
Fine arts.....	8	10	0	18	74	103	0	177
Zoology.....	8	5	0	13	125	123	0	248
Botany.....	4	6	0	10	31	172	0	203
Chemistry.....	26	11	5	42	305	404	31	740
Physics.....	5	6	4	15	78	132	14	222
Electrical engineering.....	2	10	6	18	14	32	19	65
Civil engineering.....	10	12	17	39	30	84	98	208
Mechanical engineering.....	28	22	1	51	144	212	2	358
Public speaking.....	6	8	0	14	122	174	0	229
Geology, mineralogy.....	7	0	5	12	72	0	57	174
Philosophy.....	9	0	0	9	74	0	0	74
Bible.....	5	0	0	5	27	0	0	27
Physiology.....	2	0	0	2	14	0	0	14
Medicine.....	24	0	0	24	208	0	0	208
Law.....	0	0	0	0	1,000	0	0	1,000
Bacteriology and hygiene.....	3	0	0	3	20	0	0	20
Entomology, etc.....	0	4	0	4	0	63	0	63
Accounting.....	7	(?)	0	7	152	(?)	0	152
Pharmacy.....	0	10	0	10	0	132	0	132
Veterinary medicine.....	0	4	0	4	0	84	0	84
Agronomy.....	0	10	0	10	0	130	0	130
Animal husbandry.....	0	9	0	9	0	123	0	123
Dairy husbandry.....	0	8	0	8	0	95	0	95
Horticulture, forestry.....	0	3	0	3	0	60	0	60
Metallurgy.....	0	0	10	10	0	0	18	18
Mining.....	0	0	9	9	0	0	40	40
Totals.....	338	208	66	612	4,789	3,720	379	8,888

¹ The gross enrollments are determined by adding together all names in every course. The number of different individuals enrolled is sometimes much smaller, since the gross enrollment counts each name as many times as it may appear in different classes within any one department or in different departments. In a few cases this table would falsely appear to indicate that in some courses no instruction is given in an institution where the subject appears under another name or within a different department.

² Taken by preparatory students only in 1916-17.
³ For the most part of subcollegiate grade at the State college.

These figures, in some cases, suggest the possibility that the offerings of the State institutions may have expanded somewhat beyond their legitimate bounds. Thus it may be questioned seriously whether 108 courses having a gross enrollment of 635 students (about six students per course) can be justified by the engineering needs of the State or the engineering interests of students. This question becomes all the more serious when it is realized that more than 50 other

courses in engineering were offered in 1916-17, but no students were enrolled in them.

In the following table are presented figures showing the extent to which courses were offered but not given in 1916-17, together with some figures for the gross enrollment in each institution.

TABLE 101.—*Courses and enrollments.*

Institutions.	Courses, 1916-1917.			Enrollments (gross).		
	Offered.	Given.	Not given.	Totals (gross).	Average per—	
					Course offered.	Course given.
University	479	338	141	4,789	10.0	11.2
College	298	218	88	3,720	12.5	17.8
School of mines	121	66	55	379	3.1	5.7
Total	896	612	284	8,888	9.9	11.5

It appears that of all courses offered, according to the catalogues for 1916-17 in the three institutions taken collectively, nearly one-third were not actually given. It is, of course, obvious that the offerings of the State institutions must be sufficiently extensive to meet reasonable demands on the part of students in attendance and on the part of prospective students. Nevertheless, it is fair neither to students nor to instructors to offer a program of instruction which the institutions could not actually provide without placing a burden on the staff which it could ill support. Certainly until there is much greater demand than can now be found it is unreasonable to include courses in the catalogue which are seldom if ever actually given. Over-ambitious offerings in the catalogues contribute neither to the dignity nor to the efficiency of any institution.

Section 4. THE PROBLEM OF DUPLICATION.

Whenever two or more institutions are maintained in any State a certain amount of duplication of courses, departments, laboratories, libraries, equipment, and instruction is inevitable. Studies such as English, history, economics, mathematics, chemistry, physics, and the like, must be found in every institution which pretends to provide instruction of collegiate or university grade. Every institution must have its own library, its own laboratories, its own gymnasium, its own equipment, regardless of the provision for similar facilities in other institutions. Not all duplication, therefore, can be avoided under these conditions. Courses such as those mentioned above are administered almost as economically in two institutions as in one, provided the number of students enrolled in each of the institutions is large enough to afford economical enrollments in classes.

Duplication is justifiable in the case of studies which form the basis of any collegiate course and where duplicate courses in two institutions may be carried on as effectively and as economically as in one institution. It is not justified when there is costly specialized work in any department and when relatively small enrollments in each institution render the cost of instruction disproportionately large. This is almost invariably the case in connection with professional courses such as agriculture, engineering, law, medicine, pharmacy, and all graduate work.

Major and service lines of instruction.—Unfortunately, in most States maintaining two or more institutions for higher education the lines of differentiation have been but loosely defined. Even where the provisions determining the functions of institutions are definite and clear they show what one institution shall do rather than indicate what each institution shall not do. The result is that in most States any institution may provide almost any kind of instruction for which it can secure funds and for the support of which it can develop sufficiently strong political pressure. The difficulty arises particularly in connection with fields of instruction where needless and wasteful duplication is the result of failure to differentiate clearly the special functions of the different institutions. The successful operation of higher education in States maintaining two or more institutions is fundamentally dependent on the determination and maintenance of legitimate lines of differentiation.

The first step in securing this differentiation is the specification by the legislature or by the controlling board of special functions to be performed by each of the State institutions, particularly along lines of professional education. The second step is the rigid adherence to the provision that no other institution in the State should be permitted to encroach on the special field allotted to any one institution to such an extent as to make it a principal line of work leading to advanced instruction of a specialized character. To prevent such duplication of specialized instruction there is need for a distinction between fields which are the peculiar prerogative of one institution and those which may be offered in any other institution. The Bureau of Education has attempted to do this by distinguishing between major and service lines of instruction. Major lines are those which represent the principal fields of instruction assigned to any institution for development along advanced lines leading toward professional or other specialization on the part of the given institution, e. g., law, medicine, agriculture, engineering, pharmacy. An institution to which has been assigned special fields should be permitted to develop such fields as far as the interests of the State may allow, and no other institution in the State should be permitted to provide instruction in such fields as a major line. Service lines are those which,

while not representing specialized fields for instruction in one institution, are necessary for the properly rounded-out education of a student who may be specializing in a line quite different. Thus in one institution only should it be permitted to develop the study of history as a field of specialized concentration, i. e., as a major line. In every institution, however, some study should be provided as a subject contributing to the efficiency of an engineer, of a pharmacist, of a lawyer, or of a physician. Thus it comes about that what may be a major line in one institution may be a service line in another institution.

The value of making this distinction between major and service lines of instruction lies in the fact that thereby a criterion is secured for determining the extent to which certain fields of instruction may legitimately be developed in different institutions without leading to unjustifiable duplication. Home economics offers a good example. One institution only in any State should be permitted to offer home economics as a major line. Nevertheless, every institution in the State in which women are educated should afford some instruction in this field. Only that institution to which the specialized training of dieticians, teachers of home economics, etc., is allotted should be permitted to offer specialized and advanced instruction in this field as a major line. All institutions ought to offer instruction in home economics as a service line, leading to no professional preparation or degree. The importance of this distinction will appear more clearly in the following discussion of duplication in South Dakota:

DUPLICATION IN SOUTH DAKOTA.

By section 208 of the Revised Political Code the regents of education are given "full power to authorize for the institutions under their control such departments and courses of study as they may think best." Accordingly, no higher institution in the State can establish any course of study or department without the consent and specific approval of the regents, and the latter must be held responsible for the establishment of every course or department. Moreover, by section 211 of that code, the regents are directed "to administer the schools in such a manner as to enable each one of them to do in the best manner its own specific work, but all with a view to the strictest economy and so as to unify and harmonize the entire work of all the schools under their control." By the provisions of the same section of the code the regents "are expressly forbidden to continue or to create chairs, departments, laboratories, libraries, or other equipment in multiplication, except where the obvious needs of the special work of the schools make such multiplication necessary."

In the judgment of the survey committee the regents of education have violated the definite mandate of the law with respect to duplication in the fields of engineering and home economics. They have permitted questionable practices in the field of music and have allowed courses which more or less overlap in the normal schools, in the State university, and in the State college.

(1) *Duplication in engineering instruction.*—At the present time engineering departments are maintained in each of the three collegiate institutions maintained by the State and placed under the control of the regents of education, although the needs of the State and of the students could be met far more effectively and economically if such courses were limited to one institution. This appears from the figures presented in the following table:

TABLE 102.—*Figures illustrating engineering courses in 1916-17.*

	State university.	State college.	State school of mines. ¹	Total.
Courses offered, 1916-17.....	53	73	38	164
Courses offered but not given, 1916-17.....	13	29	15	57
Courses actually given, 1916-17.....	40	44	23	107
Classes enrolling 1-5 students each, 1916-17.....	25	26	15	66
Classes enrolling 6-10 students each, 1916-17.....	9	10	6	25
Classes enrolling more than 10 students each.....	6	8	2	16
Gross enrollments, 1916-17.....	188	288	117	633
Average enrollment per class actually given.....	4.7	7.5	5.1	5.9
Gross student clock-hours for the year.....	1,373	1,633	631	3,657
Total full-time instructors.....	3-25	6.10	2.00	11.25
Student clock-hours per instructor (semester).....	211	138	158	163
Gross teaching hours for the year.....	107.0	121.0	64.5	292.5
Teaching hours per instructor (semester).....	18.5	10.1	16.1	13.0
Engineering degrees, 1913 to 1917.....	23	32	(*)	55
Engineering degrees, 1917.....	3	6	(*)	9
Alumni (1912 to 1916) engaged as engineers.....	16	31	3	50
Alumni (total) engaged as engineers.....	34	81	11	126
Salaries for engineering instruction, 1916-17.....	\$6,410	\$10,400	\$2,888	\$19,698

¹ "Physics and Electrical Engineering" are combined in one department at the school of mines. In this table figures for electrical engineering only have been considered.

² A part of the time of one instructor is devoted to physics.

³ The State school of mines is permitted to give special courses, but not to grant degrees in engineering except mining and metallurgy, which courses are not considered in this table.

From these figures several important facts may be deduced:

(a) Small enrollments in engineering courses in each institution render the cost of instruction extremely expensive.

(b) Nearly two-thirds of all courses actually given in 1916-17 enrolled from one to five students.

(c) The average size of classes actually given in 1916-17 was six students.

(d) All the work in engineering now provided in three institutions could be provided at far less expense and far more effectively in a single institution.

The present duplication of courses in engineering can not be justified on the ground that the "obvious needs of the special work of the

schools make such multiplication necessary," nor is it carried on "with a view to the strictest economy and so as to unify and harmonize the entire work of all the schools" under the control of the regents of education. The survey committee recommends the maintenance of engineering courses at one institution only.

(2) *Duplication in music instruction.*—It must be recognized that music instruction may form a part of the education of any student, whatever may be his field of specialized or professional training. For this reason courses in music have their place in any or all of the higher institutions of South Dakota. One institution only, however, should be permitted to develop courses in music as a major line leading toward specialization in that field, toward a special diploma, and in preparation for professional work in that field. At the present time two institutions in South Dakota maintain flourishing departments of music, and in each case the department is providing advanced and specialized work, i. e., both the State university and the State college provide music instruction as a major line.

The State university maintains a college of music, providing music instruction ranging all the way from the beginning stages (even for high-school pupils) to advanced graduate work for the training of professional musicians. It also provides courses for students who take no other work than that in music—"music preparatory and specials." It provides training leading toward a special degree, "Bachelor of Music." In other words, music at the State university is clearly a major line of instruction.

The State college provides a department of music, which offers three "courses": (1) Preparatory, (2) academic, and (3) collegiate. From the catalogue announcements and from the fact that there were 107 students taking music only at the college, it is clear that music is regarded not merely as a service line but also as a major line of instruction at the State college.

The survey committee believes that the regents of education should permit one institution only to maintain courses in music as a major line.

(4) *Duplication in commercial education.*—Attention has been called to the four-year curriculum in commerce offered by the university, to the several collegiate courses offered by the State college, and to the subcollegiate courses offered by each of these institutions. At the university the work is happily associated with the department of economics. At the State college the work in economics, from lack of support, has not been well developed, and commerce here is more closely related to the preparatory department. Since there is not likely to be any greatly increased demand for strictly collegiate work in this subject, the establishment of a faculty or division of com-

merce is not warranted, and as a matter of educational policy commercial education should be restricted to a single institution.

(5) *Duplication in home economics.*—Home economics was not definitely organized in the University of South Dakota until the fall of 1914. For a number of years preceding this a course in sanitation and hygiene had been listed which closely approximated that which is usually classified as home sanitation and placed under home economics.

In the university catalogue, issued in May 1913, the title "household arts" appears over a collection of four courses, one given by the instructor of chemistry, one by the professor of physiology, one given by the instructor in art and one by the instructor in finance. This group of courses was the forerunner of the home economics department.

The work was finally established as a result of an urgent demand by the students of the university with a very definite understanding that it should not duplicate the work done at the agricultural college. Unfortunately there has been no clearly defined field for home economics at the university, and consequently there is now a tendency to duplicate the work given at the State college. It is believed that the work should be developed as a major line at but one institution. It is rightfully a major line in land-grant colleges. In most of the middle west agricultural colleges, courses in home-making were established at the time the instruction was organized and have been continuously maintained since that time. This work was inaugurated in the South Dakota Agricultural College in 1887. The college now offers instruction in the four-year college course and in the secondary "school of agriculture."

Home economics instruction should of course be available for every college and university woman. It offers her training for enlarged usefulness and happiness in life; it increases her value as a leader in civic and community affairs; it is indeed a legitimate part of the liberal education of all women.

In the judgment of this committee, therefore, the work in home economics at the university should be continued as a service line only. It should supplement the training in liberal arts and education, but should not rival these in emphasis placed upon it. It should be as worthy of recognition as the home economics department at the State college, but should not duplicate the function of that department in the scheme of public education. It should enrich the training of the women students of the university but should not dominate that training. Being truly a "service" department, it should serve the maximum number of women students, giving to them the type of training most valuable for symmetrical development of mind and character.

In small high schools teachers frequently teach several subjects, one of which may be home economics. Graduates of the university would naturally prepare for teaching one or more academic branches. For this they should receive special teacher training. Their minor subject may be home economics, which they might be required to teach in combination with the academic subjects. For special professional training in the minor subject the maintenance of teacher training courses at the university can not be defended.

A similar situation may not infrequently develop for graduates of the State college. Employed primarily to teach home economics and trained for this, they may be required to teach English or history or even a language. Such combinations are at times necessary, though undesirable, but do not justify the State college in establishing courses in teacher training for English or language courses.

(6) *Duplication of collegiate and normal-school instruction.*—At the present time it appears that the work of the normal schools of the State and of the collegiate institutions of the State overlap in two respects:

(a) *Collegiate instruction in the normal schools:* The normal schools of the State should be so affiliated with the collegiate institutions that persons completing all or any part of the work of the normal schools, and otherwise qualified, should be admitted to the collegiate institution without unnecessary loss of time or standing. Nevertheless, it is also true that the normal schools should not become institutions wherein students should deliberately aim to secure the first years of their college education.

(b) *Duplication in teacher training:* Attention has already been called to the fact that there is more or less overlapping by the various higher institutions of the State in the training of teachers. Until the present time the regents of education have checked the efforts of the normal schools to train secondary-school teachers. They have not, however, prevented the collegiate institutions, particularly the State university, from training elementary school teachers, nor have they clearly differentiated the functions of the State university and the State college with respect to the training of teachers. In the judgment of the survey committee the regents should at once delimit the functions.

Section 5. DETERMINING WHAT SHALL BE MAJOR AND SERVICE LINES OF INSTRUCTION.

If the policy of consolidating the three collegiate institutions now maintained by the State into a single comprehensive State university be adopted, all difficulties of duplication or the assignment of special fields to the various institutions disappear. However, if the State

is unwilling to adopt this recommendation, it becomes imperative that definite regulations be made for the determination of major and service lines of instruction in the various institutions. The committee makes the following outlined recommendations:

(1) The State school of mines should be abandoned immediately, and instruction in mining and metallurgy (required by the constitution to be provided in one institution of the State) should be transferred to that other institution to which engineering is assigned. In the judgment of the committee that institution should be the State college.

(2) Agriculture and its allied fields should remain major lines at the State college.

(3) Law should remain a major line at the State university.

(4) Medicine should remain a major line at the State university.

(5) Pharmacy should be transferred as a major line to the State university. The reason for this recommendation is that there is no special connection between pharmacy and any other line of instruction conducted at the State college, and there is a very close relation between pharmacy and medicine, as well as the work of the State health laboratory and the food and drug commission located at the university.

(6) All engineering instruction should be consolidated at the State college and removed from the school of mines and from the university. Reasons for this recommendation are as follows: (a) The effective and economical conduct of engineering instruction in South Dakota requires its consolidation in one institution. (b) At present the State college enrolls the largest numbers of engineering students, has the largest corps of instructors in engineering, and has received the largest amount of money from the State, that money being invested in more expensive buildings and equipment than at the State university. (c) The State college at present provides several short courses and other courses apart from the regular collegiate work which utilize the equipment of the engineering department. (d) The removal of engineering courses from the State college would leave that institution with little except agriculture and home economics, thus destroying much of its real usefulness. (e) At the State college at present a large proportion of the cost of engineering courses is met by Federal funds. It is within the competence of the State legislature to transfer all or any part of those funds to any other institution if it so desires. However, it is desirable not to split those funds, using part for agriculture and its allied fields in one institution, and a part for engineering in another.

(7) Home economics should be made a major line at the State college and restricted to a service line in the State university.

(8) Music should be made a major line at the State university and reduced to a service line at the State college.

(9) Art should be made a major line at the State university and a service line only at the State college.

(11) On account of its intimate relation with economics, and since its withdrawal would seriously restrict the scope of this department, commerce should be made a major line at the State university and a service line at the State college.

(12) Education and training of teachers should be differentiated as follows: (a) The training of elementary school teachers should be the special and peculiar function of the State normal schools. (b) The training of secondary school teachers of agriculture, industry, home economics, and allied subjects, together with appropriate supervisors, directors, etc., should be the special and peculiar function of the State college. (c) The training of other secondary school teachers, together with the training of principals, superintendents, and the graduate training of school officers, should be the special and peculiar function of the State university.

Section 6. SECONDARY INSTRUCTION AT THE HIGHER INSTITUTIONS.

Preparatory instruction at the higher institutions.—Two of the State-supported higher institutions and each of the independent colleges maintain preparatory schools or "departments." For the year 1916-17, 498 students were enrolled in the preparatory departments of the several colleges of the State. Of this number 422 were from the State and 413 of these were from counties in which a four-year high school is located.

It is noteworthy that the preparatory departments of the South Dakota colleges are generally inferior in facilities for instruction to many of the high schools of the State, and frequently inferior to those in the town where the college is located. This applies to the preparatory departments of the independent colleges as well as to those of the State-supported colleges at Brookings and at Rapid City. In deference to the will of the local school authorities, the State-supported institutions claim that they usually reject preparatory students from the immediate vicinity, but at the State college in 1916-17, one-third of the preparatory students were from the county in which the college is located, and the post-office address of most of these was given as Brookings. The remaining students were mostly from near-by counties. The preparatory department at the college, therefore, is not serving the State as a whole.

The school of agriculture at the State college.—The criticism directed at the college preparatory departments may be applied with equal force to the so-called "school of agriculture" maintained by the South Dakota State College at Brookings. This school offers a curriculum covering four years of five months each. It is open to

both men and women (the women select home economics subjects in the place of technical agriculture) of any age, over 14 years, provided they have completed the eighth grade in the public school. For the year 1916-17 there were registered in the "school of agriculture" 265 students, of whom 254 were residents of the State of South Dakota. Of this number, 232 were from the counties in which are located State accredited four-year high schools. Seventy-seven per cent of the young women registered for the home economics curriculum in "the school of agriculture" were from counties in which are located approved high schools giving courses in home economics. There is a demand for practical secondary instruction in agriculture and home-making, but it is clearly the function of the local high schools to supply it. Many more young people would continue in school if instruction of this kind could be obtained locally. This is clearly shown by the fact that a large proportion of the enrollment in the "school of agriculture" consists of students from sections near Brookings. Under the provisions and support of the Smith-Hughes act, schools should be established throughout the State where students desiring to take a secondary agricultural course may receive the desired training. These schools will need the encouragement and support of their respective regions.

There is also a demand for practical technical training in agriculture and home economics adapted to the needs of mature students who can not meet regular entrance requirements or who can not avail themselves of the regular college course. The real opportunity of the "school of agriculture" at the college, therefore, is to meet this demand. While the school is open to this class of students, it is not restricted to such, and in consequence classes are composed of persons of all ages. Of the 265 students enrolled in 1916-17, 76 per cent were under 21 years of age and 12 per cent were not more than 16 years of age. It is apparent, therefore, that the students are mainly of secondary school age, and in this respect they are very much like the college preparatory students. The median age of the "school" students is 19 years, while that of the preparatory students is 18 years. About 40 per cent of these students are at least 20 years of age, and may be said to represent the institution's unquestioned clientage.

Commercial courses.—At both the university and the State college secondary instruction in commercial subjects is offered. At the university in 1917-18 there were registered as special students 23 young men and women of high-school age who were carrying commercial subjects only. In all cases these were students from the local high school who by special arrangement were permitted to take commercial work at the university and to receive high-school credit. The university, to this extent, therefore, is still engaged in preparatory work, but in this case the State as a whole is supporting an

educational enterprise that benefits only the local community. The number of students taking this work at the university is sufficient to warrant the establishment of a commercial course in the local high school.

Although many of the commercial courses offered by both the university and the State college are of college grade, some are of strictly secondary grade, and are taken mainly by students from the local communities. So long as such facilities are provided by the higher institutions, so long will the local schools defer the introduction of commercial courses and so long will the collegiate institutions be hampered in their generally approved functions.

Music courses.—Both the university and the State college are offering elementary or preparatory instruction in music. Since special fees are imposed upon students of music in either institution, it may be assumed that the work of instructing these local students is self-supporting; and since the high schools are not likely to be affected immediately by this practice, there should be very little objection to the efforts of these institutions to be of service to their local communities. The committee suggests, however, that such service should be promoted as a separate enterprise, and thus remove the danger of criticism arising from "padding" enrollments with noncollegiate students.

The committee recommends that the preparatory departments and all other instruction of secondary grade, except possibly music, at the State-supported higher institutions be discontinued. The reasons for such a recommendation may be summarized as follows:

1. There are now many high schools scattered over the State where students from sparsely settled sections may obtain the necessary preparation for college without going so far from home and usually at less expense.
2. So long as the communities without high schools can send their young people to the State institutions for their college preparation, so long will they defer the establishment of a local high school, which is essential to the general intellectual development of all people of the community.
3. The small and ill-supported high schools of many communities would be greatly stimulated in their development if the students from these communities could be enrolled in the nearest school where the necessary preparation may be obtained.
4. The standards set by the college preparatory departments, unless maintained at the maximum, are likely to be regarded by the high schools as the ideal college preparation and thus put a damper upon continued effort toward improvement.
5. The instructors employed in the preparatory department, especially at Brookings, could be used to relieve a serious condition of

overwork on the part of the instructors in some of the academic departments of the college.

Section 7. TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE OF FACULTY MEMBERS.

Figures for the training and experience of faculty members in the three institutions are summarized in the following table:

TABLE 103.—Training and experience of faculty members of the State college, the State university, and the State school of mines.

	Total number.	Highest degree held.				Total years college teaching.						
		None.	Bachelor.	Master.	Doctor.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6-10.	10
Professors.....	71	4	19	27	21	1	3	3	4	2	19	30
Associate professors.....	5	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	3
Assistant professors.....	12	3	2	7	0	0	0	0	1	0	7	4
Instructors.....	26	5	16	5	0	13	4	2	2	2	2	1
Total.....	114	12	38	43	21	14	7	5	7	4	30	47

Of the 49 instructors at the university, 34 hold the rank of full professor, while 3 only hold the rank of assistant professor. It would appear to have been the policy of the university to advance men and women rapidly to the highest rank. There is a noteworthy lack of balance between the number of full professors and assistant professors. Here several factors are important, but the financial considerations are not to be overlooked.

About one-third of the staff of instructors have not received professional preparation sufficient to secure for them an academic degree above that represented by the baccalaureate. This fact indicates that a large proportion of the instruction in the university is conducted by instructors whose university training is but slightly superior to that of many of the students under their instruction. This is particularly noticeable in the case of full professors, about one-third of whom possess no degree above the baccalaureate. To a considerable extent, of course, certain lacks in formal collegiate or university training are offset by long experience in college teaching. It is also true that many members of the staff of instructors have pursued advanced work in college or university without securing advanced degrees.

It is noteworthy that of the 15 assistant professors and instructors 3 only have secured their highest degree at institutions other than the University of South Dakota. In such circumstances there is always the danger of educational inbreeding. The dangers of educational inbreeding are also to be observed in the fact that one-half of the total staff have taught college classes at the University of South Dakota only.

On the whole the university employs instructors whose capacity for college teaching has been well attested by successful experience extending over a satisfactory period. Numerous factors render it difficult to estimate the professional attainments and professional contributions exemplified by professional publications, researches, etc. It would appear that members of the faculty of the State university as a whole have rendered significant contributions to the institution, to the State, and to society. In some departments, however, there is a noteworthy lack of such professional contributions as should be expected from members of the faculty of a State university. Efficient instruction itself postulates productive scholarship and research.

Of the 29 full professors and of the 61 members of the State college faculty, 4 only have received the doctor's degree. Nearly one-half of the instructing staff have received no degree above baccalaureate. With due allowance for other factors involved, it would appear that as a whole the faculty of the State college is somewhat below par with reference to such qualifications as may be indicated by the degrees held.

It is worthy of note that 32 out of 61 members of the college staff of instruction have had experience in college teaching at the State college only. It is not improbable that the college would benefit from the presence on its staff of a larger proportion of men and women who have had experience in other institutions and who, as a result of that outside experience, might contribute much to college ideals and methods. It is not impossible that the maintenance of present conditions may lead to some degree of educational inbreeding.

On the whole, the State college employs instructors whose capacity for college teaching has been approved by successful experience extending over a period of years. In this connection, however, the point raised above should not be neglected:

Of the 61 members of the staff, 10 only have made contributions through publications within the past two years. The total number of publications within that period was 21. It would appear that members of the State college faculty have, as a whole, failed to manifest through publications that evidence of research and professional interest which may justly be expected. Noteworthy exceptions to the above statement do not invalidate the essential justice of the charge for the faculty as a whole.

From such evidence as the survey committee has been able to secure there is every reason to believe that the State college is well meeting its obligations as a land-grant college to contribute to the development of the agricultural interests of the State. Through its

experiment station, through its extension division, and through the individual activities of members of the family, the college is making significant contributions.

The survey committee makes the following recommendations:

(1) As opportunity offers in the employment of new members of the instructional staffs, the officers of the State university and of the State college should attempt to secure men and women whose qualifications are attested by the attainment of higher degrees received from institutions of standing. This is particularly true for the State college. In making such a recommendation the committee is well aware of the inadequacy of considering advanced degrees as satisfactory evidence of the qualities desired. It is nevertheless true that advanced degrees are one of the few rather definite indications that prospective members of the faculty have at least had the opportunity to secure the kind of advanced training which should be expected of instructors at the university or at the State college.

(2) In the future, officers of the State university should be on their guard against the tendency to advance faculty members so rapidly that the instructional staff is overbalanced with men and women holding the highest teaching offices in the institution. At present, the number of full professors is out of proportion to the number of assistant professors and instructors.

(3) Administrative officers of the State university and of the State college should be on their guard against the dangers of educational inbreeding. The vitality of any higher institution is intimately dependent on the infusion from without of new ideals and of new methods. The fact that more than one-half of all instructors in the higher institutions of South Dakota have had experience in those institutions only suggests the possibility that educational inbreeding may be a real danger.

(4) With notable exceptions, it would appear that members of the faculties of the higher institutions of South Dakota are not completely fulfilling legitimate expectations with respect to productive scholarship. The close relation which exists between effective instruction and research would justify the suggestion that administrative officers encourage research and contributions by a larger proportion of the instructional staffs (*a*) by considering the capacity for productive scholarship as one of the qualifications to be looked for in employing new faculty members, (*b*) by so arranging the burdens of teaching that time and facilities may be available for research, (*c*) by direct stimulation, (*d*) by demanding a salary budget sufficient to attract men and women with the capacity for extra instructional work as a regular part of their employment.

Section 8. THE WORK OF FACULTY MEMBERS.¹

For the State university as a whole (excluding the college of music, not here considered), the average number of semester teaching hours per instructor is satisfactory. On the other hand, the average number of student clock hours per instructor is low. The Bureau of

¹The interrelation of many factors renders difficult the measurement of the services of faculty members in any institution. Few members of the faculty perform services which are limited to the classroom or laboratory. Each, to some extent, must render services on various committees and be responsible for many extra classroom duties necessary for the effective administration of the institution. Furthermore, members of the faculty should be expected to engage in forms of productive scholarship which can not be measured in terms of teaching hours. In addition, heads of departments, deans, and other instructors who are responsible for various forms of administrative activity must necessarily devote no small part of their time and energy to college tasks which are not readily susceptible to ordinary measurement. For these reasons the services of any instructor must be considered as including not only his work in class activities involving direct instruction but also his work in various forms of administrative activities.

The actual amount of time expended by any instructor in classroom or laboratory is easily measured. Here again, however, a number of variable factors enter, serving to render interpretation and evaluation difficult. Obviously the energy and time demanded of different instructors in connection with the work of instruction differ in many ways, in the number of students under instruction, in the character of the preparation necessary for any single class meeting, in the labor entailed in the correction of papers, themes, exercises, reports, conferences, etc. It is obvious, therefore, that no single measure can give a complete indication of the services rendered by various instructors.

Students' programs of work are commonly estimated in terms of "credit hours." Ordinarily this is the same as a "semester hour," which means one hour of work per week for a half year. The basis of the measurement is the lecture or recitation period, with its accompanying amount of preparation. Usually two or three hours of laboratory or field work are considered as equivalent to one hour of recitation, quiz, or lecture. This is on the assumption that every recitation, quiz, or lecture presupposes about two hours spent in preparation, while laboratory or field work commonly requires little or no previous preparation by the student.

In measuring the instructional work of faculty members two methods may well be employed, either supplementing the other as an indication of the amount of service performed. One of these methods uses the number of hours spent by the instructor in the classroom or laboratory as the unit, assuming that two hours of work in the laboratory are approximately equivalent to one hour of lecture, quiz, or recitation. This unit, therefore, is essentially the same as the "credit hour." For convenience it may be called the "semester teaching hour." However, when this unit is the only unit of measurement applied a wide margin of error is possible in many cases. For instance, an instructor in Greek may give four courses, each meeting three class hours per week for a half year. His total semester teaching hours would then be 12. His colleague in English department may give four courses, likewise meeting three times per week each, with a total of 12 semester teaching hours. If, however, the enrollments in the Greek courses are 3, 2, 4, and 5 students, respectively, and the enrollments in the English courses are 50, 28, 35, and 40 students, it is clear that the teaching load of the English teacher is much heavier than that of his colleague in the Greek department, especially with the extra classroom work involved in the correction of written work.

The second method available for the measurement of instructors' teaching loads is the "student clock hour." It may be described thus: One student under instruction in lecture, quiz, recitation, or laboratory work for at least 50 minutes net represents one student clock hour. Twenty students in one class which meets one 50-minute period per week for one semester would give a total of 20 student clock hours. If that same class meets three times per week the number of student clock hours would be 60. It will be noted that with this unit one period spent by the teacher in laboratory work or field work counts equally with one period spent in lecture, quiz, or recitation. Doubtless in some cases the teacher's burden in laboratory work is less than in classroom work. In other cases the arrangement of apparatus and planning of the work necessitates fully as much labor and time as might be spent by the instructor in connection with a lecture or recitation period. It should be obvious that the relation between classroom and laboratory work for the teacher is far different from that for the student.

The use of the semester teaching hour as the only unit, or the use of the student clock hour as the sole unit, might well lead to very false estimates of the services performed by different instructors. Either may well serve as a cross check on the other. Hence, in this investigation, both units were employed.

Education has previously suggested that in an institution where research work is to be encouraged and expected, it is reasonable to expect also a departmental average of 250 student clock hours for each instructor per semester. This would be the equivalent of 10 semester teaching hours per instructor with classes averaging 25 students each—a reasonable working standard. In a college where the greater part of the work of instruction is limited to undergraduate work, an average of 300 student clock hours per semester for each instructor would not appear to be excessive. This would be the equivalent of 12 semester teaching hours per instructor with classes averaging 25 students each. The average number of teaching hours for an instructor per semester is about 13 for the university as a whole, while the average number of semester clock hours per instructor is only 219. Here is further evidence of the fact, noted elsewhere in this chapter, that there is an excessive number of small classes in the university. The existing situation calls for the attention of administrative officers.

In the college of engineering there is found an excessive burden of semester teaching hours per instructor combined with a low number of semester student clock hours per instructor. This is due to an excessive number of small classes, which in turn is due to the policy of duplication in engineering courses permitted by the regents of education. In the college of law the situation is satisfactory. In the college of medicine the average number of semester teaching hours is excessive, while the number of semester student clock hours is somewhat below standard. This situation is in part due to the fact that the college of medicine is in a stage of development, perhaps even of experimentation, and in part to the fact that its special character as a very complex professional department places it in a category somewhat different from other departments of the university. Means should be taken to reduce somewhat the present excessive burdens of instruction imposed on the force of instruction in this department.

In the college of arts and sciences the number of semester teaching hours per instructor is satisfactory, while the number of semester student clock hours is excessively low. Here in particular there is need for administrative recognition of the deleterious effects of a large number of small classes. While the average teaching load for instructors in the college of arts and sciences is not excessively heavy, in some departments there is evidence that the teaching burden of certain instructors should be reduced at once. An instance is found in the case of the assistant professor of English, who in 1916-17 had 21 hours of classroom work in each semester and whose burden of student clock hours was 469 during the first semester and 388 during the second semester. During the first semester the number of his student clock hours was equal to the combined student clock hours

of the professor (and dean) of economics, the professor of fine arts, the professor of Greek, the professor of Latin, and the professor of civil engineering. His combined student clock hours for both semesters were more than the total combined student clock hours of the professor of economics, the professor of fine arts, the professor of Greek, the professor of journalism, the professor of Latin, and the professor of mathematics.

In several cases there is evidence of an excessive number of semester teaching hours combined with a relatively small number of semester student clock hours. Instances may be found in the cases of the professor of English, the instructor in English, the professor of Greek, the professor of history and political science (second semester), and the professor of Latin.

For the State college as a whole the average number of teaching hours per instructor and the average number of student clock hours per instructor are not excessive.

In some cases the burden of teaching is apparently excessive. This would appear to be the case for the associate professor of agronomy, of whose time only five-elevenths is supposed to be devoted to instruction. During the first semester his burden of teaching hours was 17 and his burden of student clock hours 338. This would also appear to be true of the professor of botany, whose total student clock hours were 430 for the first semester and 378 for the second semester. The abnormally heavy program of the associate professor of chemistry and of the assistant professor of chemistry may be explained in part, but not wholly, by the absence on leave of the professor of chemistry during the second semester. Likewise the excessively heavy burden of the instructor of pharmacy during the second semester may be explained by the death of the professor of pharmacy. The burden of the professor of English was excessively heavy during the first semester.

The effect of small classes is to be noted in civil engineering, electrical engineering, and experimental engineering, where the relatively large burden of teaching hours is accompanied by a relatively small burden of student clock hours in civil and electrical engineering. This has its bearing on the problem of duplication in engineering courses elsewhere discussed.

The excessive programs of work carried by some instructors are illustrated by the following: During the first semester the professor of civil engineering provided 12 periods of recitation or lecture and 36 periods of laboratory work in addition to some instruction in the preparatory school. During the second semester the professor of metallurgy provided 18 periods of recitation or lecture and 21 periods of laboratory work. During the same semester the professor of geology and mineralogy provided 17 periods of recitation or lecture

and 19.5 periods of laboratory work in addition to some preparatory-school instruction. Such programs as these are totally indefensible.

Summary.—On the whole the number of teaching hours per instructor in the collegiate institutions of the State is generally satisfactory, though important exceptions are numerous and considerable variability is found. The attention of administrative officers is called to all instructors' programs which show semester teaching hours above a standard of 15. From the figures presented it is clear that in general the number of student clock hours is in general rather low, though here again variability is found, and in many individual cases noteworthy departures from a reasonable standard are to be observed. The attention of administrative officers is called to wide variations from the standard as shown by the tables given above.

Particularly noteworthy is the fact that in many cases, and in the averages for institutions, satisfactory or even excessively high teaching-hour burdens are accompanied by excessively low student clock-hour burdens. This is, in many cases, at least, due to the large number of courses enrolling few students. The remedy in some of these cases will doubtless be found in the exercise of greater care in the offering and giving of courses enrolling few students.

On the basis of the data available, the survey committee feels justified in making the following recommendations:

(1) A working standard should be adopted for teachers' programs of instruction. The committee suggests that the number of teaching hours per semester for an instructor on full time for instructional purposes be set at not more than 15 and that the number of student clock hours per semester for an instructor be set at between 250 and 300, according to the nature of his work.

(2) Excessive teaching programs at present found should be reduced. Officers should make a careful investigation of instructors' programs at least twice a year for the purpose of adjusting any unnecessarily great variability.

Section 9. SALARIES.

The primary factor determining the salaries to be paid to faculty members in any institution is the maintenance of a sound educational policy. In the long run the quality of instruction is vitally affected by the salaries paid. Other things being equal, the payment of good salaries will attract and retain good instructors. Other things being equal, the payment of low salaries sooner or later will prevent good instructors from joining the faculty or will lead such good instructors as may be secured to consider the institution merely a stepping stone to more remunerative positions in other institutions.

Salaries in other universities and colleges.—The following are the maximum and minimum salaries paid to faculty members of various grades in different colleges and universities throughout the country:

TABLE 104.—Average maximum and minimum salaries in 90 State colleges and universities in 1915-16.

Positions.	Size of faculty.				
	Under 26.	26 to 50.	51 to 100.	101 to 200.	Over 200.
President ¹	\$3,828	\$4,578	\$5,023	\$5,333	\$8,139
Deans, maximum.....	2,050	2,969	3,054	3,100	5,128
Deans, minimum.....	2,050	2,238	2,409	2,418	3,147
Professors, maximum.....	2,423	2,390	2,645	2,770	4,189
Professors, minimum.....	1,742	1,756	1,879	1,883	2,258
Associate professors, maximum.....	1,780	1,825	1,922	2,013	2,530
Associate professors, minimum.....	1,367	1,533	1,691	1,700	1,750
Assistant professors, maximum.....	1,514	1,658	1,688	1,750	2,303
Assistant professors, minimum.....	1,350	1,383	1,314	1,305	1,469

¹ In the majority of cases the president's house is also provided.

When figures for the State college and for the State university in South Dakota are compared with figures for other institutions of somewhat similar character it appears that, while the maximum salaries are not notably low, the minimum salaries are distinctly low and the number of professors, associate professors, and assistant professors receiving low salaries is great. With the exception of a few faculty members (who, for the most part, occupy also administrative offices or have other duties in addition to their instructional duties), instructors at the collegiate institutions of South Dakota receive salaries quite inadequate, whether viewed from the standpoint of conditions peculiar to South Dakota or from the standpoint of comparison with other institutions of the same character. This is, of course, particularly true for the State school of mines.

At present all three institutions are fortunate in having a relatively large number of faculty members whose long and efficient service to their respective institutions is neither determined nor measured by purely financial considerations. However, in the natural course of events new instructors must be added to the staffs in order to replace those whose services are terminated and to provide for developments inevitable in the growth of the institutions. Unless the salary schedules are materially raised in the near future the State of South Dakota can not hope to attract or retain efficient instructors. In fact, the State university and State college already feel their inability under present conditions to compete with other institutions of the same rank. The State can not afford to engage inferior instructors or to permit its collegiate institutions to become merely convenient stations where promising young men and women may gain their experience in college teaching, only to devote their

years of productive teaching and scholarship to other institutions which pay better salaries. In raising the general schedule for collegiate instructors the State would perform not an altruistic service to college instructors, but a service to itself. The primary consideration for the State is in the problem of its own interests.

In connection with the problem of salaries at the State university it is worthy of note that successive presidents of the institution repeatedly called attention to the necessity of increases if the work of the university is to be rendered effective. But in spite of some increases in salaries at the State university within the past few years, the salary schedule as a whole is far too low, to secure or retain men and women equipped for the work which should be expected in a State university. In this connection it is worthy of more than passing interest that budget estimates at the State university have always passed through a double "paring down" process. This is clear from the figures presented in the following table:

TABLE 105.—Salary estimates, recommendations, appropriations, and payments at the State university.

College year.	Recommendations by the president.	Recommendations by the regents.	Appropriation by the legislature.	Actually disbursed for salaries. ¹
1905-6	\$15,000	145,000	\$40,000	\$47,398
1906-7	50,000	250,000	40,000	48,204
1907-8	50,000	50,000	45,000	55,782
1908-9	50,000	50,000	45,000	55,364
1909-10	65,000	60,000	55,000	63,107
1910-11	65,000	60,000	55,000	68,718
1911-12	80,000	70,000	65,000	74,936
1912-13	80,000	70,000	63,000	82,332
1913-14	90,000	80,000	70,000	96,363
1914-15	90,000	80,000	70,000	91,686
1915-16	90,000	80,000	78,000	103,858
1916-17	120,000	90,000	82,500
1917-18	120,000	110,000	93,000
1918-19	120,000	110,000	97,000

¹ Appropriations, plus tuition fees and other "local funds."

² Revision by regents at the request of the legislature reduced these two recommendations to \$43,000 each.

It would appear that the regents of education had adopted the vicious policy of reducing the president's estimates by approximately 10 per cent and that the legislature had adopted the further vicious policy of reducing by approximately 10 per cent the recommendations of the board which it itself has established to examine the needs of the institution. The double "paring-down" policy can have no justification.

Study of the salary figures for the State school of mines shows that the salaries paid to full professors are approximately the salaries paid to fairly good high-school teachers. The principal of the Sioux Falls High School receives a salary of \$3,100. The presi-

dent of the State school of mines receives a salary of \$3,000. The average salary of the eight highest-salaried teachers in the Sioux Falls High School is \$1,556. The average salary of the eight full professors at the State school of mines is \$1,590.

Summary.—Certain important conclusions may be drawn concerning the salary schedules of the three institutions under consideration:

(1) With relatively few exceptions the salaries paid to faculty members in the State university, the State college, and the State school of mines are low—so low that the efficiency of instruction is seriously imperiled.

(2) With an average salary of \$2,000 and a standard teaching program of 500 to 600 student clock hours per week for both semesters combined (250 to 300 per week per semester), an average cost of instruction per student clock hour would be between \$3 and \$4 for salaries. Where salary costs rise above that figure one may expect to find—(a) too few classes taught, (b) small enrollments in classes, or (c) unusually high salaries paid. Where salary costs fall below those figures one may expect to find (a) teaching program too heavy, (b) overlarge classes, or (c) low salaries.

(3) The machinery whereby salary budgets are determined is faulty. The best educational interests of the State are not conserved when a double "paring-down" process is performed by the regents of education and the legislature. Salary costs do not fall within the same category in this respect as do expenditures for buildings, etc. Definite salaries should be set for positions of rank from assistant professor up and the budget therefor fixed accordingly. It is beneath the dignity of the State to bargain with individuals concerning the salaries to be paid for professional work.

On the basis of its investigation the survey committee makes the following recommendations designed to remedy the defects considered above.

(1) The establishment of a salary schedule for faculty members of rank from assistant professor to dean. An average of \$2,000 per department should be considered as a reasonable mean. The minimum salary for dean or other officer performing similar duties should be set at \$3,000. The minimum salary for a full professor should be set at not less than \$2,500. The minimum salary for an associate professor or an assistant professor should be set at not less than \$2,000.

(2) In each case where the salary cost per student clock hour is more than \$4 per department the administrative officers of the institution should determine whether that excessive cost is due (a) to excessively high salaries, (b) to deficient teaching programs, (c) to an excessively large number of classes with small enrollments, or

(d) to some factor peculiar to the particular work. Efficient administration can well remedy some of the defects thus disclosed.

(3) In each case where the salary cost per student clock hour is less than \$3 per department the administrative officers of the institution should determine whether that excessively low cost is due (a) to teaching programs which are excessively heavy, (b) overlarge classes, (c) excessively low salaries. Certain defects in the present situation may readily be corrected.

(4) The legislature should cease to place the salary budgets of the three institutions in the same category with financial budgets involving buildings, new ventures, or even equipment and maintenance. Neglect to appropriate desired money for buildings, expansion, even maintenance and equipment creates but temporary loss. Parsimony in salaries is more serious and frequently leads to permanent injury to the institution. Expenditures for material equipment, for maintenance, for expansions in the work of the institutions, or for buildings and land may be somewhat irregular without serious and lasting damage being done. Salaries, on the other hand, must from their very nature be essentially regular in maintenance and increase. The legislature would do well to encourage a settled salary policy in the various institutions, even with the expectation that that policy must change as conditions change.

Section 10. THE COST OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

South Dakota ranks seventeenth among the 48 States on the basis of the amount spent on higher education for each thousand dollars of wealth. Compared with two western States having approximately the same population, South Dakota spent for the year given in the census report about 7 per cent more than Oregon and 15 per cent more than North-Dakota, although recognition should be made of the variable factors which enter into these comparisons.

South Dakota ranks sixteenth on the basis of per capita receipts of higher educational institutions, including normal schools. But the per capita receipts of South Dakota are considerably less than those of the States mentioned above, Oregon and North Dakota exceeding South Dakota by 11 per cent and 32 per cent, respectively.

Notwithstanding the apparent liberality of the taxpayers in supporting the educational work of the State, there is good reason to believe that a much greater liberality will be necessary in order to reach the highest standards of education which are in demand by wealthy and rapidly growing States. Attention is also called to the fact that Iowa and Minnesota, States with much greater population

and wealth than South Dakota, are spending from 4 to 21 per cent more per capita.

Per capita costs of higher education.—Tables 106 and 107 show the cost per student at the State institutions of South Dakota in comparison with those of Washington, Iowa, Nevada, and Arizona.

TABLE 106.—Comparative per capita cost of higher education in the States of Washington, Iowa, Nevada, Arizona, and South Dakota.

(Based on the average enrollment.)

	Washington.		Iowa.		
	1913-14		1913-14		
	State university.	State college.	State university.	State college.	Teachers' college.
Number of students enrolled in first semester.....	2,263	947	2,343	2,292	1,297
Number of students enrolled in second semester.....	2,373	972	2,235	2,207	1,348
Total enrollment.....	4,636	1,919	4,580	4,509	1,245
Average attendance for the year.....	2,318	959.5	2,299	2,279	3,926
Total operating expenses, excluding summer school.....	\$517,505.00	\$343,865.00	\$629,069.24	\$616,654.33	\$220,018.22
Cost per student of average attendance.....	\$223.49	\$358.37	\$275.00	\$270.00	\$168.00
	1914-15		1914-15		
Number of students enrolled in first semester.....	2,724	1,013	2,416	2,522	1,406
Number of students enrolled in second semester.....	2,645	956	2,303	2,467	1,485
Total enrollment.....	5,369	1,969	4,719	4,989	1,366
Average attendance for the year.....	2,684.5	984.5	2,360	2,485	4,257
Total operating expenses, excluding summer school.....	\$517,505.00	\$285,299.00	\$648,195.10	\$677,146.68	\$241,007.52
Cost per student of average attendance.....	\$192.77	\$289.79	\$274.50	\$271.00	\$170.00
	Nevada.	Arizona.	South Dakota.		
	1914-15	1915-16	1915-16		
	State university.	State university.	State university.	State college.	School of mines.
Number of students enrolled in first semester.....	310	403	558	67
Number of students enrolled in second semester.....	316	505	62
Total enrollment.....	626	1,063	129
Average attendance for the year.....	313	413	531	358	65
Total operating expenses, excluding summer school.....	\$136,717.96	\$165,510.90	\$144,078.07	\$158,955.00	\$36,680.51
Cost per student of average attendance.....	\$443.18	\$400.73	\$271.20	\$441.21	\$564.32
	1915-16		1916-17		
Number of students enrolled in first semester.....	328	631	116
Number of students enrolled in second semester.....	331	622	78
Total enrollment.....	659	1,253	194
Average attendance for the year.....	329.5	626	365	97
Total operating expenses, excluding summer school.....	\$173,254.23	\$181,059.00	\$170,947.71	\$38,961.57
Cost per student of average attendance.....	\$522.77	\$241.29	\$468.33	\$390.12

Turns.

Registrar.

Table 106 gives in detail the enrollment, average attendance, total operating expenses, excluding those of the summer school, and the cost per student based on the average attendance for two successive years. Although a number of the surveys were made a year or two before that of South Dakota, this difference probably does not seriously detract from the value of the comparisons. Table 107 compares in minimum and maximum order the costs for each year of the two included in the survey of all the State institutions under discussion. The median cost is also indicated. Table 108 compares the average cost based on the two years, and shows the relative position of each institution in the minimum and maximum order. Special attention is called to the position of the State college and the school of mines as shown in these tables.

TABLE 107.—Per capital costs of instruction in the institutions surveyed by the Bureau of Education, giving each year in minimum-maximum order

Iowa State Teachers' College, 1913-14.....	\$168.00
Iowa State Teachers' College, 1914-15.....	170.00
Washington State University, 1914-15.....	192.77
Washington State University, 1913-14.....	223.49
South Dakota State University, 1916-17.....	241.29
Iowa State College, 1913-14.....	270.00
Iowa State College, 1914-15.....	271.00
South Dakota State University, 1915-16.....	271.30
Iowa State University, 1914-15.....	274.50
Iowa State University, 1913-14.....	275.00
Washington State College, 1914-15.....	289.79
South Dakota State School of Mines, 1916-17.....	350.12
Washington State College, 1913-14.....	358.37
Arizona State University, 1915-16.....	400.73
South Dakota State College, 1915-16.....	441.21
Nevada State University, 1914-15.....	443.18
South Dakota State College, 1916-17.....	468.35
Nevada State University, 1915-16.....	522.77
South Dakota State School of Mines, 1915-16.....	564.32
Median.....	275.00

TABLE 108.—*The per capita costs based on the average of the two years included in each survey.¹*

Iowa State Teachers' College, 1913-15.....	\$169.00
Washington State University, 1913-15.....	208.13
South Dakota State University, 1915-17.....	256.29
Iowa State College, 1913-15.....	270.50
Iowa State University, 1913-15.....	274.75
Washington State College, 1913-15.....	324.08
Arizona State University, 1915-16.....	400.73
South Dakota State College, 1915-17.....	454.78
South Dakota State School of Mines, 1915-17.....	457.22
Nevada State University, 1914-16.....	482.97

Suggested basis of comparing costs.—A study of the accompanying tables shows that the per capita costs of the State college and the State school of mines are very high. While it is impossible to determine arbitrarily what the per capita cost should be, it is suggested that in the light of previous surveys the cost figure for a university of recognized standards, such as the Iowa State University, may be made a suitable basis of comparison. This figure, \$275, which also happens to be the median cost, as shown in Table 107, may be used in comparing costs for the years 1915-1917, and is one that is also in harmony with the cost figures suggested by the Bureau of Education in its previous surveys.

Institutions compared.—If the average cost per student at the university were \$275, the total expenses would be \$169,036.46; they now are \$147,568.83, or 12.7 per cent less than the suggested standard.

If the average cost per student at the State school of mines were \$275, the total expenses would be \$21,406.64; they are now \$35,321.65, or 65 per cent more than the suggested standard.

According to Table 108 the per capita cost of instruction at the State university (based on the average of two years) is \$14.21 less than that of the Iowa State University; the per capita cost at the State college is \$183.72 more than that of the Iowa State College, \$198.48 more than that of South Dakota State University, and \$276.76 more than that of the Iowa State University. The cost at the school of mines is approximately the same.

Observations and conclusions.—The foregoing data go to show that the university is the only State institution of higher education which is operated at a figure below the suggested standard. It is

¹ Arizona includes one year's report only.

therefore possible to incur additional expense of about \$20,000 annually for the needs of the university, whether it be for increased salaries, as brought out in another section, or for other purposes, without going beyond the suggested standard.

While it is only fair to recognize that technical institutions such as the State college and the State school of mines may reasonably expect a higher per capita cost of instruction than at the State university, yet it is apparent that the State of South Dakota is not getting, nor is it as yet in a position to get, full value for the money expended at these institutions under their existing organizations.

If the plan for consolidation should be accepted, not only a reasonable reduction in general overhead expense would result, but there would be the release annually of from \$50,000 to \$60,000, which could be used to excellent advantage in increasing salaries, improving the institutional equipment, and general upkeep.

If consolidation is not considered advisable, the organization of the curricula at the State college and the State school of mines, in harmony with the recommendations respecting major and service lines, will doubtless effect a large reduction in the \$70,000 to \$80,000, which is the excess above a total operating expense based on a median per capita cost of \$275.

Section II. SUMMARY OF RECOMMENDATIONS RELATING TO HIGHER EDUCATION.

The primary recommendation of the committee involves the consolidation and reestablishment in a central location of all three higher institutions and the establishment, possibly at the abandoned sites, of three junior colleges under the direction of the consolidated university. If the State accepts such a policy, all difficulties of duplication disappear. If, on the other hand, it is not willing to adopt such a policy, it will be necessary to assign special fields to the various institutions and to suggest certain modifications in organization. In view of such uncertainty the committee presents the following substitute recommendations:

1. The instruction in engineering now offered at the school of mines should be transferred to the State college. In place of the present school there should be established a junior college under the general direction of the State university.

2. The principle of major and service lines should be applied to higher education in the State as follows: Major lines at the State university should include liberal arts, law, medicine, pharmacy, commerce, music, art, and the training of school executives, school administrators, and secondary school teachers other than those of agricultural, home economics, and industrial subjects.

Major lines at the State college should include agriculture and its related fields, home economics, engineering, mining and metallurgy, and the training of secondary school teachers and general supervisors in these subjects.

3. Until conditions warrant it, graduate instruction in advance of the master's degree should not be offered at either institution.

4. Secondary instruction at the higher institutions should be discontinued. This includes the following: (a) That offered by the preparatory departments at the State college and the school of mines. (b) That offered by the department of music at the State university and the State college. (c) That offered by the department of commerce at the State university and the State college. (d) That offered by the school of agriculture at the State college, except to students of mature years. (e) That offered to special students, except those who meet the regular entrance requirements or who are of mature age.

5. To insure better articulation between institutions of higher and secondary grade there should be provided an adequate system of high-school inspection and accrediting through the medium of the State department of public instruction. Admission to the higher institutions should be granted to all graduates of approved four-year high schools of the State and to candidates from other States who present certified credit for work equivalent to graduation from a four-year high school of the State. Conditional admission should be granted only to candidates who meet the general requirement and who are deficient in certain studies which are regarded as prerequisite to the chosen curriculum. In place of the present disjointed statement concerning prescribed subjects for admission and graduation there should be provided for each line of specialized study offered by the State's higher institutions a published statement showing what is believed to be appropriate sequences of studies and an acceptable amount of coordinated work covering the combined high school and college periods.

6. While South Dakota in comparison with some other States has liberally supported higher education, it must continue to increase its maintenance funds to provide for the growing demands. To this end the State should provide a millage tax, as recommended in Chapter IX. The budget plan for the disbursement of funds within each institution should be generally adopted and other improvements in financial procedure should be introduced.

7. More complete permanent records of students' work and achievements should be kept. The State college, after investigating the methods of other institutions, should revise its entire scholastic record system.

8. The functions of the office of dean should be clearly defined and should include, among other functions, the responsibility for the

formulation of well-connected curricula and the development and maintenance of strong teaching organizations.

9. A working standard should be adopted for teachers' programs. In general an instructor should not carry more than 15 hours per week and the instructional load should be from 250 to 300 clock hours.

10. A careful examination should be made of the courses offered by the higher institutions, with a view to determining, first, the courses justifiably offered on the grounds that they meet real and worthy needs and are for the proper development of institutional aims; and third, the courses now offered that may be dispensed with on the ground that they are superfluous or that they practically parallel other courses within the same or other departments. To mitigate the evil of small classes the administrative officers of each institution should give closer supervision to the departmental offerings. Special attention should be given to the possibilities of the alternative plan and to the possibility of reducing the number of similar courses in departments showing an excessive number of small enrollments.

11. As opportunity offers in the employment of new members of the instructional staffs the officers of the higher institutions should secure men and women whose qualifications are attested by the attainment of higher degrees received from institutions of standing and whose qualifications include a capacity for productive scholarship. The administrative officers should guard against the dangers of educational inbreeding.

12. The State should establish a definite policy regarding salaries at the several institutions, including a salary schedule for faculty members from assistant professor to dean. The present practice of considering salary requirements in the same category as appropriations involving buildings, expansions, or even equipment and maintenance, should be discontinued.

13. With a view to developing and maintaining efficient working staffs, the administrative officers should give serious consideration to such matters as opportunities for professional improvement, retiring allowances, comfortable living conditions, convenient and suitable office facilities, adequate working equipment, freedom of initiative, etc.

THE UNIVERSITY.

14. The college of law should be organized on the basis of a four-year course.

15. The extension work of the university should be more liberally supported and more definitely organized and its policies concerning standards should be more clearly defined.

16. The department of education should be reorganized as a distinct school of education in charge of a dean. Such an organization should include a practice high school for supplying the facilities for practice teaching.

THE STATE COLLEGE.

17. The proportion of technical work required for the agricultural curriculum should be increased, especially in farm mechanics and agricultural engineering.

18. Each of the agricultural departments should include all technical experts in the subject concerned, whether engaged in teaching, research or extension. The practice of grouping science experts, such as soil chemists, dairy bacteriologists, etc., with the technical departments rather than with their respective science departments, should be discontinued.

19. The work in home economics at the State college should be reorganized as a distinct division.

20. Better facilities and increased appropriations are recommended for the library at the State college.

21. The teacher-training work at the State college should be expanded. To meet immediate needs the work may be organized as a department in the general service division, with major options in agricultural education, industrial education, and home economics education. Specialists in the methods of teaching these subjects and in rural life should be provided to work in close touch with the respective divisions of the college. Adequate provision should be made for practice teaching.

Chapter XXI.

SUMMARY OF THE MOST IMPORTANT RECOMMENDATIONS CONTAINED IN FOREGOING CHAPTERS, CLASSIFIED AS LEGISLATIVE AND ADMINISTRATIVE.

Section 1. LEGISLATIVE.

1. The enlargement of the present State board of regents of education with the following powers and duties:

(a) To retain and continue all the powers and duties now held under law for the administration of the State university, the State college, and the State normal schools.

(b) To have general oversight and control of the public-school system of the State.

(c) To choose a superintendent of public instruction as the executive official of the State board of education and head of the State department of education.

(d) To require uniform records and reports, in form to be prescribed by the superintendent of public instruction, from all educational institutions supported by the State, and from all other organizations doing educational work receiving State accreditation and recognition.

(e) To classify and standardize, under the direction of the State superintendent, the public schools of the State.

(f) To prescribe the standards and courses of study for the State normal schools, the educational departments of the denominational colleges and academies accredited under State law, and such other teacher-training institutions as may be established by law.

(g) To adopt rules and regulations for the sanitary inspection of schools and for the physical examination of school children, and, in conjunction with other State authorities, to see that the rules relating to school health, compulsory education, and child conservation be enforced.

(h) To have general control of the schools for the deaf and the blind and the industrial school for boys and girls.

(i) To act as a board of control for the State library and State historical collections.

(j) To transmit to the governor and the State legislature a biennial report covering all the activities of the university, the State colleges, and the State department of public instruction in its relation

to all public elementary and secondary schools and the above-mentioned higher educational institutions of the State.

(k) To perform such other duties and functions as are prescribed by law.

2. The reorganization of existing school districts outside of incorporated towns and cities in the State as follows:

(a) Legal disestablishment of all common-school districts as now organized in all counties with a school population of more than 2,000 children of school age outside of present independent town and city districts; permissive disestablishment of all common-school districts in all other counties; and the establishment in lieu thereof of the county as a single school district.

(b) The abolition of the present district school boards in all counties of more than 2,000 children of school age outside of the present independent town and city independent districts and organization in lieu thereof in these and all other counties of county boards having the following powers and duties:

(1) To enforce the laws relating to education and the rules and regulations of the State board of regents of education within their respective counties.

(2) To elect a county superintendent and appoint such deputy county superintendent and necessary supervising officials as may be provided for under law.

(3) To appoint one subdirector for each school community within their jurisdiction, provided the county is organized on the county-unit plan.

(4) To have direct charge of all county schools in counties of more than 2,000 children of school age and in such other counties as take advantage of the county-unit act, including closing unnecessary schools, building new schools, consolidating schools, and conveying children to school at public expense, and organizing rural high schools.

(5) To elect all teachers on nomination by the county superintendent.

(6) To levy a uniform school tax on all the taxable property of the county under legal limitations, and to expend the funds thus procured to equalize educational advantages among all the school children of the county.

(7) To exercise such other powers and duties not enumerated above but which are prescribed by law.

3. The improvement of school enrollment and daily attendance by appropriate legislation, as follows:

(a) To begin the school year on January 1 of each year and close the same on December 31, thus making it possible to retain the same

teachers throughout the growing season of the year, which should be the most important session of rural schools.

(b) To lengthen the teaching year to a minimum of nine school months of 20 teaching days each, provided that the teaching hours may be shortened during the season or seasons of the year when pupils' labor is essential to agricultural and other industrial work.

4. The improvement in stability and growth of the public-school system through the following definite modifications in the present system of taxation for school purposes:

(a) The adoption of the county as the unit of taxation; these funds when collected to be used to equalize educational advantages over the county.

(b) The local school community to be authorized to levy taxes and to issue bonds under legal limitations for extraordinary purposes only, such as erecting new buildings and procuring larger sites and school farms.

(c) Levying of a State tax equivalent to not more than one-third of the whole school maintenance of the State (including the present permanent school fund).

(d) Adoption of a permanent millage tax for the maintenance of the State's higher educational institutions to be apportioned according to the needs of each institution to supplant the present legislative appropriations.

(e) Adoption of a new basis for the distribution of the present State permanent fund and future State taxes, as follows:

(1) The permanent fund to be distributed on the basis of aggregate daily attendance and the number of teachers employed, instead of as at present on the basis of school population; provided that weak schools in sparsely settled sections of the State be credited with not to exceed 2,000 attendance days in addition to their actual aggregate daily attendance.

(2) The proposed State taxes to be awarded for consolidation of schools, teacher training in high schools, etc., only when the local school communities have indicated their cooperation by agreeing to certain requirements made by law, a stipulation under which such aid may be received.

5. The improvement of rural education through State aid on the following basis:

(a) That no modern one-teacher school shall utilize less than 5 acres of land for grounds and experimental purposes.

(b) That every such school shall erect at community expense a cottage on the premises for the teacher.

(c) That ample facilities be provided for a sanitary water supply.

(d) That ample provision be made for the installation of such

sanitary toilet and heating facilities as shall be recommended by the State board of education.

6. The establishment of the present small rural schools as modern consolidated schools and rural high schools by (a) passing appropriate legislation looking toward establishing associated or trading-center school areas to embrace a central village and a number of outlying schools; (b) creating one county high school of agricultural type in each county in the State, which may or may not be one of the central schools of an associated area; and (c) voting liberal State aid for the erection of any school plants and for maintenance.

7. The improvement of teaching conditions by (a) establishment of reasonable minimum salaries for all teachers; and (b) scaling all teachers' salaries to the grade of certificate held, thus placing a premium on such preparation.

8. Improving of teacher qualifications by (a) increasing gradually the entrance requirements of the State normal schools and lengthening their study courses; (b) eliminating the present third-grade certificate; (c) discontinuing the issue of certificates on examination as soon as the normal schools, the department of education in the university, and the department of education in the State college, and other teacher training institutions have become fully equipped to supply all the professional teachers required; and (d) placing the minimum requirement for permission to teach at graduation from an accredited four-year high school or its equivalent and in addition at least one year's study acquired at a professional school for teachers, the standard to go into effect not before September, 1922.

9. Increase in supply of professional teachers by (a) organizing teacher-training departments in not to exceed 20 fully equipped high schools and distributed over the State; the schools to organize the professional work in fifth-year classes and to receive State aid; (b) establishing well-equipped departments for rural teachers at all the normal schools; (c) enlarging the facilities of the State agricultural college to prepare teachers for vocational agriculture and home economics; (d) granting State bonuses to teachers as awards for long service in a single community; and (e) establishing a retirement fund for teachers.

10. The division of the State into extension service districts, one for each normal school, within which each normal school shall organize an extension service for the teachers of the State.

11. The preparation of courses of study for the further training of teachers in service, the satisfactory completion of which shall be necessary to secure a permanent license to teach.

12. More liberal financial support of all the normal schools to enable them to reach the largest possible number of teachers to be.

13. The improvement of higher education in the State through the consolidation and reestablishment of a central location of all three higher educational institutions and establishment probably at the abandoned sites of three junior normal colleges under the direction of the consolidated university. If this policy be accepted, all difficulties of duplication will disappear. If, on the other hand, the State be unwilling to adopt such a policy, it becomes necessary to assign special fields to the various educational institutions, and to recommend certain modifications in organization. In view of such uncertainty the committee presents the following substitute recommendations:

(a) The discontinuance of the school of mines in its present location and the transfer of the instruction in engineering to the State college.

(b) A junior college to be established on the present site of the school of mines under the general direction of the State university.

Section 2. ADMINISTRATIVE.

1. The State superintendent of public instruction to be clothed with the following administrative powers and duties:

(a) The State superintendent of public instruction shall be the executive official of the State board of regents of education and executive head of the State department of education and shall enforce all the rules and regulations made in conformity to law by the State board for the public elementary and secondary schools.

(b) He shall have supervision of all the different divisions of the State department of education and shall be held responsible by the State board for the proper administration of the duties of each such subdivision.

(c) He shall, under the direction of the State board and in cooperation with the heads of the State teacher-training institutions and in conformity with law, prepare courses of study for these training schools and prescribe methods and standards for the certification of teachers, and the validation of teaching credentials from other States.

(d) He shall personally direct all educational activities wherein the State department of education, under law, cooperates with the presidents and faculties of the higher educational institutions of the State.

(e) He shall have such other powers and duties as under law belong to the office of the State superintendent of public instruction.

2. The county superintendent of schools to be clothed with the following powers and duties:

(a) To act as executive officer of the county board of education and to execute under their direction the educational policies determined upon by the county board.

(b) To act as chief educational official of the county in which capacity he shall represent the county board of education; to have entire supervisory control of the common schools of his county.

(c) To see that the compulsory-attendance act is enforced and the child-welfare laws obeyed.

(d) To nominate for appointment by the county board of education one deputy superintendent or professional supervisor for each 50 schools within his county.

(e) To supervise the classroom practice of all county schools, either in person or through his assistants.

(f) To carry out all policies of the county board of education; to have charge, under the board, of all county schools, including continuation school activities, night schools, part-time schools, short courses, etc., undertaken for the promotion of vocational and other education within the county.

(g) To have charge of health education in the county schools, including health inspection done in conjunction with the county board of health, and to direct the work of the county nurse if such a one is appointed.

(h) To keep full records of all educational activities within his jurisdiction, and to make reports from time to time to the county board of education and to the State superintendent of public instruction.

(i) To examine candidates for special teachers' certificates.

(j) To perform such other duties as by law belong to the office of county superintendent.

3. The improvement of school enrollment and daily attendance through—

(a) A careful annual census of the school population in all school districts of the State to be made by the authorities now provided by law, but under immediate supervision from the State department of public instruction, on uniform blanks to be furnished by this department. The census to classify the school population as follows: 5 to 18 years, 6 to 21 years, over 8 and under 16 years, 6 to 14 years, and over 14 to 18 years.

(b) More effective enforcements of the compulsory-attendance act through the medium of the county boards of education and the county superintendents.

(c) A system of records to be provided by the State department of education, to be used in transferring children from community to community, that will make evasion of school attendance impossible.

4. The improvement of rural education through the adoption by the State department of education of minimum standards for modern one-teacher schools, as follows: (a) Teacher with specialized preparation for rural teaching; (b) school plant to be equipped as

practical laboratory, in which to prepare rural people for their life work.

5. The enlargement of the facilities for preparing teachers in the State normal schools on the following basis:

(a) The normal school at Springfield to devote its energies chiefly to preparing rural teachers.

(b) The normal schools at Madison and Springfield to devote their energies chiefly to preparing rural and other elementary teachers and special-subject supervisors.

(c) The Northern Normal and Industrial School at Aberdeen to devote its energies to preparing rural and other elementary teachers and supervisors, with special emphasis on industrial supervisors.

6. The gradual increase of entrance requirements to graduation from an accredited four-year high school.

7. The granting of no normal-school certificates after the spring session of 1925 for less than the completion of two years of normal work above high-school graduation.

8. The award, after the spring session of 1925, of a two-year course normal-school diploma for the completion of the two-years' course above high-school graduation, and of the advanced normal-school diploma for completion of three-years' course above high-school graduation.

9. The provision by the normal schools for differentiated courses of study of two and three years above high-school graduation.

10. The establishment of special summer and irregular courses to enable teachers in service to fulfill the new academic and professional requirements.

11. The organization of specialized rural-school departments in connection with each of the normal schools.

12. Liberal increase in the salaries of all normal school instructors.

13. The reorganization of the department of education in the University of South Dakota as a school of education in charge of a dean and faculty of education.

14. The organization of a practice high school in connection with the university department of education.

15. The enlargement of the department of education in the State college of agriculture to meet the new demands made upon it under the Smith-Hughes Act.

16. The systematic inspection of the accredited denominational colleges and academies by the State department of public instruction.

17. The readjustment of certification privileges of the denominational schools on the following basis:

(a) That Huron College, the Dakota Wesleyan University, and Yankton College alone retain the acquired right to offer life diplomas.

for the completion of the four-year college course; that these schools abandon the six-year courses now offered because of lack of adequate practice school facilities.

(b) That all the other colleges and academies now offering courses leading to State certificates and to first and second grade certificates improve their practice-school facilities and enlarge their professional libraries under the direction of the State department of public instruction in order to retain the certification privileges which they now hold.

18. The improvement of higher education in the State on the following basis:

The principles of major and service lines to be applied to higher education in the State as follows: Major lines of the State university to include liberal arts, law, medicine, pharmacy, commerce, music, art, and the training of school executives, school administrators, and secondary school teachers other than those of agricultural, home economics and industrial subjects. Major lines at the State college to include agriculture and its allied fields, home economics, engineering, mining, metallurgy, and the training of secondary school teachers and general supervisors in these subjects.

19. Graduate instruction in advance of the master's degree not to be offered at either institution until conditions warrant it.

20. Secondary instruction at the higher institutions to be discontinued. This to include the following:

(a) That offered by the preparatory departments at State college and school of mines.

(b) That offered by the department of music at the State university and the State college.

(c) That offered by the department of commerce at the State university and the State college.

(d) That offered by the school of agriculture at the State college except to students of mature years.

(e) That offered to special students except those who meet the regular entrance requirements or who are of mature age.

21. For the improvement of the University of South Dakota.

(a) The college of law to be organized on a basis of a four-year course.

(b) The extension work of the university to be more liberally supported and more definitely organized and its policies concerning standards more clearly defined.

(c) The department of education to be reorganized as a distinct school of education in charge of a dean and faculty of education to include a practice high school for supplying facilities for practice teaching.

22. For the improvement of the State college of agriculture and mechanic arts.

(a) The proportions of technical work required for the agricultural curriculum to be increased, especially in farm mechanics and agricultural engineering.

(b) Each agricultural department to include all technical experts in the subjects concerned, whether engaged in teaching, research, or extension. The practice of grouping science experts, such as soil chemists, dairy bacteriologists, etc., with the technical departments rather than with their respective science departments to be discontinued.

(c) The work in home economics at the State college to be reorganized as a distinct division.

(d) Better facilities in increased appropriations to be devoted to the library at the State college.

(e) The teacher training work at the State college to be expanded, as stated in a previous chapter.

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