a preliminary study of

EDUCATIONAL DELIVERY SYSTEMS

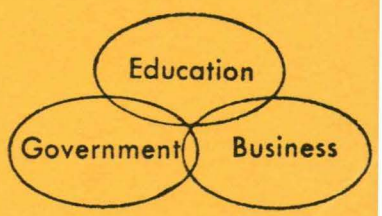
for the

STATE OF IOWA

Office for Planning and Programming

JULY 1970

Administrative Consultant Services



A Preliminary Study of

EDUCATIONAL DELIVERY SYSTEMS
for the
STATE OF IOWA

Prepared by

Administrative Consultant Services
Iowa City, Iowa

for the

Office for Planning and Programming
Des Moines, Iowa

July, 1970

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Administrative Consultant Services

Education
Government Business

July 20, 1970

Mr. Leroy H. Petersen, Director
Office For Planning and Programming
Des Moines, Iowa 50319

Dear Mr. Petersen:

Herewith is submitted through you to the Governor's Educational Advisory Committee, the report, A Preliminary Study of Educational Delivery Systems for the State of Iowa. The study was undertaken as a result of an agreement between the Office for Planning and Programming and Administrative Consultant Services dated June 26, 1970.

The study had three major purposes:

1. To develop a statement of needed services to be delivered by a state education system appropriate to Iowa
2. To identify and/or develop alternative modes of administrative organization which are capable of meeting the needs.
3. To provide a critique of each alternative by identifying the benefits and difficulties of each alternative.

The original intent of the report was to provide the basis for serious discussion, by the Governor's Educational Advisory Committee, of various alternatives to the present educational organization in Iowa. If the number of alternatives can be limited to one (or two) it would become possible to dig out hard data on this alternative(s).

We look forward to the pleasure of serving you again in the future.

Sincerely,

Administrative Consultant Services

Administrative Consultant Services
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CHAPTER I

THE SETTING

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present a brief look at some of the forces that are at work in American society. This is done in an attempt to set the stage for the consideration of appropriate educational delivery systems to meet the needs, in large part created by these forces.

The first section will provide a look at some of the national forces affecting education and the second section will detail some of the forces affecting education within the state of Iowa

National Forces Affecting Education

America does not exist as an entity unto itself. The fact is that we exist in a world of great diversity. Some nations, including America, have advanced technologically to the point of exploring outer space, while others exist in a technological vacuum. We live in a nation of such great over-production of food that we have governmental programs to limit this production while other nations

are losing the battle to feed their people. Economically we live in a nation of great prosperity and relative abundance.

At the same time it is possible to find great diversity between whole regions and states within America. At a still lower political level we find wide variations within the state of Iowa.

Increasingly, all peoples of the world are looking toward education as a first step in solving their problems and dealing with the various social, economic and technological forces. It is therefore important to outline some of the basic characteristics of our society, before attacking the problem of organizational structure of education.

Population Mobility

Population mobility, as evidenced by changes of residenc, travel, and transfer among various occupations, has become a hallmark of American society. Recent figures indicate that only one adult in five is now living in the same community in which he was educated. In all likelihood, future figures will reflect an increasing trend toward population mobility. No longer can a community be permitted to offer a sub-standard educational program to its young people for the finished products of these

become the responsibility of other communities throughout the state and the nation.

Urbanization

The rapid pace of metropolitan expansion is one of the most unique characteristics of American society. The great majority of the people, and their economic activities, are presently concentrated in just over 200 metropolitan areas. The whole eastern seaboard from Boston to Washington, D.C. is one gigantic metropolitan area.

The shift from a predominantly rural, small town society to an urban society has been accompanied by great social and economic problems. The solutions to these problems are the keys to the future of America. Education is being called upon to provide help in solving the problems connected with urbanization.

Population Growth

The rapid population growth in the nation, and the world, will have a pronounced effect on Iowa. As a part of the 'bread basket of the world' the population growth will have implications for agriculture in the state. As a state that has experienced a relatively modest population increase in the past decade, Iowa stands a good chance of

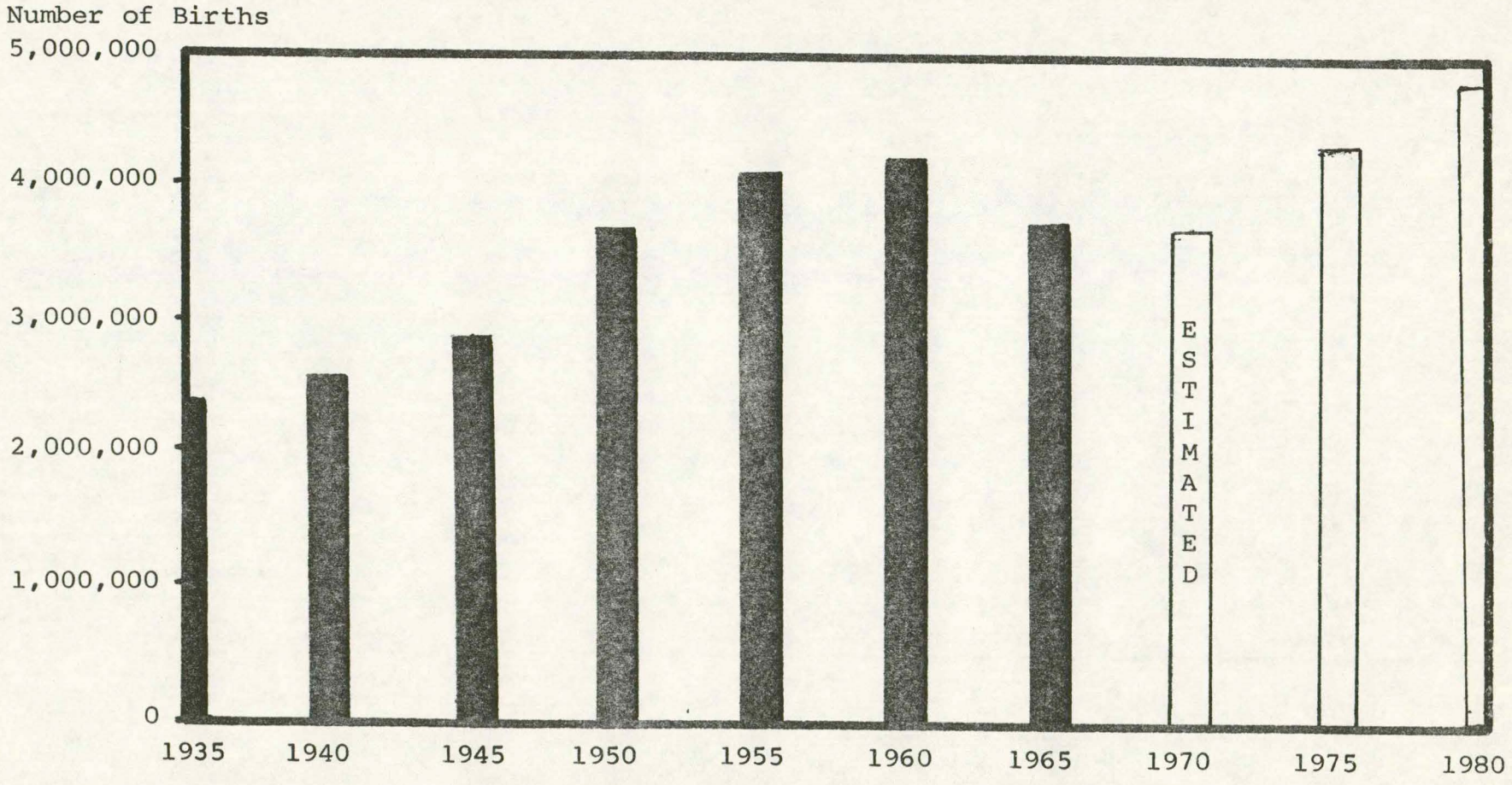
becoming more and more attractive to industries in search of relief from the complexities of metropolitan areas.

The apparent stabilization, and decline in some cases, of the birth rate has led some persons to believe that problems connected with providing educational services will also decline. Graphs 1 and 2 should serve to dispel that notion. Graph 1 shows that the number of births in the U.S. passed the 4 million mark in 1954 and peaked at 4.3 million in 1957. A downward trend started in 1962 and continued through 1968. The effect of this decrease in births was not felt by schools until 1968, when the children born in 1962 entered first grade. Enrollments in grades 1-6 should be lower through 1974 as a result of this trend.

Graph 2 provides information concerning trends in the number of marriages in the U.S. The annual number of marriages has rising steadily since 1958. The 1968 total of 2 million is exceeded only by the 2.3 million marriages in 1946. The increase is related to the increase in the number of young people between 20 and 29 years of age. Census Bureau figures indicate that there were 22 million in this age group in 1960, 25 million in 1965, and 29.8 million in 1969. As a result of the large number of births between 1941 and 1960, this number will rise to over 40

GRAPH 1

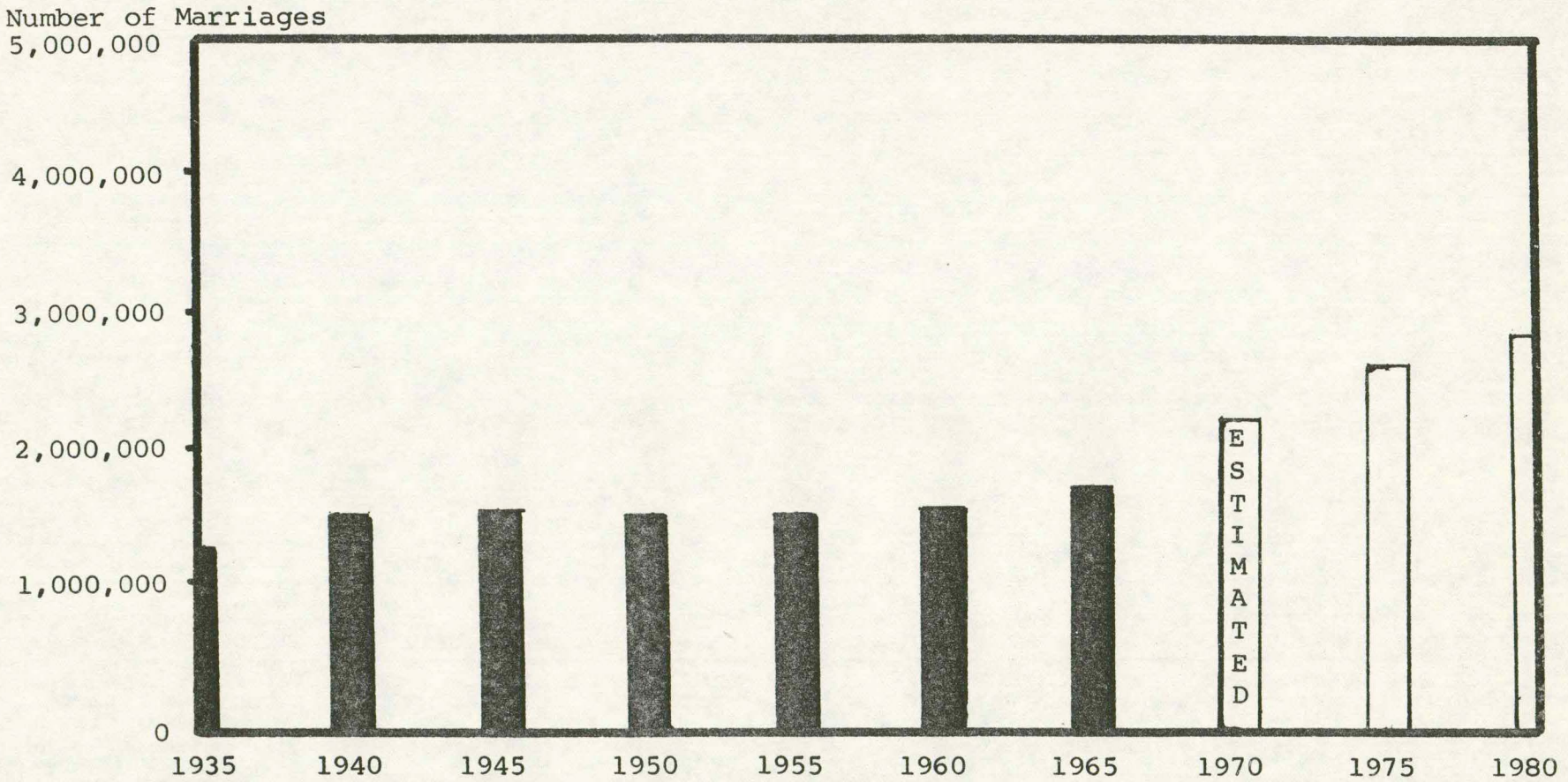
TRENDS IN NUMBER OF BIRTHS IN THE UNITED STATES*



*Source: U.S. Public Health Service. Totals beginning with 1960 reflect the addition of Alaska (1959) and Hawaii (1960). Combined effect equals 0.6%. Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

GRAPH 2

TRENDS IN NUMBER OF MARRIAGES IN THE UNITED STATES*



*Source: U.S. Public Health Service. Totals beginning with 1960 reflect the addition of Alaska (1959) and Hawaii (1960).
Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

million in 1980. At the same time, the annual number of births will also rise, even if the birth rate does not. On the basis of the first seven months of 1969, it became clear that the total births for the year would exceed those in 1968 and possibly those in 1967.

School Enrollments

Several factors have combined to effect the total school enrollment on the national scene. The trend in marriages, shown in Graph 2, will result in more children entering first grade in the fall of 1975 than in 1974, and more each year thereafter. By 1977, elementary total enrollments will again be climbing upwards.

Enrollment in non-public schools has been declining in the past decade with the results that only about 12 per cent of the children in k-12 are now in non-public schools. This compares with a percentage of 14.4 in 1964. Difficulties in financing and staffing have forced many to close or limit enrollments. Further reduction will increase the number of students to be educated in public schools.

The holding power of public high schools has increased steadily in recent years. For every 100 students in grade 9 in 1946-47, there were 60 high school graduates in 1950. The comparable figure for 1960 was 68 and in 1967 the

number rose to 77. The estimated number for 1970 was 78. Further increases are probable. Fewer dropouts mean that more spaces must be provided.(1)

Table 1 shows that the percent of enrollment of school age population has steadily increased over the last decade. Much of this increase can be attributed to increasing attention being devoted to special education needs of young people. In 1962, 1 percent of the total enrollment in public schools was made up of children in ungraded groups. The percentage had risen to 2 by 1968 and will probably continue to increase as the special educational needs of young people receive increased attention.

Extension of educational services to pre-kindergarten youngsters and to post high school students, at public expense, will provide increased pressure in the next decade. The public schools of the nation are currently enrolling 16 percent of the three and four year-olds and there is every indication that this percentage will continue to climb.

TABLE 1

NATIONAL PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLLMENT*

School year	Total resident school-age population as of July 1	Total fall enrollment	Percent enrollment is of school-age population
1960-61	44,189,000	36,281,294	82.1%
1961-62	45,303,000	37,464,074	82.7
1962-63	46,698,000	38,748,907	83.0
1963-64	48,005,000	41,025,000	85.5
1964-65	49,536,000	41,339,929	83.5
1965-66	49,995,000	42,835,000	85.7
1966-67	50,836,000	42,968,286	84.5
1967-68	51,584,000	43,834,015	85.0
1968-69	52,269,000	44,871,742	85.8
1969-70	52,789,000	45,484,435	86.2

*Source: Estimates of School Statistics, 1969-70, (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association), p. 8.

Science and Technology - Employment

The era of technological advances and scientific breakthroughs has brought with it a need for increasing degrees of vocational specialization. In the process of creating an almost limitless number of job opportunities, the scientific age has also created a need for a highly trained labor force to fill these roles. Thus, vocational education has taken on a new meaning and the schools must adapt to the change to fulfill the task of meeting the needs of its clients.

It is common to hear people refer to how they 'made good' without the benefit of a high school education. What has changed? Why is education so important today?

Over 90 percent of the people did not graduate from high school around 1900. This fact was of little concern then because there existed a wide variety of opportunities available to the dropout. Some of the possibilities for entrance into the job market and attendant upward social and economic mobility were:(2)

1. They could enter the unskilled labor markets, learn on the job, and advance. Today these men are being replaced by machines. America has experienced unusual growth in the last twenty-five years with an ever decreasing unskilled

labor force. The comparatively few unskilled jobs that do exist are demanding a high school diploma.

2. They could enter the labor force through farming. But, today agriculture is one of our most automated industries. Over one million agricultural jobs have been taken over by machines in the last decade and it has been predicted that another million will disappear in the next decade. In addition, farming has long since passed the point where hard work alone will guarantee success. Hard work is still a basic ingredient, but an increasing amount of sophisticated learning and an abundant supply of capital is also essential.

3. The person who could come up with just a little money could go into business for himself. The growth of the large department stores, grocery chains, and shopping centers has pretty effectively closed this path to those with limited financial backing. Even the self-employed auot mechanic cannot compete with the major automobile companies. It takes special tools to change spark plugs in modern cars and it certainly takes more than a minimal knowledge to repair the ignition system, transmission, or fuel system.

4. The fields of education, welfare, and recreation

were all available to the dropout since educational entrance requirements were minimal. Today, college degrees are practically demanded in all these fields.

Seventy years later these absorption systems are practically closed. Automation and the need for special skills have taken their toll with regard to the dropout. It is currently suggested that upward mobility is not even probable with a high school diploma. Four years of advanced training are becoming the rule, rather than the exception.

Science and Technology - Communication

The July 11, 1970 issue of TV Guide reports on the 8 million dollar experiment in televised education - Sesame Street. The author feels that measuring the program's achievement is impossible at the present time since the ultimate effect on American education may not be fully known for some years. The first venture has been so successful that a second program, designed for 7 to 10 year olds, is being planned in the area of reading skills.

The typical learner approaching school today comes with a vastly different background than those of ten or fifteen years ago. The average child entering first grade has been exposed to 3,000 to 4,000 hours of television

viewing. He has built up a vast reservoir of vicarious experiences and is accustomed to communication with images and sounds. This new learner must, of necessity, be exposed to a new kind of learning. Television has broken the extreme dependence on the printed word and has opened up an unlimited number of fabulous possibilities.(3)

It is interesting to note that most of the current educational innovations share in their break with the print-oriented, linear patterns of the past. These include such things as team-teaching, non-graded schools, audio-lingual techniques in foreign languages, multi-media approaches to learning, and computer assisted instruction. All of these, and others, tend to shift the responsibility for learning from the teacher to the student.

It is evident that improved communication techniques will have a profound effect on education. It is equally evident that these technological advances are demanding financial resources far greater than have previously been available.

Social Force - Disadvantaged Youth

Notwithstanding the fact that slums and ghetto areas were not created by school district organization, it nevertheless remains that school attendance areas have tended to perpetuate the problem. Kenneth Clark, in referring to educational inequality, pointed out that: "The class and social organization of American public schools consistently makes for a lower quality of education in the less priviledged schools."(4) The courts and the federal government are currently forcing the schools to help in correcting this situation.

Various readings, although slightly different figures are often quoted, provide some idea of the size and nature of the problem confronting education in the urban centers of America. An attempt has been made to gather some of the more significant facts and average them to get a better overall picture. Some pertinent results include:(5)

1. The largest minority group in urban areas is the Negro. Over 90 percent of all Negroes in America are urban dwellers.

2. One out of every three students who complete the ninth grade in urban centers do not complete high school.

3. Over 50 percent of those persons belonging to a

minority group, and who had completed high school, remain unemployed.

4. Approximately 90 percent of the welfare applicants in Cook County, Illinois have not completed high school.

5. The mean student turnover rate in the elementary schools in Manhatten is over 50 percent. Some schools show a 100 percent turnover of the student population in a single year.

The problems of the disadvantaged youth in our society are not limited to those found in the urban environment. There is, as a matter of fact, a growing body of evidence to suggest that the situation with regard to the rural disadvantaged is equally critical to the situation found in the larger metropolitan areas of the country. The emphasis placed on the urban disadvantaged stems primarily from the visibility of the group. Large masses brought together in ghetto areas are quite naturally more visible, and more explosive, than equally large masses spread out over an extremely large area. Corresponding figures for the rural areas are more difficult to find and compile, but there is every reason to believe that they would be equally disturbing.

Political Factor - Organization

In many modern communities, a family may reside in one political jurisdiction, work in others, send children to school in another and do its shopping in still another. At the same time, the structure of the American political system continues to reflect the belief that all of these activities are concentrated in one governmental jurisdiction. The proliferation of local political units prevents, rather than promotes, the settling of intra-area differences and makes it practically impossible to operate either efficiently or effectively.

Fragmentation of various government services is often accomplished under the guise of 'local control' and the appearance of bringing the government closer to the people. In actual practice the problem of achieving effective coordination is compounded. Political responsibility is often divided to the point of obscurity and the goal of local control is actually subverted. Even where good channels are developed for registering public concern, each governmental unit is so limited in its powers that important, broad-scale action is virtually impossible to undertake.

Political Factor - Federal Involvement

Education is not mentioned in the Constitution of the United States and two reasons are generally advanced for this lack of reference:

1. The spirit of the times and the language of the Constitution were intentionally designed to provide for a federal government with limited powers, and

2. The states had not yet developed a definite system of education.

Most authorities attribute the present involvment to the General Welfare Clause (Article I, Section 8). This clause confers upon Congress the power to lay and collect taxes . . . and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States. The exact meaning of the clause was the subject of sharp disagreement for many years. James Madison insisted that the clause conferred no substantive powers upon the national government. Alexander Hamilton insisted that the clause gave Congress broad and extensive powers to tax and spend. The issue was finally decided by the Supreme Court in the case of the United States vs Butler at which time the court accepted the version put forth by Hamilton. The limits of Congressional authority to tax and spend in an effort to control education have never been clearly established.

As a result of this situation, educators are currently confronted with a maze of federal programs. There are more than twenty agencies at the federal level, administering over fifty programs, that have something to do with legitimate educational programs and practices. In a book distributed to educators by the Doubleday Book Company they state that, ". . . the benefits your schools and libraries can receive from the Federal Government are limited only by your knowledge of available programs and your imaginative use of them." (6)

In addition to direct aid programs to local schools we have recently seen the establishment of twenty regional education laboratories and ten research and development centers around the country. The prime function of each research and development center is to focus on a single educational research activity while that of the regional laboratories is to put educational research into practice. These concurrent developments are still in relatively early stages of development and their eventual effect on education is difficult to establish at this time. It is felt by some that, if properly developed, they possess the potential for having the greatest nationalizing effect on education of any program sponsored by federal or private sources.

Economic Force - Effect on the Individual

High quality educational programs in elementary and secondary schools are sound public policy. Research shows a high relationship between the educational level attained by an individual and his lifetime earnings. Estimated average lifetime earnings of people by levels of education completed are shown in Table 2. It can be seen that a high school graduate earns about $35,000 more during his lifetime than a high school dropout even though he starts to work one or two years later. The college graduate earns about $138,000 more than the high school graduate, even though he typically starts to work four years later.

TABLE 2

AVERAGE LIFETIME EARNINGS PER YEARS OF SCHOOLING*

Schooling	Lifetime Earnings
Elementary School	
Fewer than 8 years	$143,000
8 years	$184,000
High School	
1 to 3 years	$212,000
4 years	$247,000
College	
1 to 3 years	$293,000
4 years	$385,000
5 or more years	$455,000

*Source: Herman P. Miller, Rich Man, Poor Man (New York: Thomas P. Crowell, 1964), p. 145.

Iowa Forces Affecting Education

The forces, and trends, affecting education at the national level have a definite bearing on the educational practice in Iowa. In addition, Iowa has some problems that are especially pertinent to any consideration of an educational delivery system for the state. The following sections will provide background information on some of these problems.

Urbanization

The concentration of population in urban centers has been accompanied by great social and economic problems - most of which remain unsolved. Rural population in Iowa is declining and population growth is taking place in the urban areas of the state. Just released unofficial 1970 U.S. Census figures, show that 20 Iowa counties gained in population during the past decade, while the remaining 79 counties lost in population since the 1960 census. Overall, the state gained 30,339 (1.1 %) during the decade. Iowa's unofficial 1970 population totals 2.787,936.

According to the Iowa Crop and Livestock Reporting Service, Iowa has lost an average of between 3,000 and 6,000 farms a year since 1960 after a rather stable period during the late 1940's and early 1950's. The number of

Iowa farms on January 1, 1968 was estimated at 145,509, compared to 149,277 on January 1, 1967 and 188,750 on January 1, 1958. During the same 10 year period the average farm size increased from 184 acres to an average of 234 acres. The total number of farm acres dropped from 34,687,513 to 34,012,176.

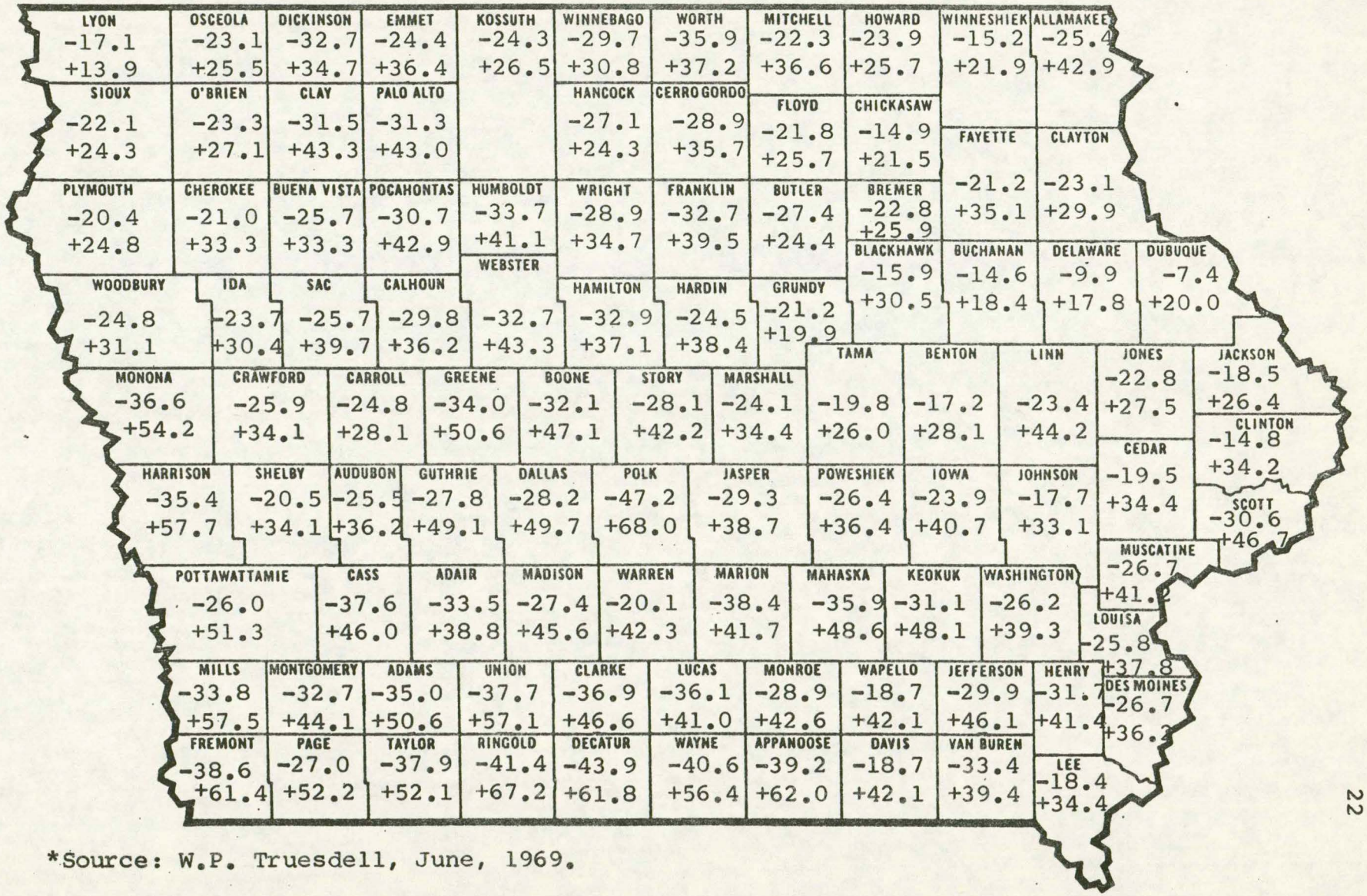
Map 1 shows the percent of changes in the farm population, and changes in the size of farms for the period from 1947 to 1967. A loss of approximately one-third of the farm population to the cities during the twenty year period greatly affects school enrollments - both in the rural areas they leave and the urban areas to which they migrate.

Changing Birthrates

Table 3A shows that the Iowa birthrate has declined from 23.9 live births per 1,000 in 1955 to 16.8 births per 1,000 in 1968. Assuming 25 students per class as an optimum figure, it can be seen that in 1955 each 1,000 population would furnish an optimum size class. The same 1,000 would provide just over two-thirds of an optimum class in 1968. To compound the problem, the birthrate decline is not equal in all parts of the state. Nineteen southwestern Iowa counties, predominantly rural, had an average

MAP 1

PERCENT OF CHANGE IN FARM POPULATION AND SIZE OF FARMS, 1947 - 1967*



*Source: W.P. Truesdell, June, 1969.

birthrate of 12.4 per 1,000 in 1968. Twenty rural counties in northwest Iowa averaged 13.8 births per 1,000 during the same year. But, the eighteen urban counties in the state (those containing the 22 cities whose student enrollments exceed 3,500) averaged 18.2 births per 1,000. Three of the most rapidly developing industrial counties; Linn, Scott, and Blackhawk, experienced birthrates of 22.7, 21.5, and 19.2 respectively. Map 2 shows the birthrates in all Iowa counties for 1955 and 1968.

TABLE 3A

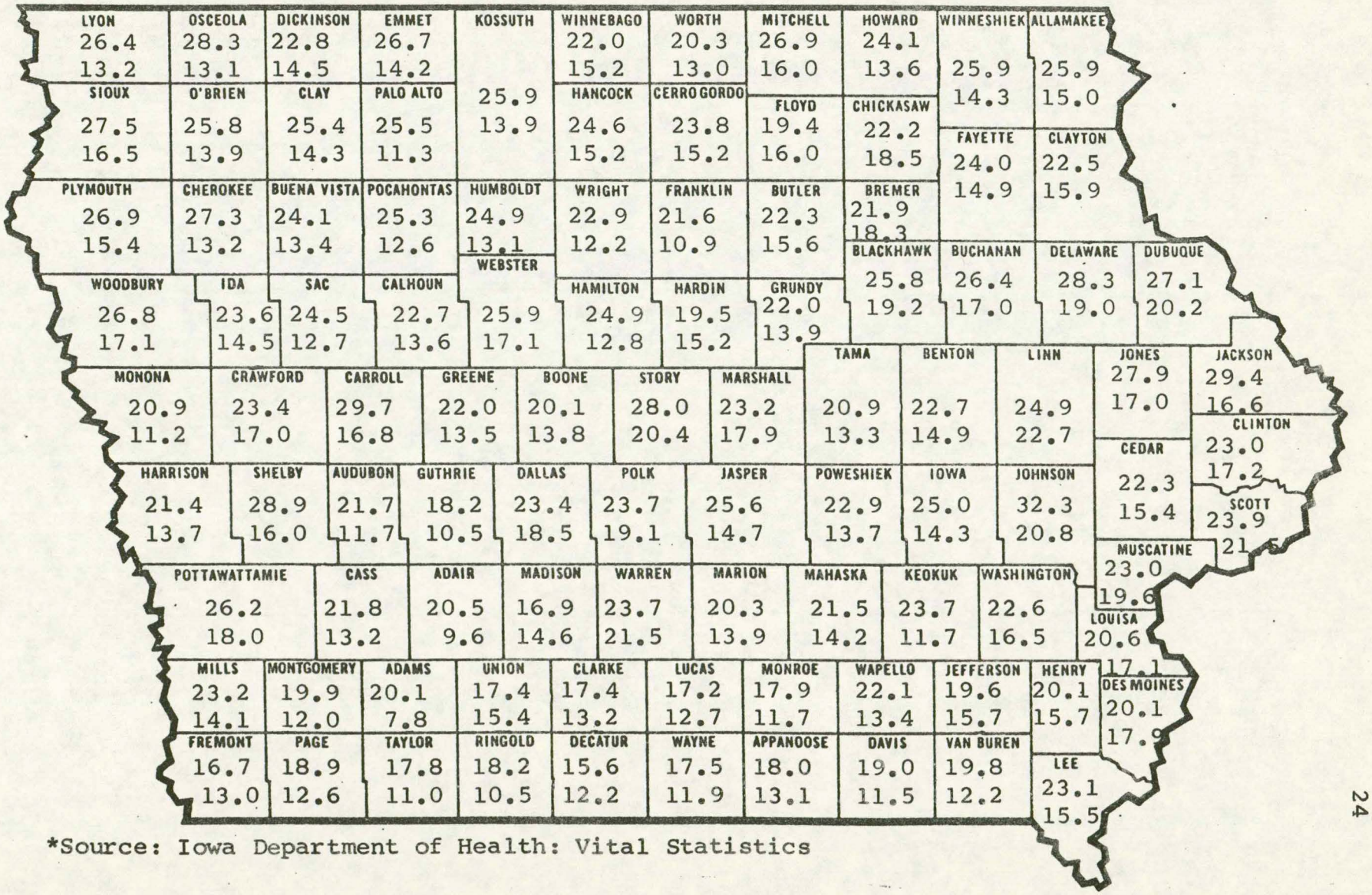
BIRTHRATE TRENDS IN GROUPS OF IOWA COUNTIES*

Groups of Iowa Counties	Birthrates per 1000 Population 1955	1968
20 Northwest Counties All Rural	25.2	13.8
19 Southwest Counties All Rural	17.5	12.4
18 Urban Counties with 22 Largest Cities	24.8	18.2
STATE AVERAGE	23.9	16.8

*Source: School Administrators Drive-in Conference Manual, University of Northern Iowa, May, 1970.

MAP 2

BIRTH RATES PER 1000 POPULATION, 1955 - 1968*



*Source: Iowa Department of Health: Vital Statistics

Decline in Number of Children Under Five Years of Age

The 1968 school census showed a sizeable drop in the number of children in each age group from birth to three years of age. Map 3 shows the percent of change in the number of children under five years of age for the ten year period from 1958 to 1968. Comparison of the drop in birth-rates in rural and urban counties was shown in Table 3. Both of these documents further substantiate the differences between rural and urban counties.

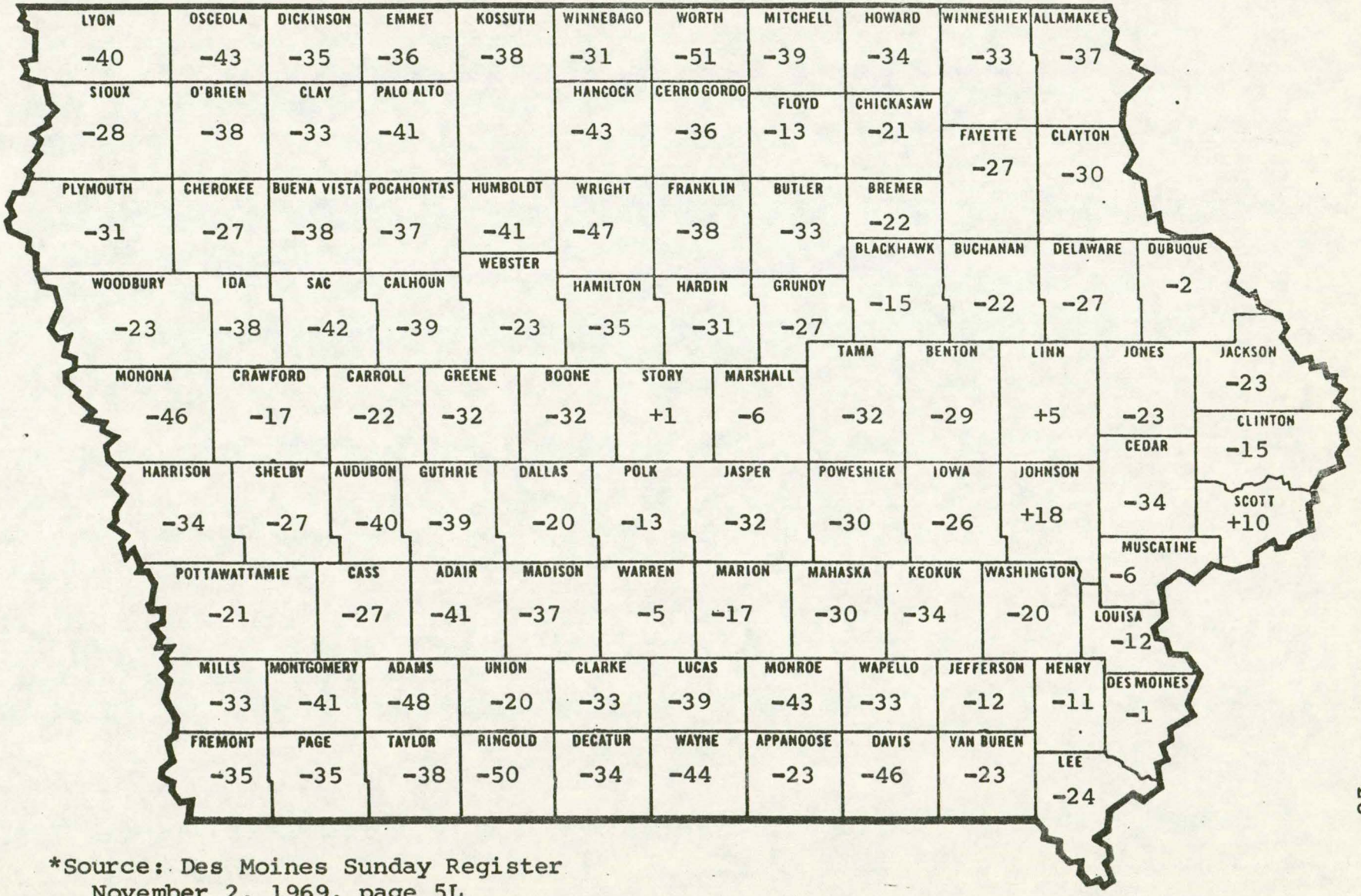
Changes in School Enrollment

Table 3B presents data relative to the changing urban-rural mix in the population. A comparison is shown between the school enrollments in 18 urban counties and the 18 counties with the smallest school enrollments for the school years 1962-63 and 1968-69. Similar changes in enrollment can be found by comparing groups of schools. Enrollments in Iowa schools whose student population is less than 500 decreased 5.3 percent from 1967-68 to 1968-69; schools enrolling 1,000 to 3,000 students increased 5.8 percent; while those schools with over 3,000 enrollment showed an increase of 6.0 percent in the one year.

Some extremes related to the industrialization of the counties are shown in Table 3C.

MAP 3

PERCENT OF CHANGE IN NUMBER OF CHILDREN UNDER FIVE YEARS OF AGE, 1958-1968*



*Source: Des Moines Sunday Register
November 2, 1969, page 5L

TABLE 3B

CHANGES IN SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS IN SELECTED RURAL AND URBAN COUNTIES*
(1962-63 to 1968-69)

	Total Enrollment 1968-69	Percent of Total State Enrollment	Percent of Change, 1962-63 to 1968-69
18 Urban counties containing the 22 cities with enrollments over 3500	342,378	52.0	+ 16.2
18 Iowa counties with smallest enrollments	37,577	5.7	- 5.5
IOWA TOTALS	657,936	100.0	+ 10.1

*Source: School Administrators Drive-in Conference Manual, University of Northern Iowa, May, 1970.

TABLE 3C

EXTREMES IN POPULATION AND ENROLLMENT CHANGES*

	Birthrate per 1000 population, 1968	Percent of Change in Number of Children Under 5 Years of Age 1958 - 1968	Percent of Change in Enrollment, 1962-63 to 1968-69
Industrial Counties			
Scott	21.5	+ 10	+ 29.7
Linn	22.7	+ 5	+ 26.7
Blackhawk	19.2	- 15	+ 13.7
Rural Counties			
Northwest - Ida	14.5	- 38	- 2.5
Southwest - Ringgold	10.5	- 50	- 14.4
Southeast - Davis	11.5	- 46	- 0.4
Northeast - Howard	13.6	- 34	+ 7.8

*Source: School Administrators Drive-in Conference Manual, University of Northern Iowa, May, 1970.

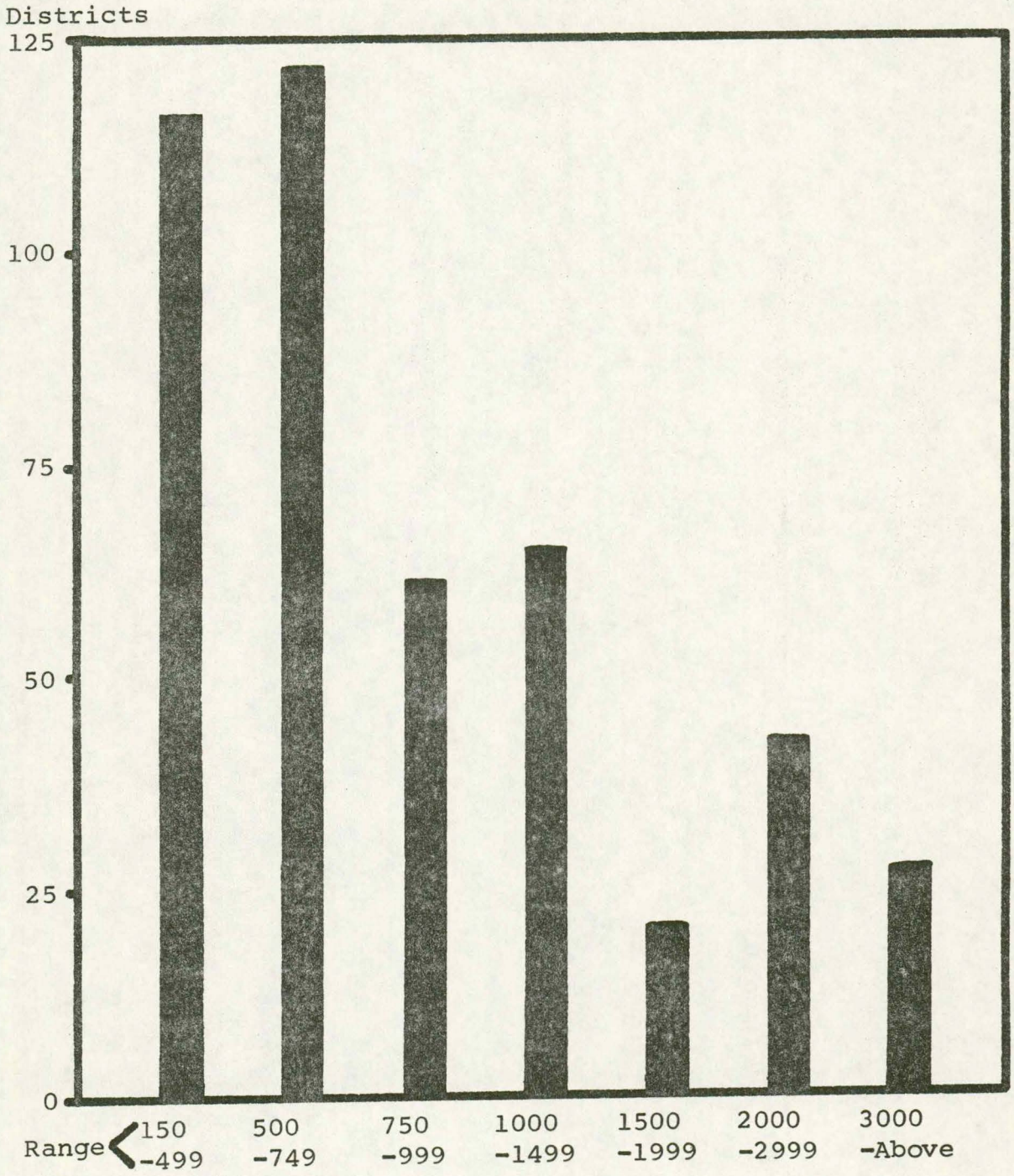
Curriculum and Staffing

The state legislature set, in 1965 and 1967, specific standards for curricular offerings and staffing of schools. These offerings demand more specialists and it is becoming increasingly difficult to provide them, without excessive costs, in small school districts. In a press release on June 11,1969, Eldert Groenendyk, Consultant in the Department of Public Instruction, reported that 40 Iowa schools had enrollments in 30 percent or more of their classes of less than 10 students. Graph 3 presents information on the number of Iowa schools in each size category. Data from the Department of Public Instruction indicate that only 3 of the 301 schools with total enrollment of less than 1,000 were able to offer 48 units (state average) of academic work; while only 11 of the 90 schools with over 1500 students offered less than 48 units. Information showing the average number of course offerings per class size is given in Graph 4. In 1968-69, the Department of Public Instruction notified 116 Iowa schools that they were deficient in either curricular offerings or in staff, or both. Only 1 was a school with over 1500 enrollment.

Greater demands in curricular offerings have created problems in attracting highly trained teachers to the

GRAPH 3

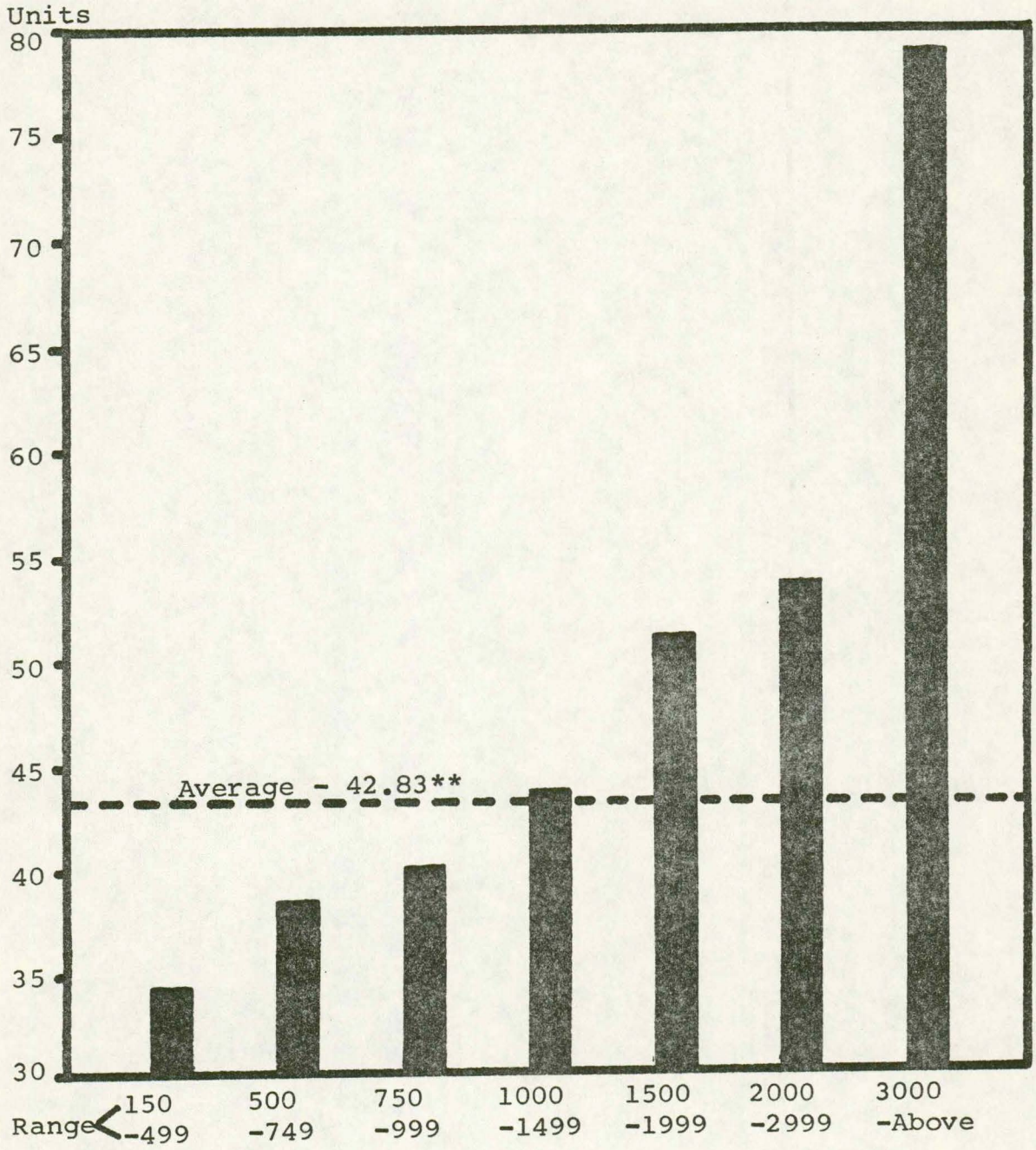
NUMBER OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS BY K-12 ENROLLMENT RANGE*



*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970, p. 72.
Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

GRAPH 4

UNITS OFFERED (9-12) BY DISTRICT SIZE*



*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970, p. 156. Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

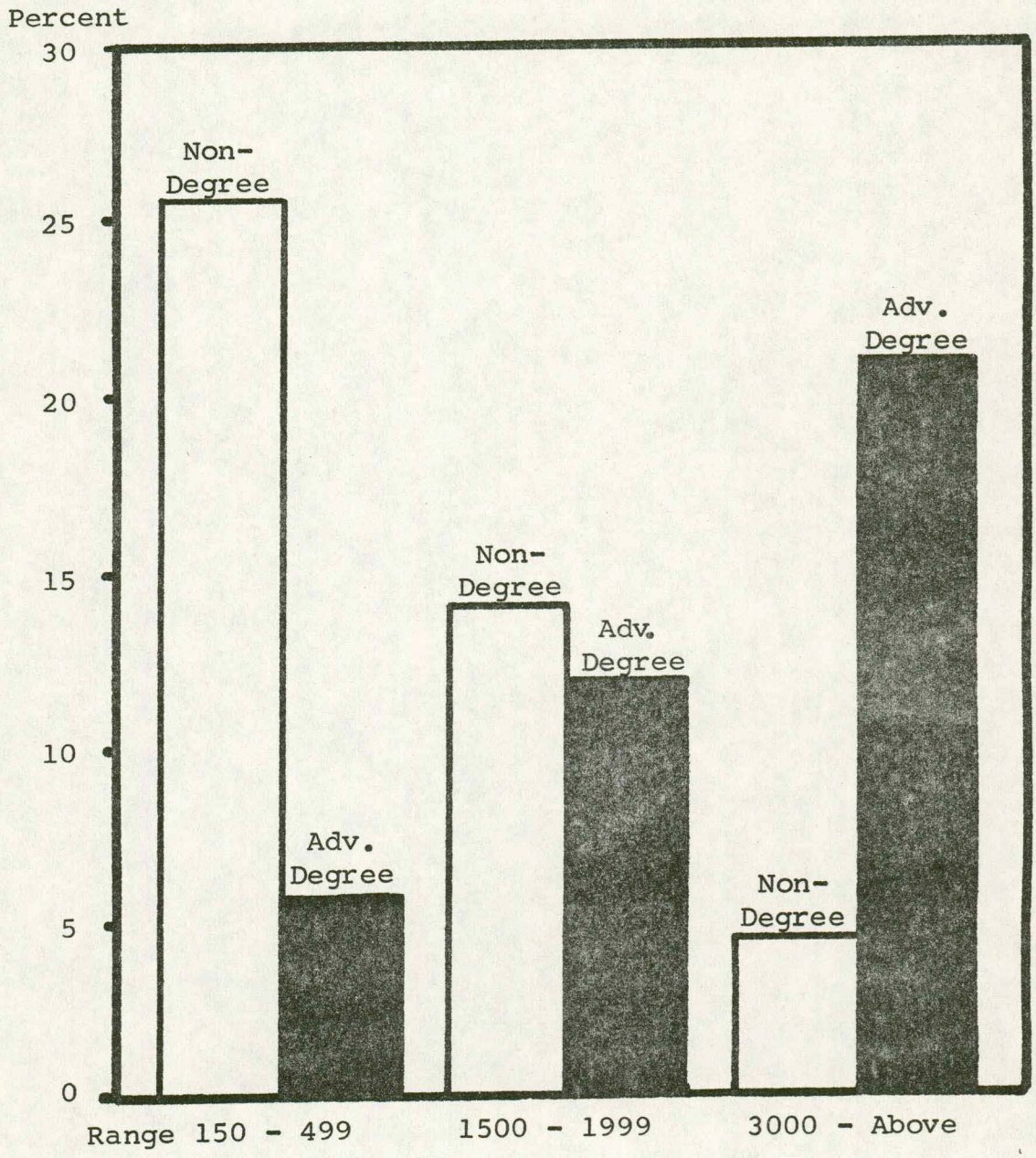
**Average non-public school offerings - 34.71.

smaller school districts in Iowa, as shown on Graph 5. In addition to the problem of attracting teachers, the smaller districts also have a problem of effectively and efficiently utilizing the teachers they do hire. Table 4 shows a comparison of the percent of teachers in four curricular areas (mathematics, science, English, and social science) who have majors in the area in which they are teaching according to three different size categories. With regard to the efficient use of teachers, Graph 6 shows the elementary pupil-teacher ratios for the different enrollment categories and Graph 7 shows the senior high pupil-teacher ratios. Both graphs indicate a definite move toward higher pupil-teacher ratios as the size of the school increases.

It is difficult for a school with less than 1000-1500 students to fully utilize a full-time superintendent, a secondary principal, an elementary principal, a full-time guidance counselor and a librarian. By utilizing averages from throughout the Department of Public Instruction's booklet, Data on Iowa Schools, 1968-69, it was possible to establish staff utilization figures for these positions. These data, shown in Table 5, indicate that on the average the Iowa schools with fewer than 500 students have a staff utilization figure of 58 percent.

GRAPH 5

PERCENT OF NON-DEGREE AND ADVANCED DEGREE TEACHERS
IN THREE SELECTED SIZE RANGES*



*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970, p. 135. Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

Note: Percent of Bachelor's degree teachers in all size categories range from 68.9% to 74.2%.

TABLE 4

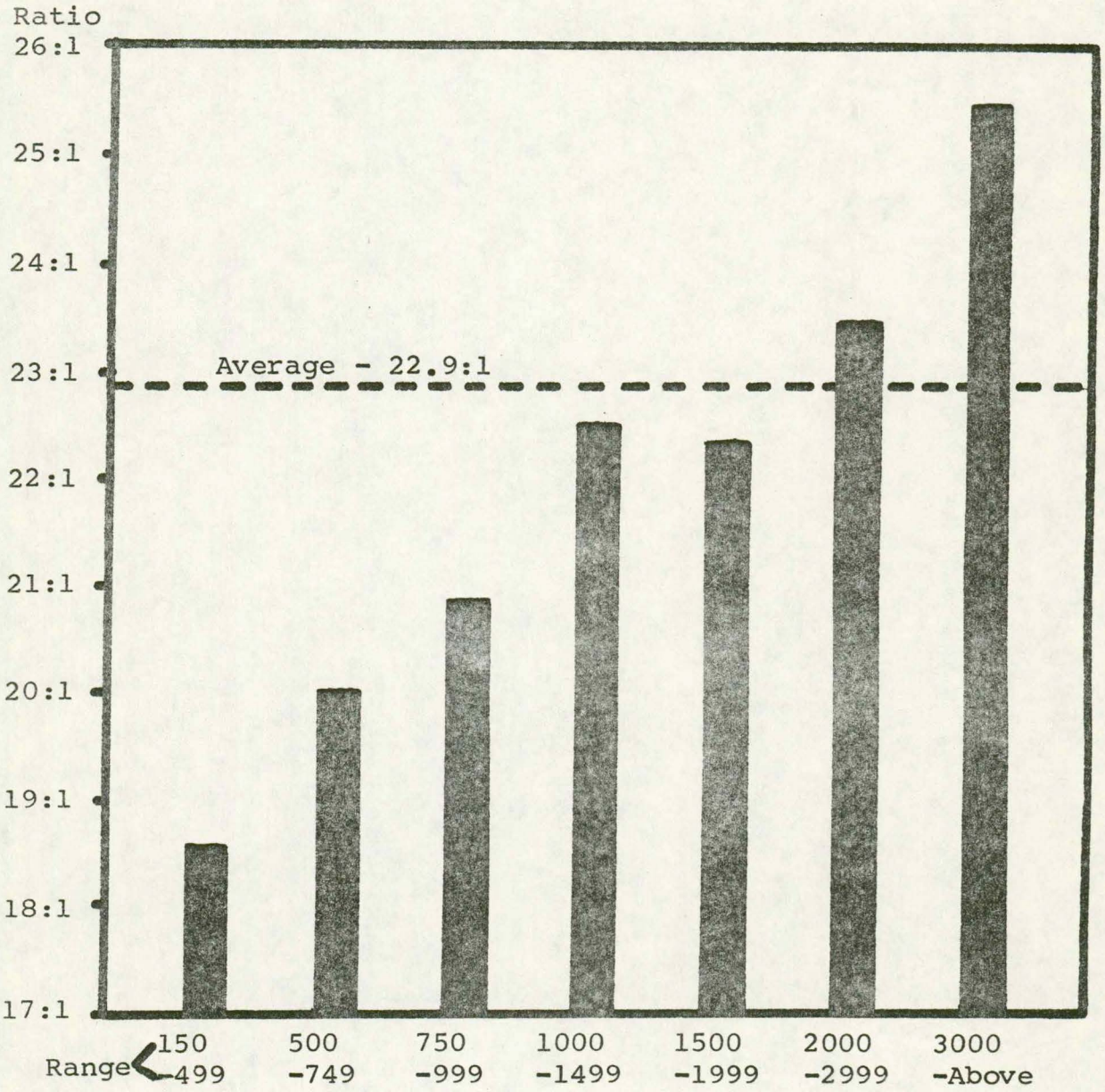
PERCENT OF TEACHERS WITH MAJORS IN THEIR SPECIFIC AREA OF INSTRUCTION IN THREE ENROLLMENT SIZE CATEGORIES, 1968-69*

	Enrollment K-12		
	Less than 500	1500-1999	3000-Above
Instructional Area	Percent with Major	Percent with Major	Percent with Major
Math	62.6	76.6	73.7
Science	52.7	81.0	95.0
English	53.7	65.3	67.1
Social Science	29.6	38.5	43.2

*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970, pp. 140-141.

GRAPH 6

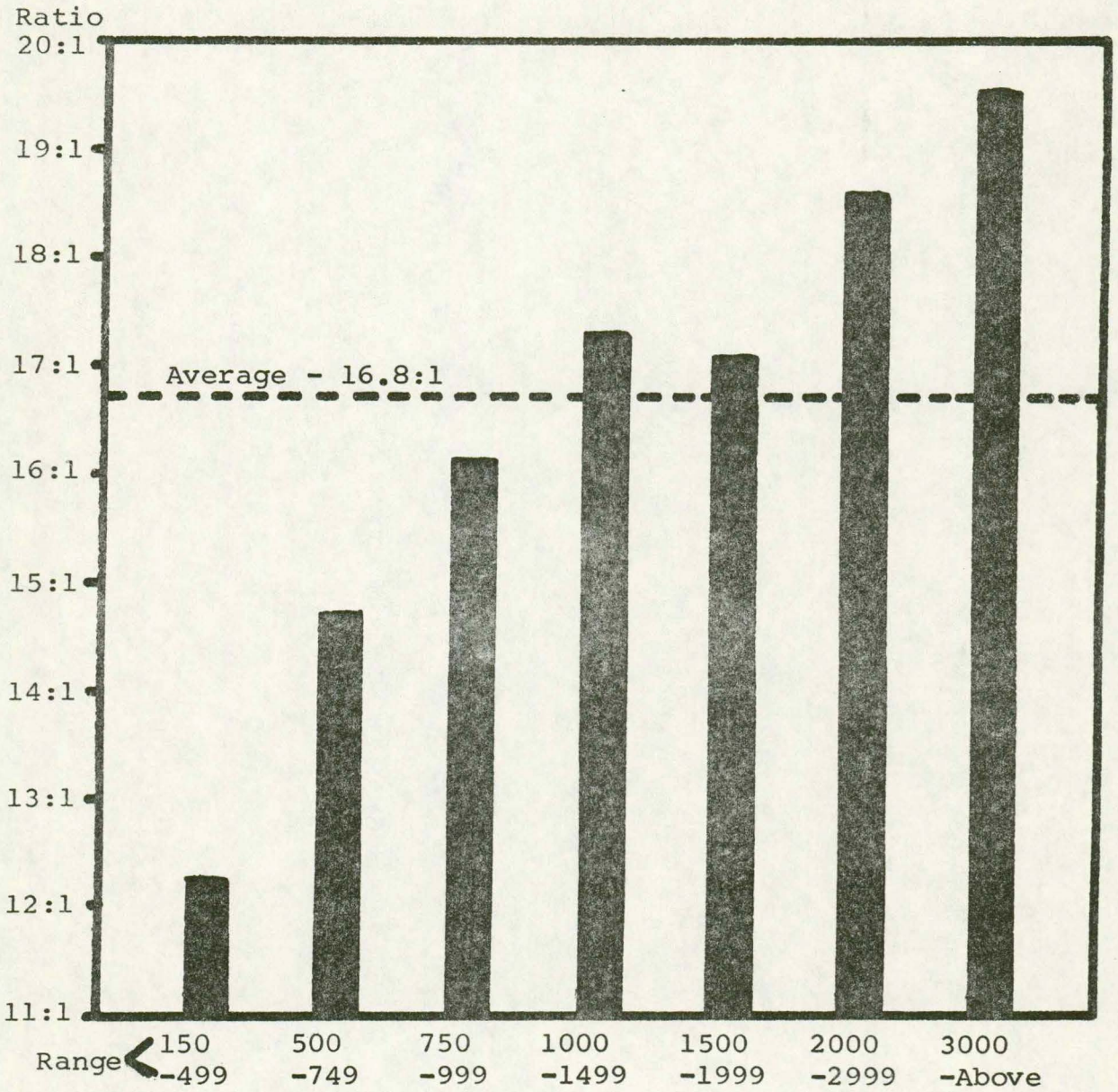
ELEMENTARY PUPIL-TEACHER RATIOS
BY K-12 ENROLLMENT RANGE*



*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970, p. 46. Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.
Note: Figures do not include special education, pre-kindergarten or unclassified pupils.

GRAPH 7

SENIOR HIGH PUPIL-TEACHER RATIOS
BY K-12 ENROLLMENT RANGE*



*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970, p. 46. Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.
Note: Figures do not include special education, post high or unclassified pupils.

TABLE 5

STAFF UTILIZATION*

		Total School Enrollment, K-12		
		500 Students	1500 Students	2500 Students
K-6 Enrollment		270	810	
K-5 Enrollment				1150
6-8 Enrollment				575
9-12 Enrollment				775
7-12 Enrollment		230	690	
Staff	Criteria: Students to Staff			
Superintendent	1500	.33	1.00	1.00
Sec. or Bus. Mgr.	1500	.33	1.00	1.00
Curr. Dir.	2000			1.00
Principals				
Secondary	500	.54	1.38	1.55
Jr. High	500			1.15
Elementary	525	.46	1.54	2.18
Guidance				
High School	300	.90	2.63	2.58
Jr. High	500			1.15
Elementary	1000	.27	.81	1.15
Library				
High School	500	.46	1.38	1.55
Jr. High	500			1.15
Elementary	1150	.23	.81	1.00
Total Needed		3.52	10.55	16.46
Avg. Employed		6.33	11.00	17.50
Utilization		58%	96%	94%
Pupil/Staff Ratio		79	136	147
Staff/1000		12.66	7.30	7.00

*Information Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970.

Non-Public Schools

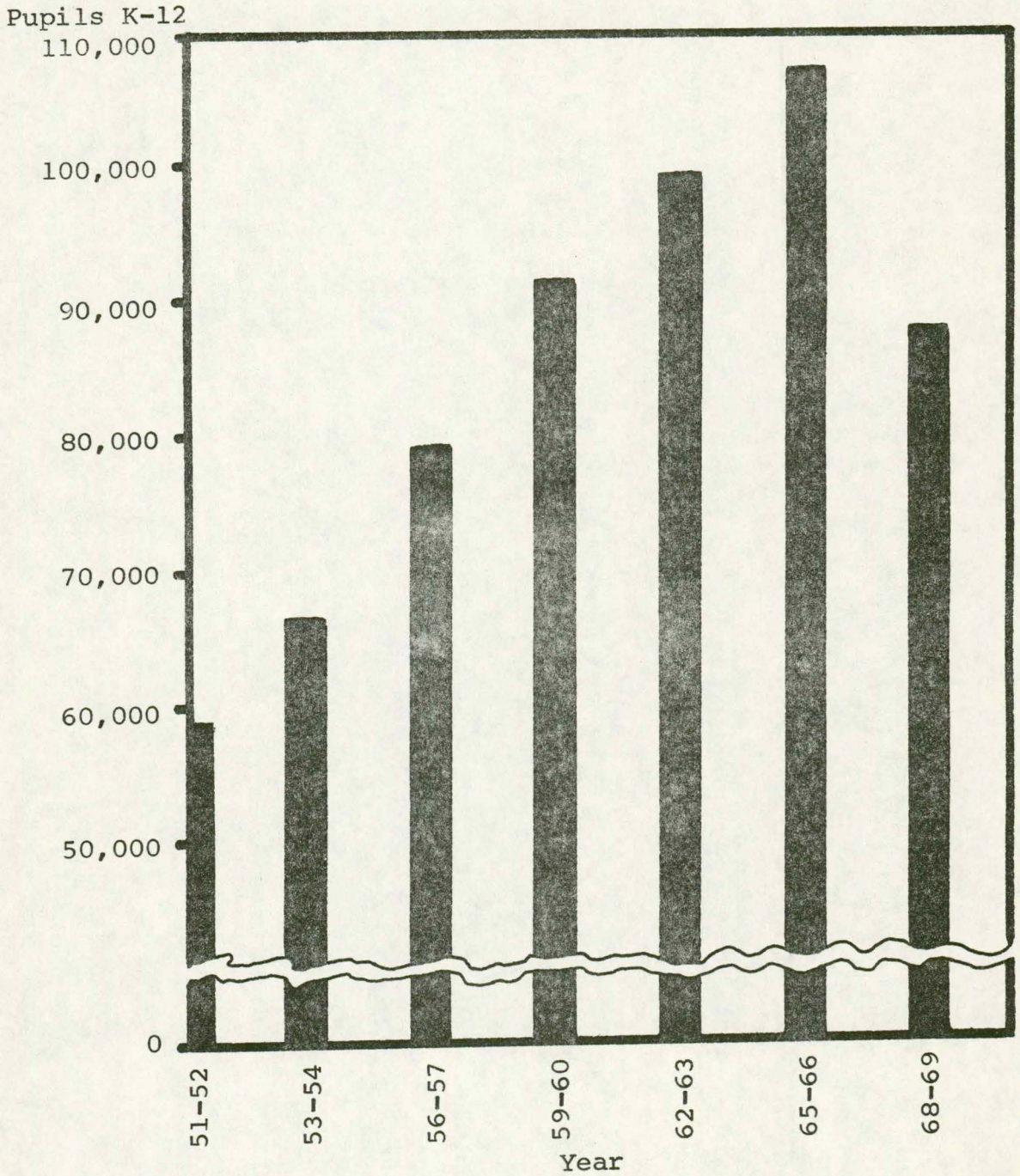
Any consideration of an educational delivery system in Iowa must take into account the evident trend in non-public education in the state. There were 436 non-public schools in Iowa in 1965-66. Four years later, 1968-69, this number had been reduced to 389. This represents a 10.8 percent decrease for the four year period and has been primarily attributable to pressures of financing and staffing. Catholic schools represented 270 of the 1968-69 total while Lutheran and Christian Reformed totals were 39 and 38, respectively.

During the same four year period the total enrollment in non-public schools has declined from an all-time high of 107,107 to 87,672. Since the 1965-66 school year, the enrollment has declined at an average rate of almost 6.5 percent per year.

Graph 8 provides enrollment data for non-public schools for the eighteen year period beginning with the 1951-52 school year. The bar graph shows actual enrollment figures for every third year. Future enrollment figures will undoubtedly depend upon the fate of various plans being advanced to aid non-public education.

GRAPH 8

NONPUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLLMENT
1951-1952 THROUGH 1968-1969*



*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970, p. 51.
Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

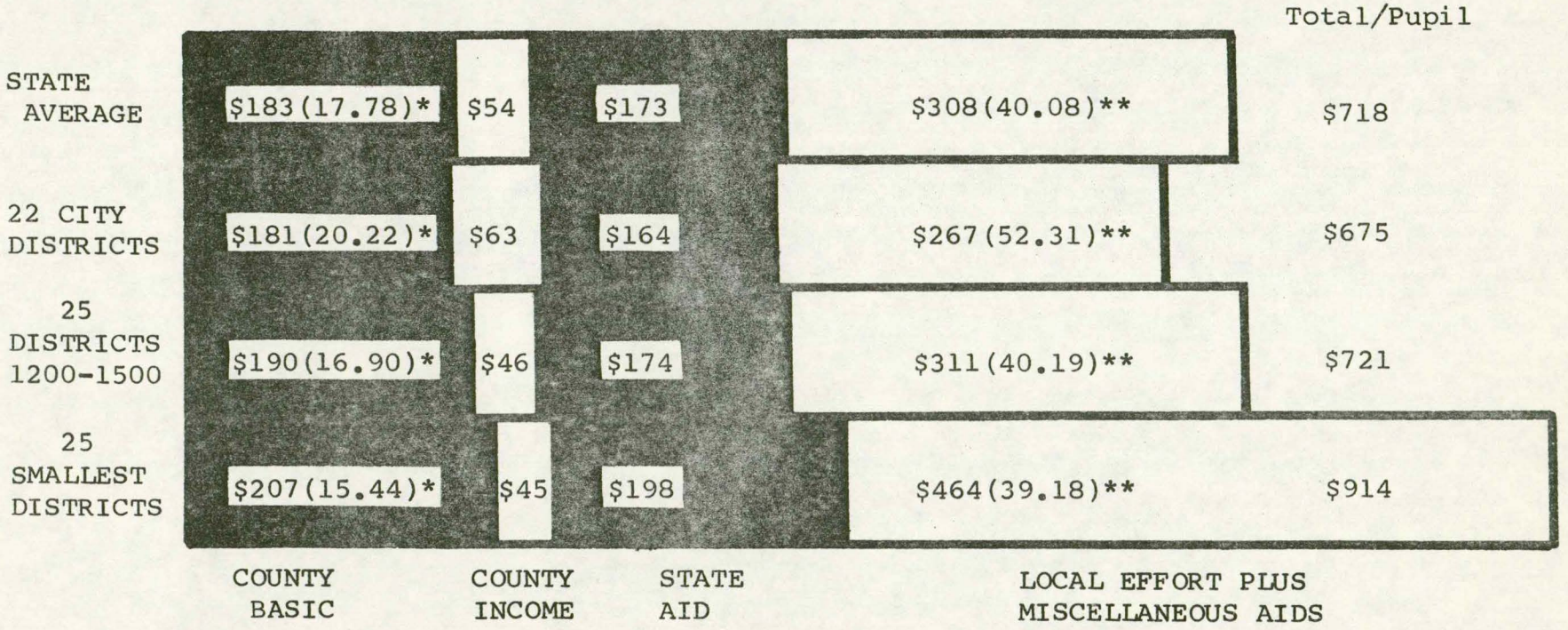
Financing Education

Preliminary figures for 1970 property tax collections, released by the State Department of Revenue, indicate that property taxes due in 1970 will total $685.8 million. This represents an increase of 14.7 percent over the 597.7 million which was payable in 1969. Three-fourths of the total, $410.7 million, is accounted for by school tax collections; an increase of 18 percent over the $348.1 million school tax bill for 1969. In addition, the State Revenue Director predicts that 1970 taxes, payable in 1971, will increase another $140 million. The Des Moines Register, in an editorial on June 9, 1970 stated that, "It is obvious that finding a way to contain runaway property tax increases is a task which calls for the highest priority." Several committees and organizations and currently attacking the task. A look at educational cost comparisons and variations in district capacity to support education is a necessary preliminary step in the discussion of an educational delivery system.

Smaller school districts are confronted with the twin problems of reduced enrollments and increasing curricular demands, both of which result in higher per pupil costs. Graph 9 provides a look at the per pupil costs of Iowa

GRAPH 9

IOWA SCHOOL FINANCE BY ENROLLMENT SIZE, 1968-69***



* County Millage
** Total General Fund Millage

*** Source: Wayne P. Truesdell, "A Searching Look at School Finance in Iowa," January, 1970 (dittoed material). Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

school districts in three size categories along with the sources of the income. Table 6 presents an additional look at cost comparisons along with a look at their relationship to total enrollment and units of instruction offered. At the same time, it is possible for the smaller districts to finance the higher per pupil costs with lower millage levies than found in urban areas. Declining enrollments reduce the demands made upon a given unit of property and increase the taxable valuation of property behind each student. The relative wealth of a school district, part of the state aid formula, is arrived at through a series of calculations that eventually compares the district wealth per pupil with the state wealth per pupil. A comparison of the relative wealth factors for three different school enrollment categories is shown in Graph 10.

Graph 11 shows that in addition to state aid, the primary sources of funding for local districts are the local property tax, the county basic levy and the county income tax. In theory all of these factors work together to provide financial equality for students throughout the state. In practice a great amount of variability exists. Data for pairs of school districts in five selected counties, Graph 12, serve to show the variability that exists in property tax potential within and between counties.

TABLE 6

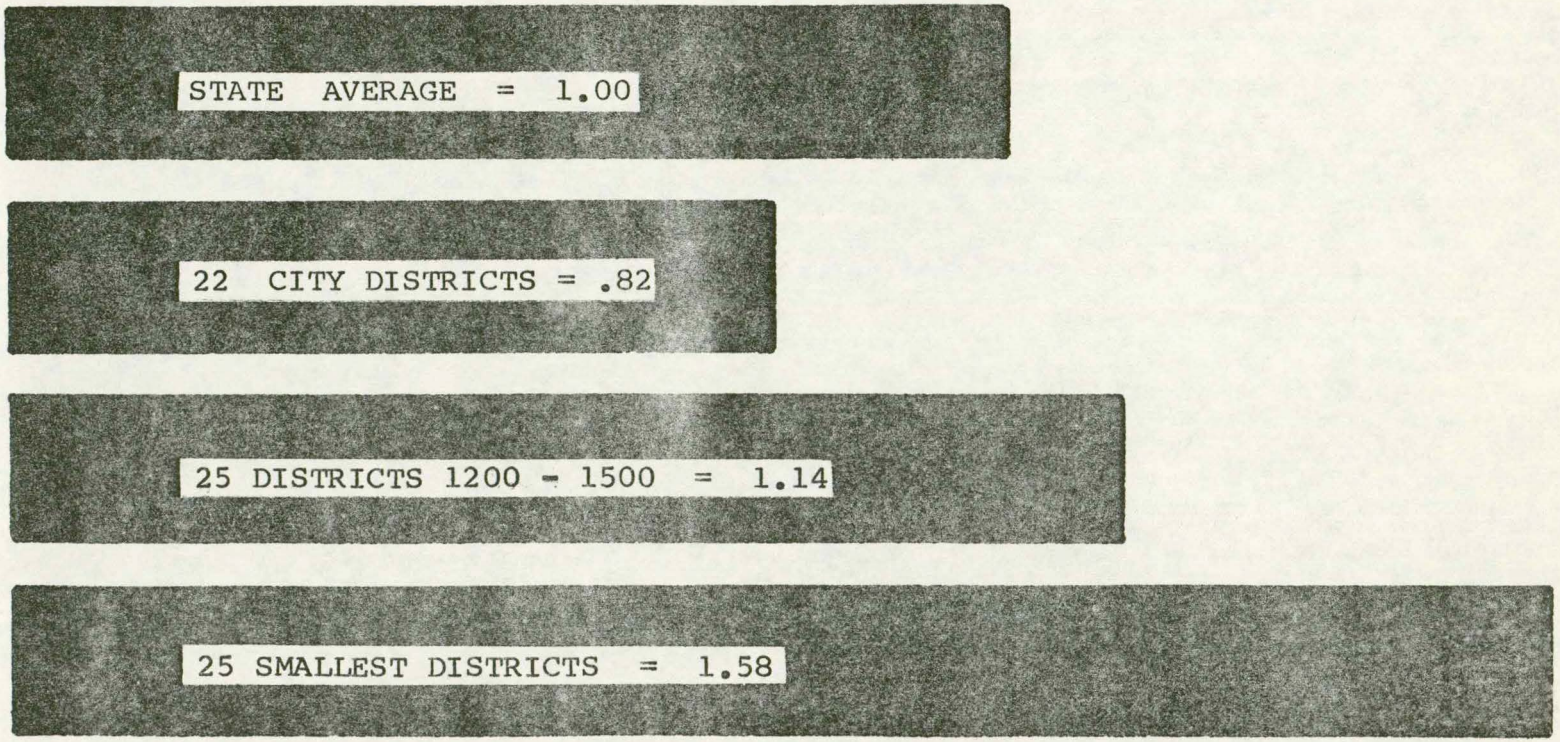
COST COMPARISON, NUMBER OF STUDENTS,
RELATIONSHIP TO TOTAL ENROLLMENT
AND UNITS OF INSTRUCTION OFFERED*

Size Range of Districts	No. of Sch. Dist.	No. of Students Represented	% of Students Represented	Avg. Per-Pupil Reimb. Exp.	Avg. Units of Instruc. Offered
150- 499	117	43,021	6.64	796.14	34.37
500- 749	123	75,985	11.73	724.29	38.57
750- 999	61	52,063	8.04	672.28	40.26
1000- 1499	64	74,524	11.53	669.43	43.86
1500- 1999	22	37,618	5.81	640.81	51.24
2000- 2999	41	96,258	14.86	627.88	53.65
3000-45513	27	268,441	41.42	644.99	78.93
Total Averages	455	647,910	100.00	664.50	42.83

*Source: School Budget Review Committee Report, 1970, p. 10.

GRAPH 10

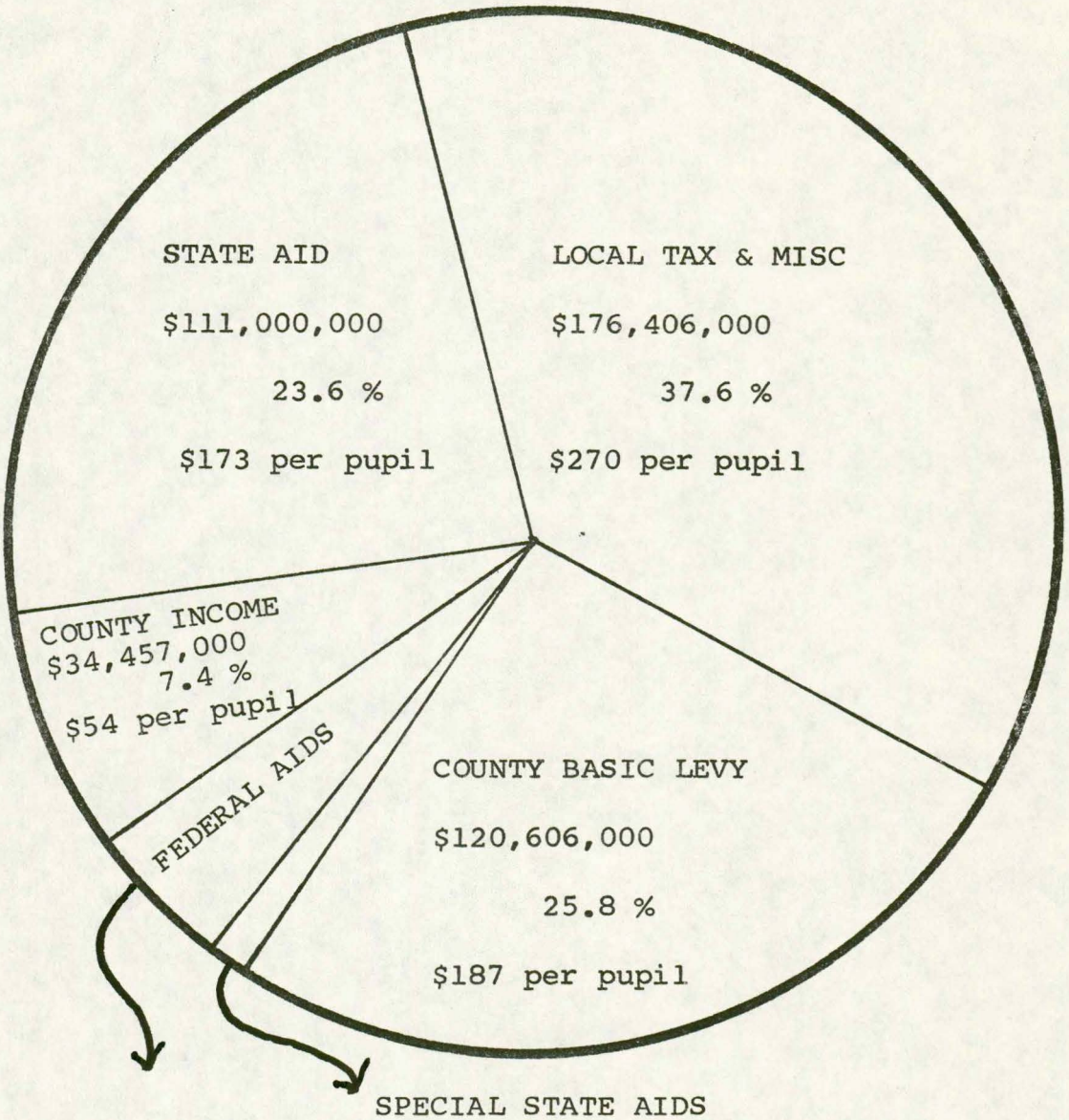
IOWA SCHOOL RELATIVE WEALTH BY ENROLLMENT SIZE, 1968-69*



*Source: Wayne P. Truesdell, "A Searching Look at School Finance in Iowa", January, 1970 (dittoed material). Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

GRAPH 11

SOURCE OF GENERAL FUND EXPENDITURES, 1968-69*

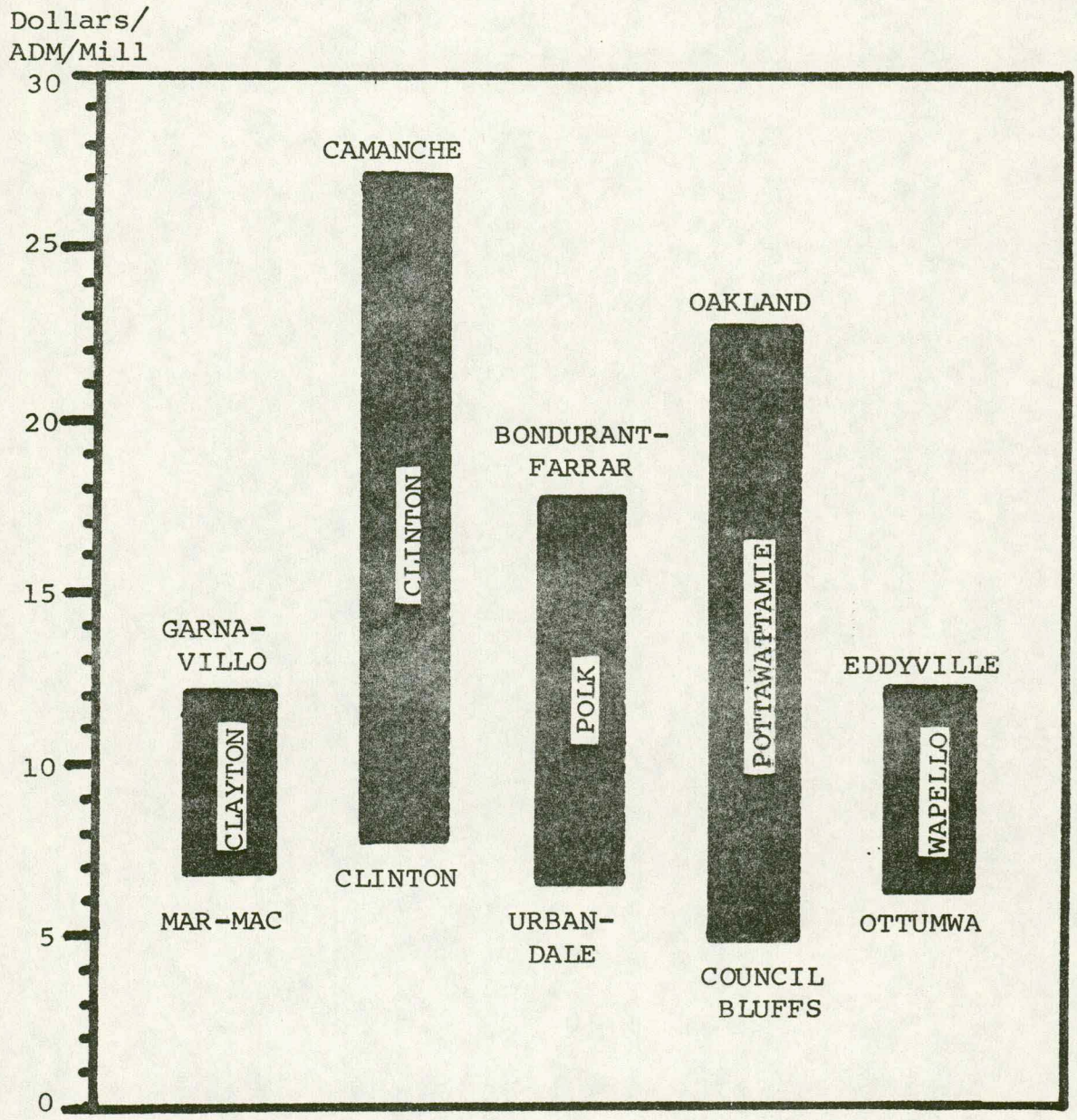


TOTAL 1968-69 - $468,408,000 $718 per pupil

*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970.

GRAPH 12

VARIATIONS IN PROPERTY TAX POTENTIAL, 1969-70*
(TWO DISTRICTS IN SAME COUNTY)



*Source: School Administrator Drive-in Conference Manual, University of Northern Iowa, May, 1970. Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

Graphs 13 and 14 look at the differences in the amounts contributed to and received back from the county basic tax and the county income tax, respectively, for pairs of schools in selected Iowa counties. It can be seen that the contributions have a reverse effect on the two graphs.

State equalization aid is distributed to school districts on a per pupil basis. Figures for both the 1968-69 school year and the 1969-70 school year, Table 7, show that the school districts with the small enrollments received a larger per pupil share of state equalization aid. The highest amount of per student aid was paid to districts with fewer than 500 pupils while the lowest average aid went to schools in the size range from 1500-2000.

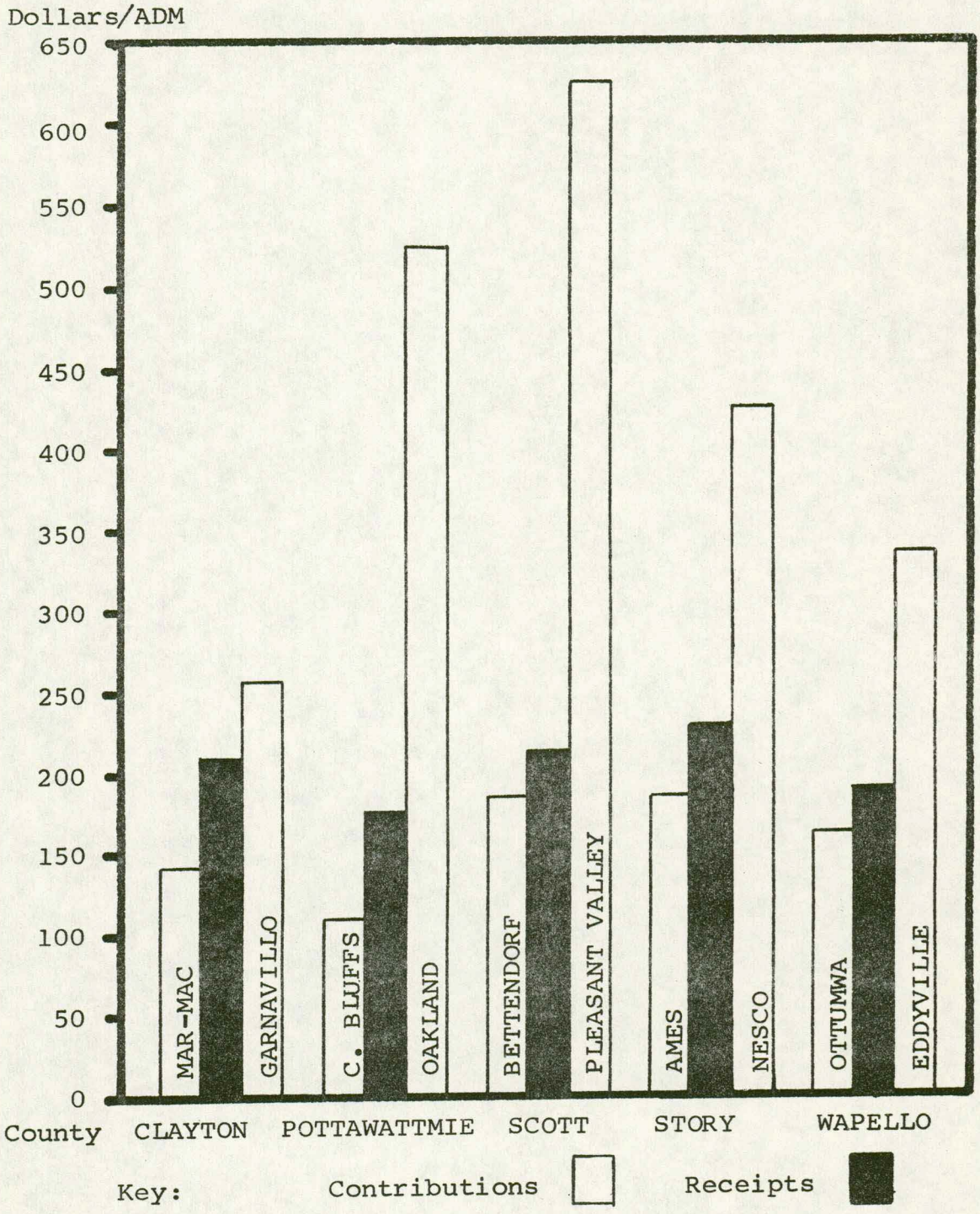
The School Budget Review Committee, after its second year of operation, made several observations concerning school districts. Two of these were: (7)

1. Careful review of school budgets showed that school inefficiencies appeared most frequently in the administrative and instructional categories.

2. Inadequate organizational structure appears to be the most significant contributor to inefficiencies thus far noticed.

GRAPH 13

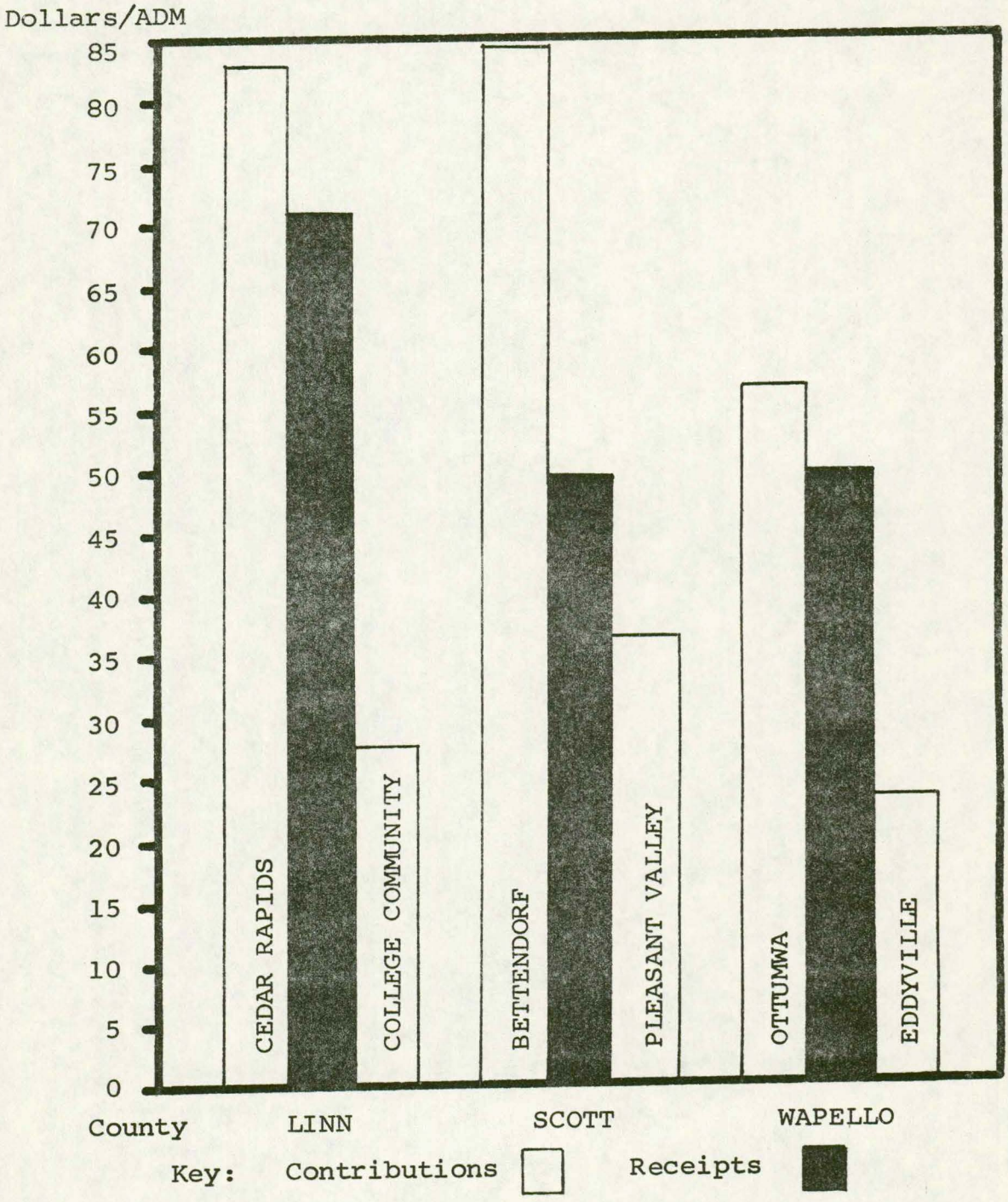
COUNTY BASIC TAX - DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CONTRIBUTIONS AND RECEIPTS PER PUPIL* (TWO DISTRICTS IN SAME COUNTY)



*Source: School Administrators Drive-in Conference Manual, University of Northern Iowa, May, 1970.
Graph by Administrative Consultant Services

GRAPH 14

COUNTY INCOME TAX - DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CONTRIBUTIONS AND RECEIPTS PER PUPIL*
(TWO DISTRICTS IN SAME COUNTY)



*Source: School Administrators Drive-in Conference Manual, University of Northern Iowa, May, 1970. Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

TABLE 7

EQUALIZATION AID IN DOLLARS PER PUPIL
IN AVERAGE DAILY MEMBERSHIP*

School Enrollment Range	1968-69	1969-70
150 - 499	$193.44	$183.03
500 - 749	180.20	176.64
750 - 999	176.13	168.88
1000 - 1499	178.58	169.31
1500 - 1999	160.09	159.63
2000 - 2999	168.72	163.16
3000 -45513	163.81	173.21
State Totals	$172.18	$171.68

*Source: School Budget Review Committee Report, 1970, p. 17.

Notes

Chapter I

1. National Education Association, Research Division, Estimates of School Statistics, 1969-70, Washington: National Education Association, 1969.

2. Darold Albright, "The Disadvantaged in an Urban Setting", August, 1969. (unpublished paper).

3. Darold Albright, "The Impact of Technology", 1968, p.3. (unpublished paper).

4. Kenneth B. Clark, "American Education Today", in Meyer Weinberg, ed., Integrated Education, Beverly Hills, California: The Glencoe Press, 1968, p. 3.

5. Darold Albright, "The Disadvantaged in an Urban Setting", op. cit., p. 6.

6. Ruth Anne Roney, Guide to Federal Aid Programs: 1966-67, Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1967, p.V.

7. School Budget Review Committee, Report to the Sixty-Third General Assembly, Des Moines: The Committee, 1970, pp. 4-5.

CHAPTER II

STUDENT NEEDS - ORGANIZATIONAL FUNCTIONS

Introduction

Any discussion of school reorganization must attempt to weigh various factors in relation to two main criteria:

1. Quality of the product
2. Efficiency of operation

In a time of change, and amid a clamor for property tax relief, leaders must remain continually aware of the fact that the quality of the product is of paramount concern and efficiency becomes a viable concern only when proposed economies can be shown not to have a detrimental effect upon quality. Unfortunately, discussion of quality in education must be, for the most part, attacked from secondary sources since the finished product, the student, seemingly defies qualitative evaluation for an indeterminate number of years after graduation. Therefore, attempts are made to get at quality from a roundabout way. It is commonly held that a student can not get an outstanding science education if the school he attends offers only the

minimal state required courses; subject to certain limitations, it is safe to assume that a teacher with a Master's degree in American History will do a better job teaching a course in American History than one with a Bachelor's degree in Physical Education and a minor in Social Studies; a teacher of American Literature, having one one class preparation, has a better opportunity and is more likely to do a good job than an English teacher with five or six different preparations per day; a school having an extensive library is more likely to be meeting the problem of providing for individual student differences than one that barely meets minimal library standards; and, schools having extensive vocational programs stand a better chance of reaching all of their student personnel than schools which are deficient in the number of course offerings in the area.

When looking at the efficiency of a local school district it is common to compare such things as millage rates, pupil-teacher ratio, and per pupil expense. Any figures such as these should be viewed with caution and care should be exercised not to make snap judgements. A particular district might have a low pupil-teacher ratio and a high per pupil cost because they are doing an outstanding job of providing for individual differences.

If neither quality of the product nor efficiency of operation can be improved by any proposed organizational changes it becomes a tremendous waste of time and money to undertake these changes.

The purpose of this chapter is to establish criteria for the different organizational levels of an educational delivery system. To accomplish this purpose it is first necessary to determine the needs of the students to be served and then detail the functions to be carried out at the different organizational levels. The needs of these levels are not discussed because it is a common belief that any organization should exist only to serve the needs of its clients and not to perpetuate itself. Obviously, to fulfill the functions each organizational level will require (need) financing, staffing, and housing, but only to the degree dictated by the changing needs of the students.

Sections of the chapter are devoted to student needs, local school districts, intermediate organizations, and the state education agency. Criteria thus established will be used in evaluating the alternative organizational proposals advanced in succeeding chapters.

Student Needs

The authors of the Great Plains School District Organization Project - Final Report identify seven needs of American youth:[1]

1. The need to acquire knowledge and understandings

2. Need to devlop skills

3. Need to devlop a sense of values which become basic to individual and group beliefs

4. Need to acquire and/or devlop the knowledge, understandings, beliefs and values essential to learning how to live, to work and to play with others.

5. Need to develop the ability to theorize and to conceptualize; and to constructively relate such conceptualization to reality.

6. The need to correct and to improve physical and mental defects and/or limitations

7. The need to develop the potentials of each and every pupil to the highest level of performance possible for that individual pupil.

A review of of several listings of youth needs that have been formulated over the years, including such widely recognized studies as the 7 Cardinal Principles of 1918, the Educational Policies Commission of 1938 and 1944, and

the 10 Imperative Needs of Youth of 1952, lead to the following categories of youth needs:(2)

1. Intellectual Development
2. Personal Development
3. Social Development
4. Productive Development

To meet the youth needs certain goals and priorities must be established at all organizational levels. There is a growing body of literature on the problems and needs of education in rural America. Solutions to these problems and needs must be provided if the local school district is to meet its primary goal of providing for its youth.

The Oregon Small Schools Program cited the following problems as being characteristic of small schools in rural settings: salary disparity, high per-pupil costs, inexperienced staff, lack of student exposure to urban work situations, multiple assignments for teachers, high teacher turnover, cultural limitations and limited course offerings. (3)

The President's National Advisory Commission on Rural Proverty cited the lower quality of educational programming in rural schools as a major deficiency - as measured by the ability of rural schools to offer comprehensive programs and services, attract and hold qualified teachers, a higher dropout rate of students, poorer physical facilities

and instructional equipment, and available resources. (4)

In response to recognized rural problems the Department of Rural Education (presently referred to as the Rural Education Association) of the National Education Association recently adopted the following goals: (5)

- Strong professional organizations to serve the teachers in smaller communities and rural areas.
- A competent and well qualified teacher for every rural child.
- The availability of sufficient up-to-date instructional materials to permit necessary adaptations of teaching methods to individual circumstances.
- Revitalization and modernization of the community school concept to assure the provision of meaningful experiences for learners.
- Adequately reorganized local school districts.
- Intermediate school districts sufficiently reorganized to permit the extension of specialized educational services to all local school districts.
- An upgrading of educational programs in the necessary small schools.
- A broad program of vocational education opportunities accessible to small communities and rural areas.
- The extension and expansion of adult education programs in rural areas.
- The appropriate adaptation of educational programs to children of agricultural migrants and other disadvantaged and culturally deprived rural groups.
- Safe and efficient school bus operation

- Community understanding of the school as a social institution.

- An expansion of research relating to rural education.

- The extension of technical assistance by rural education specialists to underdeveloped rural areas throughout the world.

As was true of rural education, a growing body of literature is emerging concerning the problems of providing high quality educational opportunities in an urban setting. Chief among these are the following:

- The structure and governance of education in an urban environment must be made more responsive, accountable, and accessible.

- Equal educational opportunities must be provided to all children in general and the culturally and educationally disadvantaged in particular.

- The financial plight of urban school systems, generated in large part by the determination of the urban tax base and the increased cost of education, must be resolved.

- The educational programs of urban school systems must be made more relevant with regard to the diverse clientele served by it and as the educational programming relates to the larger economic and social needs of society in the late twentieth century.

- Effective strategies must be developed concerning the improvement of relationships between education agencies and other policy planning institutions in both the public and private sectors.

Local School District

The local school district serves as a starting point for the discussion of educational delivery systems since the teaching-learning process does not occur at either the intermediate or state level. The educational programs at both the intermediate and state levels can only deal indirectly with the teaching-learning process and should be viewed as support programs.

The programs and services of a local school district can be broadly divided into two categories:

1. Instructional programs and services, and
2. Supportive programs and services.

Instructional Programs and Services

Local school districts, in Iowa, are charged with the responsibility for the education of young people from late infancy through grade twelve. The typical age classification system is as follows:

- Pre-school: 4 year olds (typically in the form of Headstart Programs)
- Kindergarten: Children from 5-6 years of age
- Elementary: Children from 6-12 years of age (generally including grades 1-6 or 1-8)
- Junior High: Children from 12-16 years of age (generally including grades 7-8 or 7-9)
- Senior High: Youth from 15-19 years of age (generally including grades 9-12 or 10-12)

- Special Education: Children from 5-20 with special educational needs.

In addition, the local school district shares the responsibility, with other organizational levels, for:

- Vocational-Technical training of young people (mainly high school graduates at the present time) in the Area Vocational-Technical schools.
- Community Colleges: 17-20 year olds; grades 13 and 14.
- Adult Education: Continuing education programs for adults.
- Handicapped Children: All age levels; includes visually, physically, and mentally handicapped.

The educational curriculum is the local school district's response to the needs of its students. It includes the broad educational areas for which the school accepts responsibility. Typical fields included in an elementary curriculum are:

- Language Arts
- Social Studies
- Arithmetic
- Science and Health
- Creative Arts and Recreation:
  - Music
  - Art and Handicrafts
  - Physical Education

A good secondary curriculum generally includes:

- Language Arts and Literature

- Social Studies

- Mathematics

- Sciences

- Foreign Language(s)

- Vocational including the areas of:
  - Agriculture (where appropriate)
  - Business (and Distributive Education - where appropriate)
  - Homemaking
  - Trade and Industrial Education

- Creative Arts and Recreation
  - Art
  - Creative Writing
  - Music
  - Speech and Dramatics
  - Health and Physical Education
  - Activities Program - for all students

In actual practice these broad curricular areas are broken down into course offerings. A listing of the minimum course offerings required by the State of Iowa is found in Appendix A.

The staffing pattern and the facilities of a school district are a direct outgrowth of the curriculum.

Supportive Programs and Services

To fulfill the instructional goals and objectives of a local school district there is a need for a number of special supporting services. The number and quality of the supporting services found in a school district is

often a reflection of the degree to which the district is attempting to meet the individualized needs of its students. A listing, by no means comprehensive or even optimal, of some these supporting services would include:

1. Administrative services
2. Business management services
3. Educational media services
4. Social services
5. Food services
6. Health services
7. Staff in-service training services
8. Clerical services
9. Custodial services
10. Pupil accounting, attendance, and record services
11. Psychological and psychiatric services
12. Subject matter consultant services
13. Summer school services
14. Guidance and counseling services
15. Transportation services

Three of the services listed (13,14, and 15) are worthy of additional comment:

The citizens of the State of Iowa currently have a total of almost one billion dollars ($977,255,985) invested in public shool buildings. Summer school services

in the majority of Iowa school districts are extremely limited. Arguments in favor of, and opposed to, year-around school should be explored.

Graph 15 presents information relative to the provision of counseling services to students in the various size categories. There is a total of 82 counselors in the 117 smallest districts, an average of .7 per district.

The fear of long bus routes along with the prospect of students being on a bus for long periods of time is often voiced in opposition to school district reorganization. Graph 16 displays data that fails to substantiate that fear. (Graph 17 shows number of pupils transported.)

Enrollment Size of a Local Administrative Unit

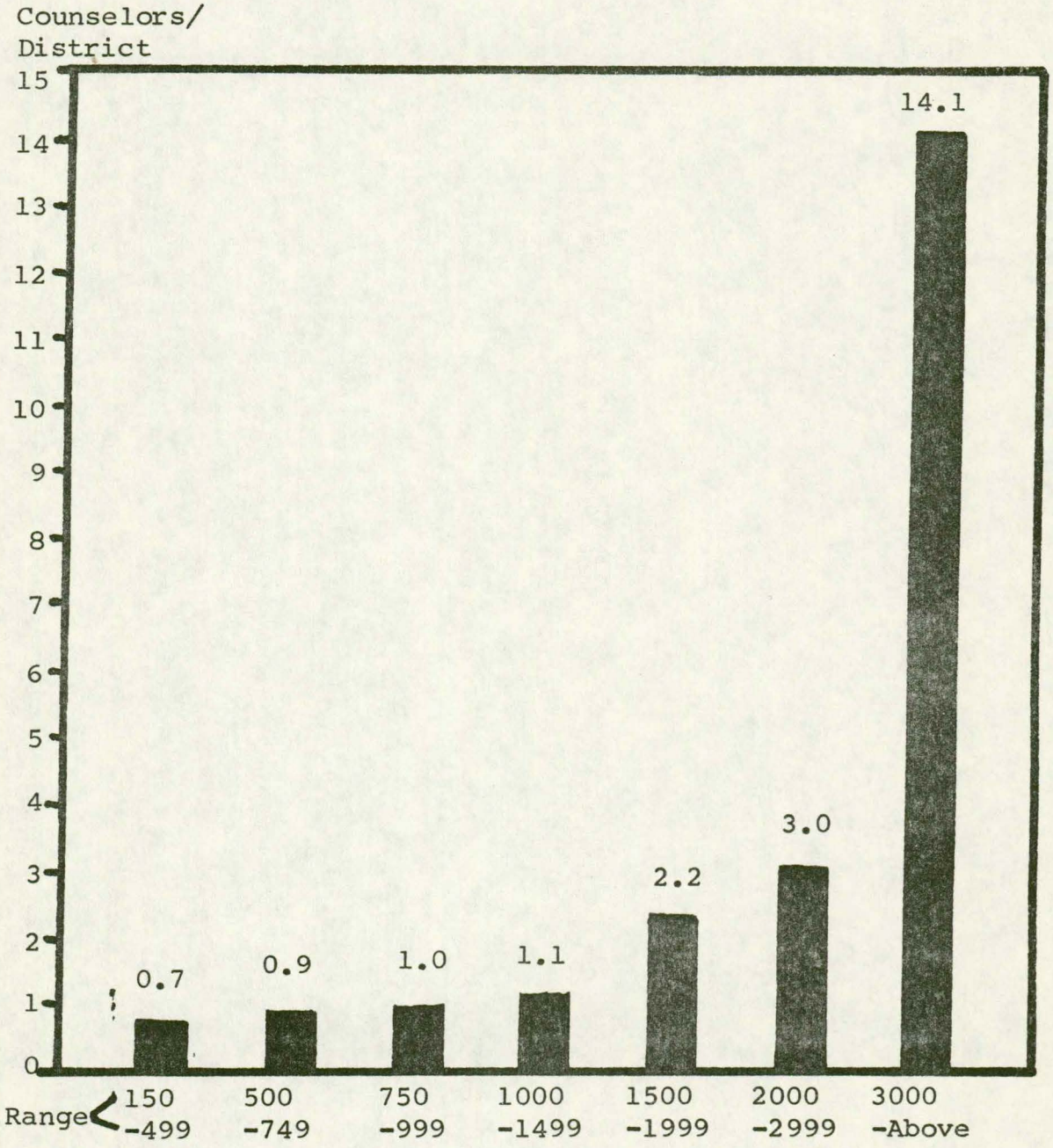
Charles Faber reviewed a large number of studies in an attempt to arrive at a set of general criteria to be used in determining the adequate size of a local school district. He found that it was possible to classify the most frequently cited criteria into five categories:(6)

1. Scope of Program - The district should offer a comprehensive program of elementary and secondary education.

2. Range of Educational Services - The district should provide a complete range of educational services, including: special classes for physically and mentally handicapped;

GRAPH 15

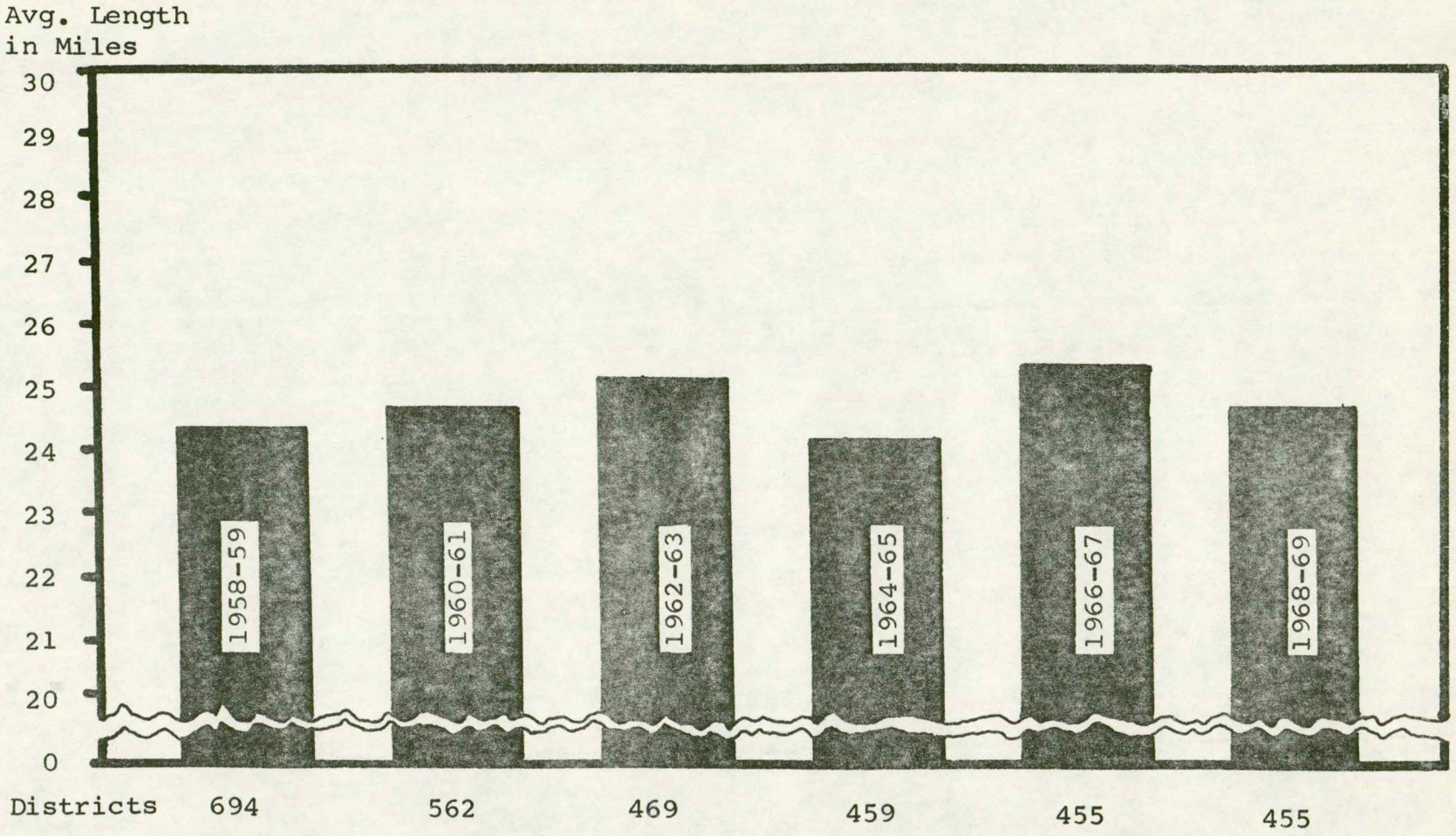
APPROVED COUNSELORS PER DISTRICT, 1968-1969*
(BY ENROLLMENT SIZE CATEGORY)



*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970, p. 221. Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

GRAPH 16

AVERAGE LENGTH OF BUS ROUTES COMPARED TO NUMBER OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS*
(1958-59 to 1968-69)

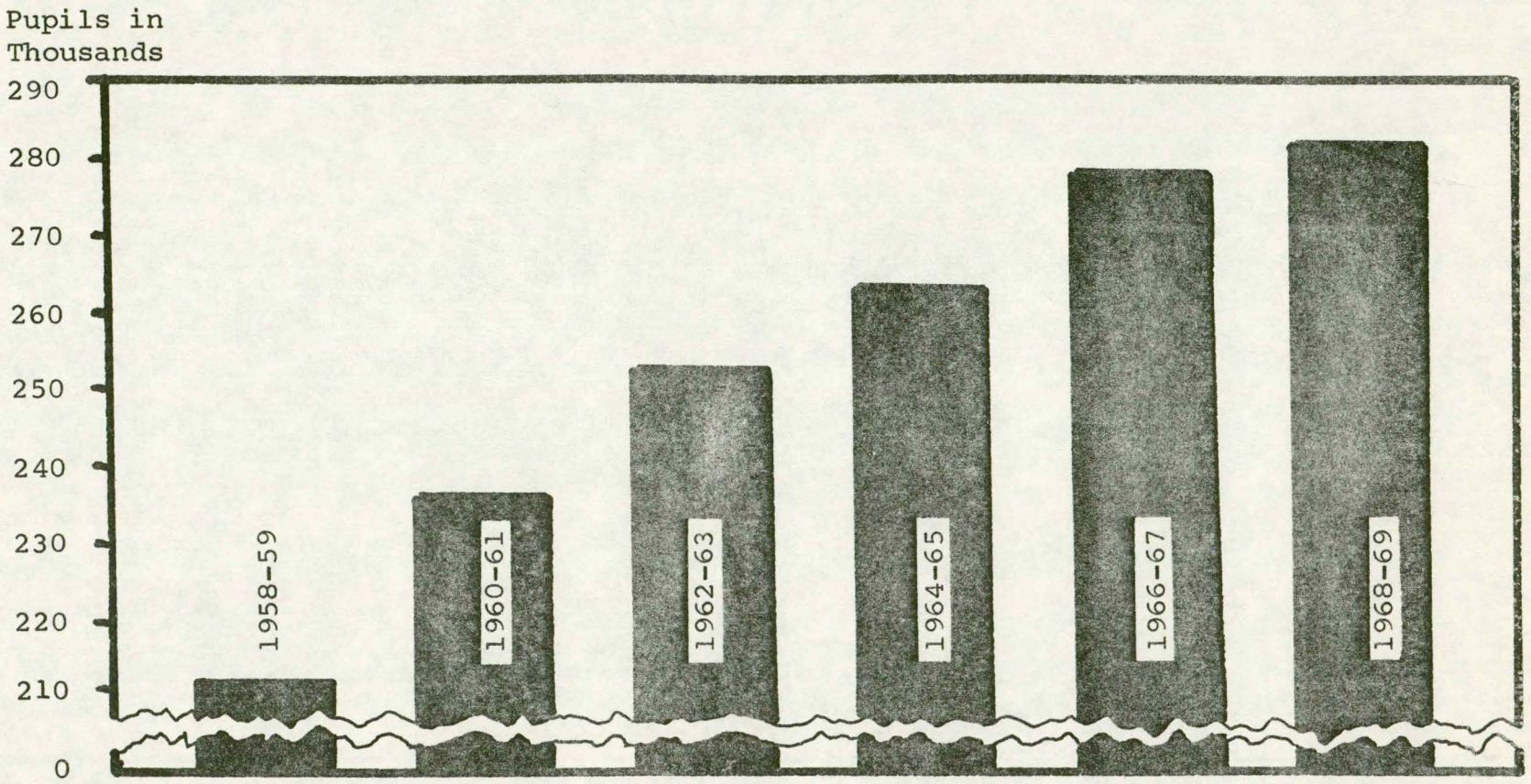


*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970. Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

Note: See Graph 17 for number of pupils transported.

GRAPH 17

NUMBER OF PUPILS TRANSPORTED AT SCHOOL DISTRICT EXPENSE*
(1958-59 to 1968-69)



*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970. Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

remedial programs for underachievers; special programs for academically gifted pupils; and health, guidance and counseling services for all pupils.

3. The Community: The district should include one well-defined community or group of interrelated communities which form a natural sociological area.

4. Administrative and Instructional Staff: The district should be large enough to employ specialized administrative and supervisory personnel and teachers with preparation in all areas taught.

5. Economic Base: The district must be able to support financially the kind of educational program implied by the above criteria. Statements of economic criteria may refer to the total income available to the district or to its financial efficiency as measured by cost per pupil.

The National Committee for Support of the Public Schools also developed guidelines for the determination of the optimum size school district. Their guidelines are consistent with those developed by Faber, but are justified at greater lengths. In discussing the efficiency of personnel utilization they pointed out that larger districts can afford the services of specialized administrative and supervisory personnel who maintain important

liaison with universities; with local state, and national governments; and with recent developments in professional associations. Without such personnel, for instance, the continuous training and retraining of teachers that mark the excellent school district would be absent. Large districts have a much better chance of attracting high quality personnel; good school administrators usually prefer a large system to a small one, other things being equal.(7)

The Great Plains Study added another dimension with the discussion of a time/distance factor. The controlling time element has historically been a one hour travel time. It is pointed out that whereas the distance covered in one hour at the turn of the century was from three to six miles it is now closer to fifty miles in most areas. The conclusion reached was that student travel time should not exceed one hour one way with the same standard being applied to administrative and service travel.

In the process of translating his criteria into a base figure, Faber concluded that the ideal size of an administrative unit was between 10,000 and 20,000 students. He further concluded that no district could offer a full range of educational programs and services efficiently if it had an enrollment of fewer than 10,000 pupils.(8)

The National Committee for Support of the Public Schools felt that there is an abundance of evidence pointing to costly inefficiency in small school districts. They felt that efficiency (economy of scale) increases with increased size until enrollments reach approximately 3,000.(9)

The Great Plains Study Committee concluded that administrative districts with minimum enrollments of 3,500 pupils were justifiable if the district programs and services were supplemented by those of an Area Educational Service Agency. In recognition of some sparsely populated areas, they indicated that a minimum enrollment of 1,500 could be justified.(10)

Stephens and Spiess reviewed 125 research studies dealing with district enrollment as it related to: (11)

1. pupil achievement,
2. educational costs,
3. educational program,
4. extracurricular activities,
5. professional staff qualifications,
6. special services, and
7. school plant.

They concluded that it was not possible to provide one magic number with regard to district enrollment size, due primarily to the large number of variables studied. They

did find that a student population of 10,000 was most frequently supported in the literature as the minimum number in terms of a majority of the seven key variables examined.(12)

A large number of professional associations and organizations, state education agencies and writers in the educational field have determined recommendations concerning what they regard to be the minimum and optimum enrollment size for an administrative unit. A number of these recommendations are listed in Table 8.

Table 9 provides additional data for consideration in the determination of adequate size for administrative units. Recommendations are presented concerning the enrollment requirements needed to justify specialized programs and services. Many of these programs and services require extremely large enrollment bases. Factors contributing to these large figures include:

1. Low prevalence ratios of certain of the special needs in the general population,

2. Commonly accepted staffing standards, and

3. High cost of program operation.

TABLE 8

SELECTED RECOMMENDATIONS CONCERNING
THE SIZE OF ENROLLMENT, GRADES K-12,
OF A LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICT ADMINISTRATIVE UNIT*

Endorsement	Minimum No. of Students	Optimum No. of Students
1. National Comm. on Sch. Dist. Reorg. (1958)		10,000
2. Committee for Econ. Develop.(1967)	1,500	
3. Inst. of Admin. Res. Teach. Coll. Columbia Univ.		20,000-50,000
4. State Educ. Agencies		
1. California	2,000	10,000
2. Connecticut	5,000	
3. Indiana	1,000	
4. Kansas	1,200	
5. Maine	1,200	
6. Michigan	2,000	
7. Pennsylvania	1,600	4,000
8. Vermont	2,000	6,000
9. Washington	1,000	
5. Writers in the Field:		
1. Harlan Beem		11,000
2. Virgil Blanke		10,000-15,000
3. Roald Campbell	2,000	
4. C.C. Carpenter	1,250	
5. Howard Dawson	1,600	9,800-12,000
6. C.O. Fitzwater		5,000
7. Clavin Grieder	2,000-3,000	
8. William P. McLure		5,000- 6,000
9. Edgar L. Morphet	1,200-1,500	10,000
10. Stephen Knezevich		10,000-12,000
11. R. M. Eyman	2,500	10,000

*Source: Pottawattamie County Planning and Development Study, Iowa Center for Research in School Administration, May, 1970, pp. 22-23.

TABLE 9

ENROLLMENT SIZE AND THE PROVISION OF SELECTED SPECIALIZED PROGRAMS AND SERVICES*

Program Area	Student Enrollment Per Specialist
Special Education	
specialist, educ. mentally retarded	600
specialist, train. mentally retarded	2,500
specialist, vis. handicapped (blind)	15,000
specialist, vis. handicapped (partial)	15,000
psychologist	2,500
psychometrist	10-12,000
hearing clinician	7,000
specialist, phys. handicapped	12,000
physical therapist	30,000
speech clinician	3,000
specialist, gifted	1,000
Health Education and Related	
school nurse	2,000
specialist, homebound	20,000
dental hygienist	2,000
Guidance Counselor	
elementary	600-1,000
secondary	300
Attendance Officer	6,000
Educational Media Consultant	10,000
School Social Worker	3,000
Specialized Programs	
vocational education	15,000
data processing	100,000
Librarian	
elementary (1 per attendance center)	1,150
secondary (1 per attendance center)	500
Curricular Subject Matter Consultants:	
elem. and sec. language arts, math, social studies and science	1 per 200 teachers per subject area.

*Source: Pottawattamie County Planning and Development Study, Iowa Center for Research in School Administration, May, 1970, p. 28.

Intermediate Unit

As the name implies, the intermediate unit is an educational agency designed to function between the local school district and the state education agency. Historically, in Iowa, the intermediate unit has taken the form of the county unit. The office of county superintendent was established by an act of the Iowa General Assembly in March of 1858.[13] It was established in a day and age when it was not uncommon to find counties with more than fifty rural, one-room school districts. With over 4000 school districts to be supervised by the state education agency, the need was obvious for such an intermediate office. Table 10 documents the changes that have taken place in school district organization since the 1952-53 school year. As a result, there have been several efforts made to abolish the county superintendency - without success. As pointed out earlier, the needs at the primary level of instruction, the local district, should dictate the structure and functions of the two supportive levels - intermediate and state. The county unit has been accused of being slow to react to this changing situation, but table 11 shows that some organizational changes have been taking place. Recent cooperative agreements between counties have reduced the number of county superintendents to 58. There currently exists two different

TABLE 10

NUMBER OF PUBLIC SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN IOWA*

Year	Non-high school	High school	Total
1952-1953	3,722	836	4,558
1953-1954	3,663	829	4,492
1954-1955	3,598	819	4,417
1955-1956	3,334	808	4,142
1956-1957	2,903	788	3,691
1957-1958	2,578	745	3,323
1958-1959	2,085	694	2,779
1959-1960	1,438	614	2,052
1960-1961	1,013	562	1,575
1961-1962	881	510	1,391
1962-1963	762	469	1,231
1963-1964	701	463	1,164
1964-1965	639	459	1,098
1965-1966	598	458	1,056
1966-1967	46	455	501
1967-1968	22	455	477
1968-1969	5**	455***	460

*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970, p.70.

**Involved in litigation. All non-high school districts were to have been attached to a high school district as of July 1, 1966.

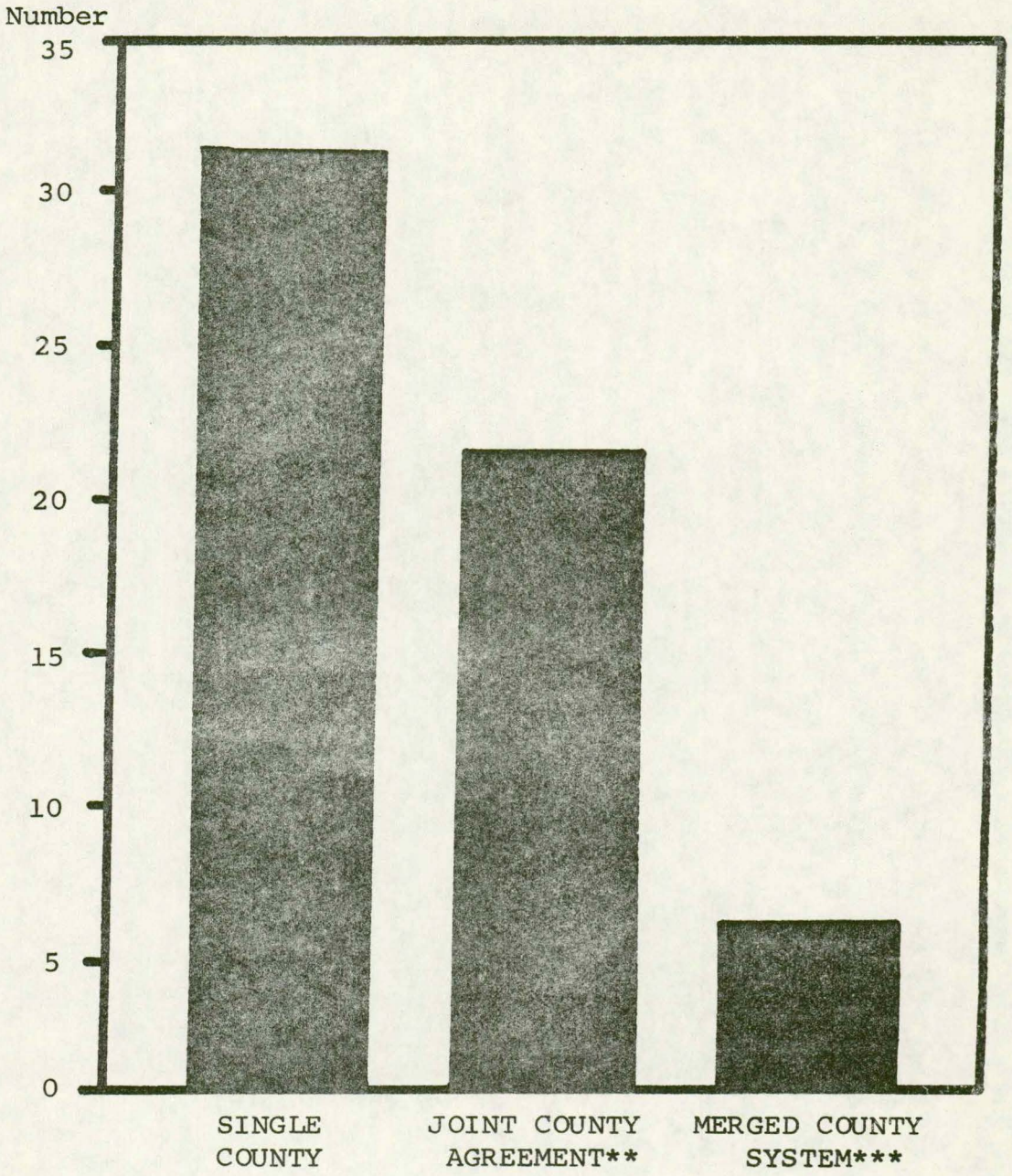
*** Currently 453.

methods for counties to share the facilities of a county superintendent. Under an act passed by the 57th General Assembly in 1957 it became possible for two or more county boards to join together for the purpose of employing a single county superintendent. In this case each county in the agreement would retain its own identity, school boards, and tax base. The 61st General Assembly, in 1965, made it possible for two or more counties to merge their systems into one administrative unit with one joint board and one tax base. Graph 18 shows that of the 58 county superintendents, 21 are serving 50 counties under joint county agreements; 6 are serving 18 counties under merged county agreements; and 31 still serve single counties.

The Code of Iowa lists 31 powers and duties of the county superintendent. Immediate past history has shown that too many of the county superintendents viewed these laws as limiting their activities. Perhaps the orientation of the county board has been such that the superintendent was limited to the extent that he could not restructure the county unit, or maybe the need for a county superintendent in his particular county simply did not exist. At the same time some exceptional work has been done by those superintendents who viewed the changing situation as a challenge. Witness to this fact are some of the exemplary educational projects initiated by county

GRAPH 18

COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS BY TYPE OF POSITION*



*Source: DPI Educational Bulletin, September, 1969.
Graph by Administrative Consultant Services.

**One superintendent - two or more county boards.

***One superintendent - one merged county board.

system under title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.[14] Further substantiation of the extremes can be found in a review of the special education program and personnel of the various county units.[15]

As local district reorganizations continue to take place more and more pressure will be exerted to eliminate the county intermediate unit. The trend in Iowa has already been established by the increasing number of joint county and merged county units. Abolishing the county unit, and not replacing it with another more comprehensive intermediate unit is a possibility. Table 11 (State Systems) shows that 17 states are currently organized on a two echelon level, and one state (Hawaii) has a one echelon system. A continuing need for some type of intermediate unit was established in the previous section of this chapter. Population densities in Iowa are such that reorganization of local districts in units which are large enough to provide comprehensive educational services (10,000 student enrollment being the most commonly cited figure) are out of the question.

In addition, Stephens and Spiess, reviewed 15 studies relating to county school systems in Iowa dealing with both the past and the future of the intermediate unit. They found certain concepts concerning desirable characteristics of intermediate units in Iowa to be generally agreed upon by

TABLE 11

STATE SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION,
ORGANIZATIONAL PATTERNS*

One-Echelon	Two-Echelon	Three-Echelon
Hawaii	Alabama	Arizona
	Alaska	Arkansas
	Delaware	California
	Florida	Colorado
	Georgia	Connecticut
	Idaho	Illinois
	Kentucky	Indiana
	Louisiana	Iowa
	Maryland	Kansas
	Nevada	Maine
	New Mexico	Massachusetts
	North Carolina	Michigan
	Rhode Island	Minnesota
	Tennessee	Mississippi
	Utah	Missouri
	Virginia	Montana
	West Virginia	Nebraska
		New Hampshire
		New Jersey
		New York
		North Dakota
		Ohio
		Oklahoma
		Oregon
		Pennsylvania
		South Carolina
		South Dakota
		Texas
		Vermont
		Washington
		Wisconsin
		Wyoming

*Source: The Multi-County Regional Educational Service Agency in Iowa, Part I: Final Report, Section One, p. 55.

the investigators:[16]

1. The need for a unit of school organization between local districts and the state has been recognized by local school officials, county school officials, state department personnel, and by lay citizens who have served on study committees.

2. Those who have studied the problem, including county school administrators, recognize that the county political unit as it now exists provides an insufficient intermediate unit of school organization in Iowa.

3. All areas of the state should be included in intermediate school units. A state plan should be legislated rather than allowing the haphazard formation of districts.

4. Local school districts should remain relatively autonomous. Intermediate unit personnel should be in a "staff" relation to local district personnel.

5. The intermediate unit should perform those functions which neither local districts or the state can perform as efficiently or effectively.

6. The major function of the intermediate unit in the future should be to provide specialized services to local districts. It should be possible for two or more intermediate units to jointly provide highly specialized services to local districts.

7. The intermediate unit should have flexibility with regard to the nature of its functions. No legislation should be enacted which fixes the purposes of the institution.

8. Lay citizens and school officials need to be made more aware of the potential value of the intermediate unit as a means of meeting the educational needs of the state.

9. The chief administrator of the intermediate unit should be a highly qualified educator. The intermediate unit office should be adequately staffed and financed.

10. The intermediate unit should be financed through local taxes, state support, and revenue from special contracts with local school districts. The board should be fiscally independent of other agencies.

In a position paper written for the Great Plains Project, Stephens envisioned the three major functions of an area educational service agency to be:(17)

1. Articulative functions: local-area-state levels; vertical and horizontal development and implementation of statewide educational planning.

2. Coordinative functions: Assists local school districts in working together to solve their common problems and needs. This function helps to protect and to enhance local control and independence of local districts.

3. Supplementary service functions: Complements the role of local districts by providing direct educational services (including programs) which they are unable to provide efficiently, effectively and/or economically.

In an extensive study entitled, The Multi-County Regional Educational Service Agency in Iowa conducted in 1967, the authors visited operating units in Iowa and various other states and conducted a comprehensive review of the literature on the subject of intermediate units. As a result of this process they established the following criteria for the establishment of an intermediate service unit:(18)

MAJOR CRITERIA

1. A minimum public school enrollment in grades K-12 of 30,000 students.
2. A minimum assessed valuation of $300,000,000.
3. A maximum of one-hour driving time from the service center(s) to local public school districts in the area served.

MINOR CRITERIA

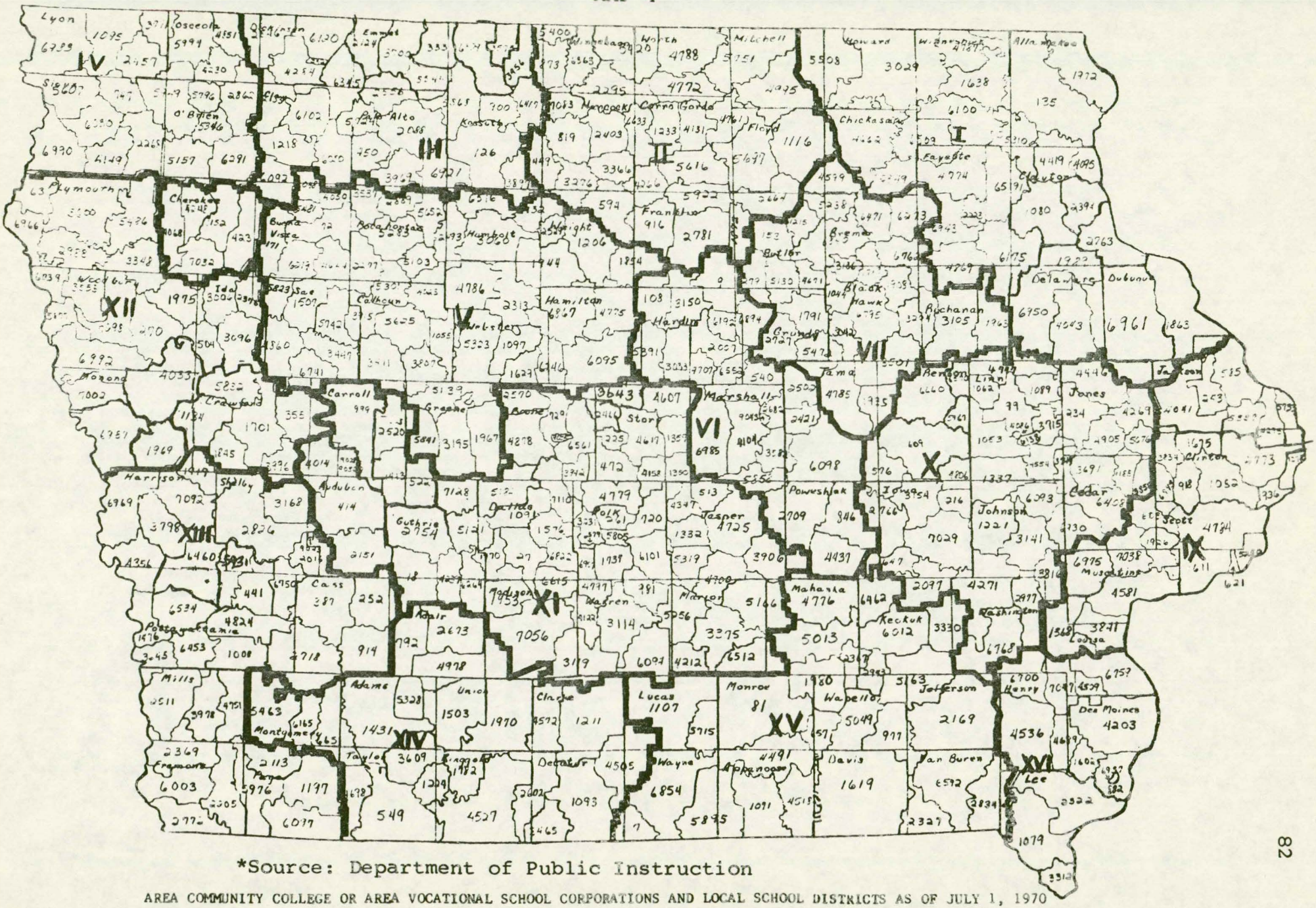
1. A minimum total population of 100,000.
2. A minimum number of 1,200 professional personnel in the local public school districts in the area served.

These criteria were then applied to the state's Area Community College/Vocational-Technical Districts. At that time they found that 9 of 15 districts met all of the criteria. Recent changes have resulted in the attachment of all counties in the state to an existing district, with the exception of Cherokee County. These changes move Area I into the acceptable category. The present status of the Area districts is shown on map 4.

The authors concluded that the major benefits resulting from the creation of a statewide network of area educational agencies would be:[19]

1. Protect and promote local control and local determination in public education.
2. Equalize and extend educational opportunities.
3. Assure economical and efficient operation of many educational programs.
4. Improve the quality of many educational programs.
5. Provide a needed change agent in education.
6. Promote the restructuring of school government consistent with developments in the public and private sectors.
7. Improve the coordination of local, regional, and statewide educational planning.

MAP 4*



*Source: Department of Public Instruction

AREA COMMUNITY COLLEGE OR AREA VOCATIONAL SCHOOL CORPORATIONS AND LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS AS OF JULY 1, 1970

The State Education Agency

The Department of Public Instruction in the State of Iowa views its functions as: (1) Leadership, (2) Regulatory, and (3) Operational. Further it stated:[20]

> Educational leadership is the major purpose served by the State Department of Public Instruction. Although the Department provides other services, they are all subservient to and intermeshed with the guidance of educational endeavors in the state of Iowa. Through its leadership the State Department helps to mobilize, unify and coordinate all the positive forces concerned with education for the dedicated purpose of its improvement -- and to give common direction to the efforts of all. Educational leadership strives to analyze the nature and future direction of education, and to communicate with the public in this regard.

The ways in which the educational leadership role can be exercised are:

1. Planning for each major area of service and in the overall comprehensive plan for the total state program of education

2. Research to assist in formulation of policy and evaluation of programs

3. Advisory services by persons specialized in certain phases of school operations

4. Coordination to promote unity and to encourage proper balance

5. Public relations to keep the public informed on educational needs and progress

6. In-service education to foster the continuing growth of all persons engaged in education in the state.

The regulatory function of the State Department[21]

> ...is aimed primarily at assuring that the basic provisions for education in the constitution are available to all children in the state and that state laws enacted to supplement and enrich those basic provisions are kept. The State delegates broad authority to local school districts for the management and operation of educational programs; but at the same time, the Department has been charged with quaranteeing at least minimum performance known as 'standards', for Iowa schools. These standards are established by statute, by boards, or by the Department through the authority granted by statute.

The operational function of the Department of Public Instruction [22]

> ...is carried out through (1) the services offered to local school districts because their scope, expense, or technical nature make them more easily offered on a broad base, and (2) centralized services to individuals, such as vocational rehabilitation.

The School Law of Iowa defines the function of the Department of Public Instruction as: [23]

> ...shall assist the state superintendent in providing professional leadership and guidance and in carrying out such policies, procedures, and duties authorized by law or by the regulations of the state board, as are found necessary to attain the purposes and objectives of the school laws of Iowa.

A further check of the school laws, reveals a total of 23 responsibilities of the state superintendent, the great majority of which upon censory examination appear to be regulatory or operational in nature.

These conflicting interpretations are quoted, not with

criticism intended, but rather, to point out the dichotomous environment in which the state agency must function.

A review of the recommendations in two different sections of the Great Plains Study fails to clarify the situation. In the section pertaining to guidelines for school district organization it states:[24]

> The state agency, in the fulfillment of its leadership function for education, must be organized to provide new and extended leadership services.

In elaborating on the recommendation, it is pointed out that "there is a need to expand the leadership function and to limit the regulatory functions." The report also recommends that: "the state must attract and retain highly trained and qualified personnel in all fields of education...."[25]

On the other hand, in explaining the necessity for realignment of the roles and responsibilities of state department personnel (recommendation 13), the authors point out that "increasing efforts should be directed to coordination of Departmental functions and services through AESA (Area Educational Service Agencies) - rather than to local districts. The AESA, in turn, will become the agency accorded the primary responsibility for providing leadership to local districts."[26]

Further recognition of the dual roles is shown in a

dissertation by Richard Smith concerning the development of the state department. One of the authors conclusions was that, "the regulatory duties assigned to the Department of Public Instruction by the legislature serve to detract from the leadership role. Resistance to the reason for the regulations or to the regulations themselves sometimes develop and seriously detract from the other efforts of the Department. Confusion has existed in the minds of people throughout the state as to the function of the state education agency."(27)

Under the best of circumstances it is most difficult to enforce legislative standards to the letter and intent of the law and then turn around and ask how you can be of service to a local district. Or, viewing the opposite situation, it is extremely difficult to be a state department consultant in a specialized educational area and then censure a school for violation of legislative rules.

A listing of the various divisions of the Department of Public Instruction follows: (28)

1. Planning, Development and Evaluation
2. Internal Services
3. Systems
4. Area Schools
5. Administrative Services
6. Professional Education and Teacher Certification
7. Curriculum and Instruction
8. Pupil Personnel Services
9. Vocational Education
10. Rehabilitation Education and Services

Any future change in local and/or intermediate unit organization in Iowa will undoubtedly necessitate a re-evaluation of the various functions along with a shifting of current priorities attached to the separate divisions.

Notes

Chapter II

1. Ellis G. Hanson, A Design for Educational Organization in Iowa, Des Moines:Department of Public Instruction, 1968, pp. 107-108.

2. Dimensions of Education, University of Chicago, 1960.

3. Oregon Small Schools Program, Department of Education, Salem:Adolphson's Printing Company, 1968.

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5. Rural Education Today, Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1967.

6. Charles F. Faber, "The Size of a School District," The Phi Delta Kappan, September, 1966, pp. 33-35.

7. The Reorganization of Local School Districts, Know Your Schools Fact Sheet No. 9, National Committee for Support of the Public Schools, Washington, D.C., June, 1967.

8. Charles F. Faber, Op. Cit., p.35

9. National Committee for Support of the Public Schools, Op. Cit.

10. Ellis G. Hanson, Op. Cit., p. 156.

11. E. Robert Stephens and John Spiess, "What Does Research Say About a Local School District?", Journal on State School System Development, Fall, 1967, pp. 182-199.

12. Ibid, pp. 194-195.

13. Effective Intermediate Units in Iowa, Department of Public Instruction and the Committee on the Intermediate Unit, Des Moines, 1960, p. 1.

14. Data on Iowa Schools 1970, pp. 268-271.

15. Special Education Programs and Personnel, Department of Public Instruction, Section II, 1968-69, pp. 1-23.

16. The Multi-County Regional Educational Service Agency in Iowa, Part I, Section 2, 1967, p. 234.

17. Planning for School District Organization, (Briefs of Position Papers, 1968, p. 136.

18. The Multi-County RESA in Iowa, Op. Cit., p. 366.

19. Ibid, p. 422.

20. Sixty-Second Biennial Report, Department of Public Instruction, 1964, p. 12-13.

21. Ibid.

22. Ibid.

23. School Laws of Iowa, 1966, 257.19, p.76.

24. Ellis G. Hanson, Op. Cit., p. 167.

25. Ibid., p. 168.

26. Ibid., p. 179.

27. Richard N. Smith, The Development of the Iowa Department of Public Instruction, 1900-1965, Vol. 2, p. 285. (Dissertation).

28. Iowa Educational Directory 1969-1970 School Year, Department of Public Instruction, pp. IV-V.

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPMENT OF ALTERNATIVE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES FOR AN EDUCATIONAL DELIVERY SYSTEM IN IOWA

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to identify alternative types of educational structures which are capable of meeting the needs identified in previous chapters of this study.

The first section will be devoted defining the terms to be used in discussion of the alternatives proposed. Part two will establish the various alternatives available at each organizational level. These alternatives will then be combined in section three to form possible variations for the total educational delivery system. At each stage those variations which obviously will not satisfy the needs and requirements of the educational system will be trimmed from the list. The remainder will be discussed in Chapter 4.

Definition of Terms

An extensive review of the literature shows many instances of various authors using the same terms to describe completely different things. Further, some terms that are

common to the professional educator are not so common to the layman. The following definitions are presented in an effort to eliminate unnecessary misinterpretation of the alternatives.

Administrative Unit.

This term denotes the local school district. It is:

> ...an area in which a single board or officer has the immediate responsibility for the direct administration of all the schools located therein. Its distinguishing feature is that it is a quasi-corporation with a board or chief school officer (superintendent in Iowa) that has the responsibility for, and either complete or partial autonomy in the administration of all public schools within its boundaries. (1)
>
> Note: this term should not be confused with attendance centers.

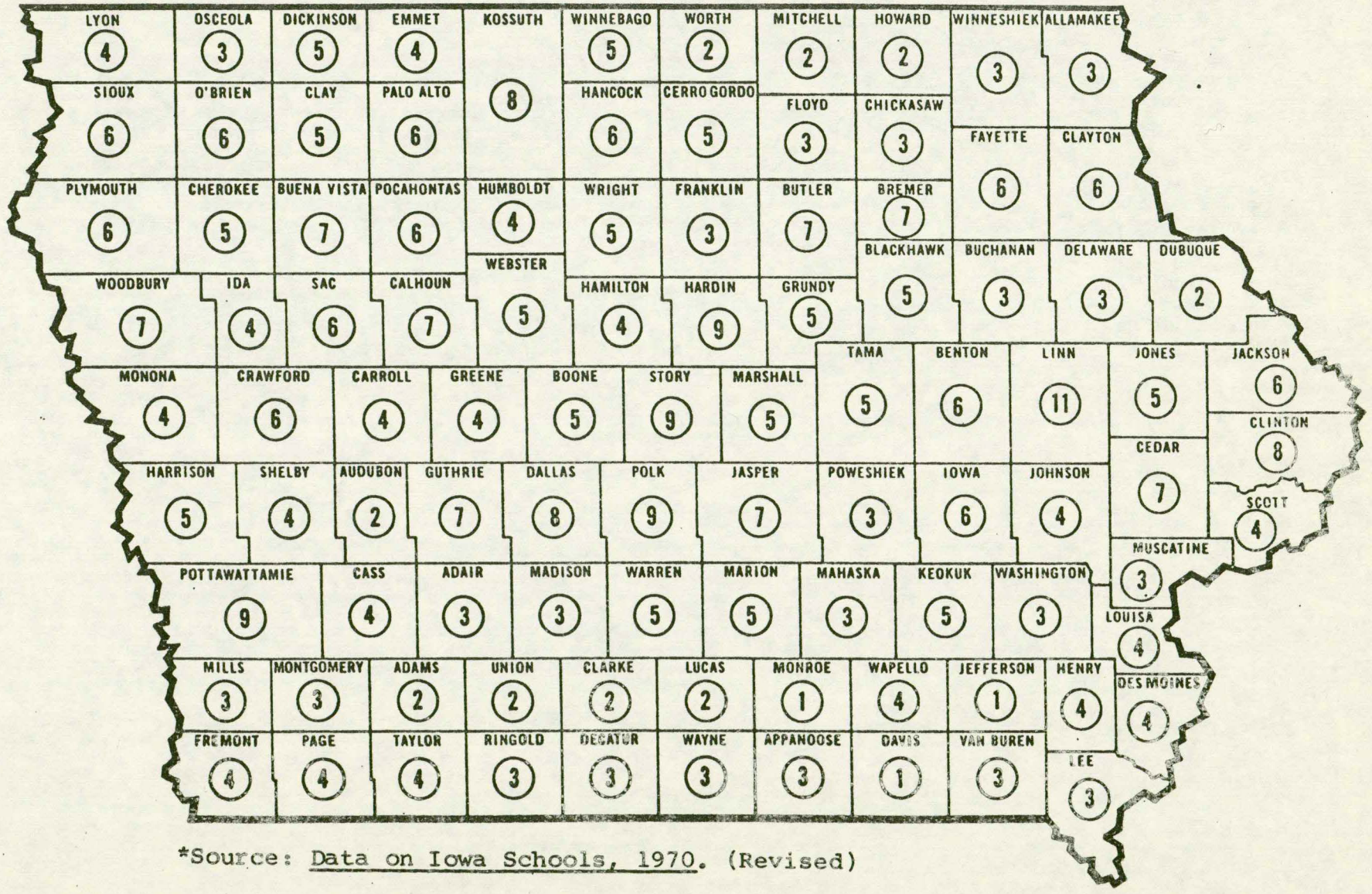
There were 455 administrative units in Iowa during the 1968-69 school year. This number has since been reduced to 453. Map 5 shows the current number of administrative units per county (453).

Attendance Center

The area from which pupils attend a single school is termed an attendance unit (center). It is not a quasi-

MAP 5

SCHOOL DISTRICTS PER COUNTY*
(ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS)



*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970. (Revised)

corporation and does not possess independent administrative powers. Its powers are derived from a basic administrative unit.(2)

Table 12 shows the number of attendance centers in Iowa. This number varies from year to year with the opening of new schools and closing of others. The attendance centers are not the subject of this report. Reorganization of the administrative unit will undoubtedly have a long term effect in reducing the number of attendance centers, but decisions in this regard could be left to the local administrative unit.

Intermediate Unit

An intermediate unit consists of an area comprising the territory of two or more basic administrative units and having a board, or officer, or both responsible for performing stipulated services for the basic administrative units or for supervising their fiscal, administrative, or educational functions.(3)

For the purposes of discussion in this study, intermediate units are classified into four categories with the area served being the main criterion:

1. County - Area closely approximating the boundaries of the county political subdivisions. Minor differences

TABLE 12

NUMBER OF ATTENDANCE CENTERS IN IOWA
1967-1968 AND 1968-1969*

Kind	Number of Centers 1967-68	1968-69
Public:		
Elementary	1312	1299
Junior High	246	234
Senior High	348	336
Combined Junior-Senior High	122	134
Non-high School	19	6
Community or Junior Colleges	5	1
Non-Public:		
Elementary Only	310	321
High School Only	34	38
Combined Elementary-High School	36	15
Special Education	79	92

*Source: Data on Iowa Schools, 1970.

occur as the result of including whole administrative units in a particular county system even though part of the district is in another county.

2. Multi-County - Two or more complete county units, but less than number comprising an Area Intermediate Unit.

3. Area - Intermediate units roughly corresponding to the boundaries of the 15 Area Community College/Vocational Technical districts in Iowa.

4. Regional Service Units - This comprises an area <u>larger than an area unit</u>. Care should be exercised in recalling this definition for the tendency in Iowa has been to use the terms Area and Regional interchangeably. There would be about ten of these units in Iowa. If ever adopted they would be established according to many criteria; including consideration of existing units.

<u>State Education Agency</u> - the term refers to:

... a state department of education under the administration of a superintendent or commissioner

of education, usually consisting also of a state board of education that is the general policy-making body for the state within the limits set by the constitution and statutes.(4)

Synonymous terms include state department and department of public instruction.

Alternatives at the Three Organizational Levels

Administrative Unit Alternatives (NOT ATTENDANCE CENTERS)

The following possible alternatives exist at the administrative unit level:

1. No Structural Change
2. Encourage Reorganization
3. Encourage Cooperative Units
4. County Administrative Units
5. Large County Administrative Units

A brief discussion of each alternative follows:

No Structural Change: Data presented throughout this report should be sufficient to convince even the most skeptical that great inequities exist in the educational opportunities provided for young people in the state. It is therefore concluded that this is NOT A VALID ALTERNATIVE!

Encourage Reorganization: The most common method

used for encouraging (forcing) reorganization is to provide financial incentives in a state aid plan to the districts which are reorganizing (or financial penalities to those who do not). A second method, resulting in financial pressures, is to develop a more comprehensive set of required course offerings and services to be met. Neither method accomplished the desired end result for a comprehensive educational system. The first results in haphazard reorganization plans at best, and no reorganization at all in wealthy pockets of the state who can afford to bear the financial burden. Experience throughout the history of education has shown that adopting a set of standard course offerings does not result in better educational systems. Iowa currently ranks at or near the top in the number of legislated course offerings and equality has not been achieved. Nonetheless, in preference to doing nothing, it does remain a POSSIBLE ALTERNATE.

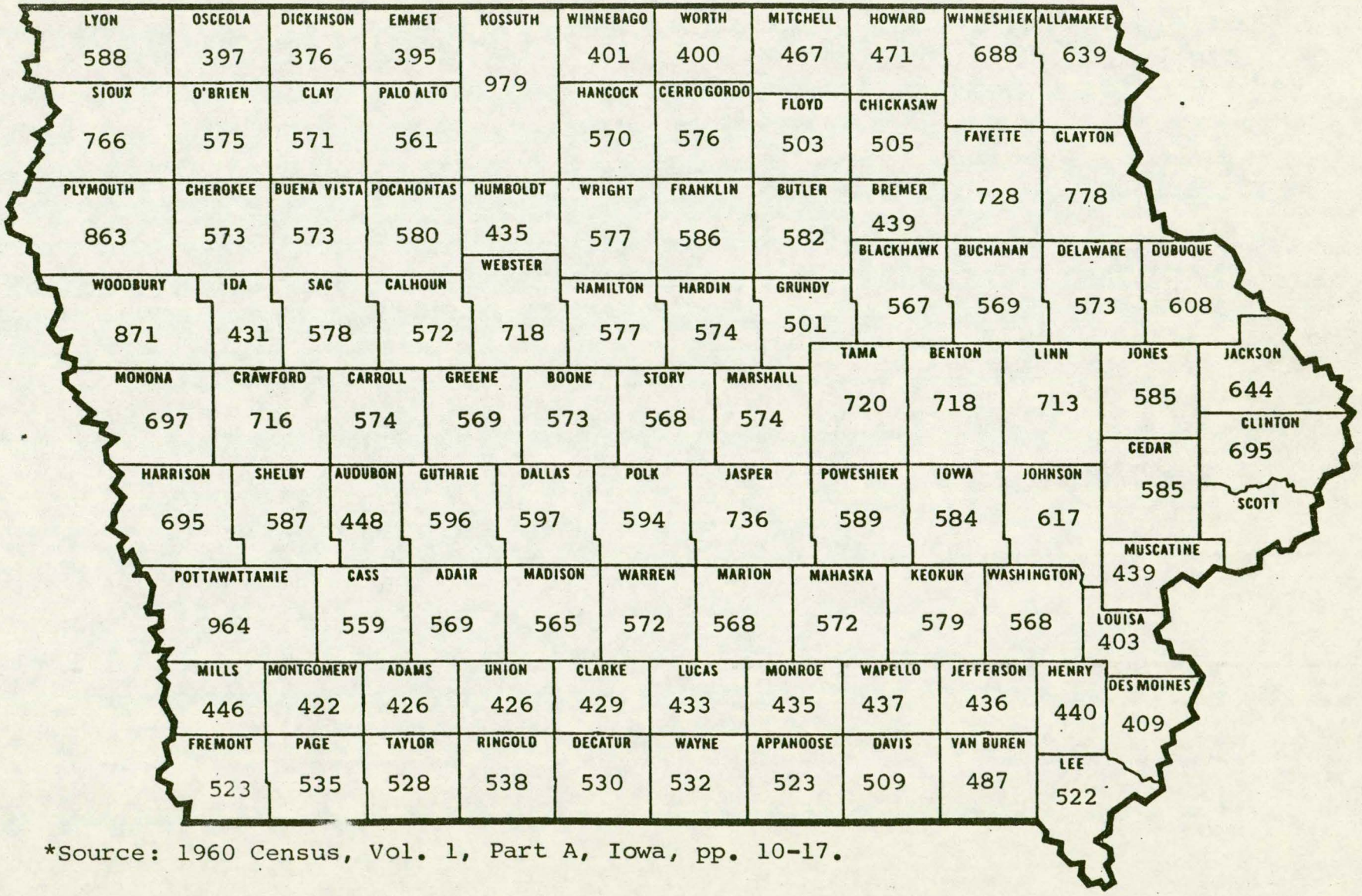
Encourage Cooperative Units: Through the system of education cooperatives, small contiguous school

school systems join together to enlarge their capacity to perform education operations that cannot be performed under their present structures. In this manner they can retain a high degree of local autonomy and still deal with the problem of providing better services to schools. It is a tenuous relationship in that changes in administrators or school board personnel could destroy the working relationship. The most common and successful use of the arrangement to date has been in the area of cooperative purchasing of equipment and supplies. It would be most difficult to legislatively mandate cooperation between local districts and permissive legislation would not guarantee desired educational results. While having some possibilities the relationship was such that it was decided not to select this as an alternative.

County Administrative Units: Mandate the formation of county-like administrative units. Map 6 shows the areas of the counties in the state. Iowa currently has three counties (Davis,

MAP 6

AREAS OF IOWA COUNTIES*
(Square Miles)



*Source: 1960 Census, Vol. 1, Part A, Iowa, pp. 10-17.

Jefferson and Monroe) with a county administrative unit. Some problems might exist in those large counties, Pottawatamie and Kossuth, as well as the counties with large urban school districts (i.e. Polk, Blackhawk, Pottawatamie and Woodbury) - therefore, use of the term county-like allows for some discretion in administrative unit formation.

A POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVE.

Large County Administrative Units: Mandate the formation of administrative units on the basis of area. Recall that the time/distance factor of one hour was used in the formation of the Area Community College/Vocational-technical Districts. An administrative Unit of 2 or 3 counties would still meet that criterion and provide a large pupil area to be served. While not probable it was included as A POSSIBLE ALTERNATIVE.

NOTE: The previous discussion concerned Administrative Units NOT attendance centers.

Intermediate Unit Alternatives -

The following possible alternatives exist at the intermediate unit level:

1. Eliminate the Intermediate Unit
2. Assign Function to Area Community Colleges
3. Encourage Multi-County Units
4. Area Service Units
5. Regional Service Units
6. Enlarged Regional Service Units

Previous discussion of the intermediate unit has established that elimination of the intermediate unit is not a valid alternative in Iowa. Base student population requirements for various special services are such that, given the present population density, it is extremely doubtful that all services could be afforded at the administrative unit level. Therefore, alternative one was eliminated from consideration.

Alternative two concerns assigning the intermediate unit functions to the Area Community Colleges. This could also include the Vocational-Technical Schools and the public supported four year colleges and universities, or a combination of all three. It should be recognized that they, along with the local administrative units, have a primary role in the teaching-learning process. If they were to take on this additional supportive role it would tend to weaken their existing commitments. Further, the range of services provided would be dependent upon the specialized talent and expectise available

at the post-high school institutions rather than what is needed by the local administrative unit. Alternative 2 was eliminated from further consideration.

Alternative three through six will be discussed later in this chapter. Both the intermediate level and the state level provide supportive functions. The structure needed to serve the administrative unit will be determined by the alternative selected at that level.

State Education Agency

The following alternatives assume that the state department will retain its regulatory duties and functions. The following alternatives exist with regard to the service function:

1. No change
2. Increase Service Function
3. Re-define Service Function
4. De-centralize State Unit

Whereas the structure of the intermediate unit was dependent upon the structure at the local level, it can be seen that the structure at the state level becomes dependent upon the alternatives selected at both lower echelons.

Some definition of the meaning of alternatives 3 and 4 is needed. Re-definition of the service function means that the services offered at the state level should reflect the

need for those services. For instance, given a large, well staffed intermediate unit, the need for instructional and curricular services at the state level should decline. At the same time an enlargement of the transportation services may be required or a need may arise for state wide purchasing of large equipment items.

De-centralization of the state department refers to the establishment of state offices in various parts of the state. The only way this would be possible is if the decentralization process displaced the regional unit. Creation of a fourth echelon would be neither practical nor acceptable. Given the necessary regulatory functions to perform, there is some question as to the extent this would impair the service function. In any case, decentralization would involve larger regional units since it is doubtful that it would be possible to decentralize to more than four or five regions in the state. (Enlarged Regional Service Units)

EDUCATIONAL DELIVERY SYSTEM ALTERNATIVES

Three alternatives for administrative unit reorganization were accepted in the preceding section of this study:

1. Encourage Reorganization
2. County (or county-like) Administrative Units
3. Large County Administrative Units

Using each of these alternatives as a guide, it then becomes possible to show what alternatives become practical (and probable) at the intermediate and state levels. The alternative accepted at the two support levels were:

Intermediate Unit	State Unit
Encourage Multi-County Units	No Change
Area Service Units	Increase Service Function
Regional Service Units	Re-define Service Function
Enlarged Regional Service Units	Decentralize State Unit

Figure 1 shows the possible results of encouraging reorganization at the local level and the dark line (1) shows the probable result of such action. The following steps were used in arriving at the most probably path:

1. Regional units would not be practical because of the large number of administrative units to be served.
2. Of the two remaining alternatives, the path of least resistance would be to encourage multi county units. In addition, area service unit patterns would be completely different in different parts of the state due to differences in district reorganization.

3. Decentralization was not included because there are too many areas to be covered.

4. Encouragement of reorganization at the local level would result in an increase of regulatory duties at the state level which would tend to impair relationships and might even decrease the service function.

Figure 2 shows the two possible alternative structures likely to result from county administrative units. The steps include:

1. Multi-county service units would not be large enough to provide needed services to local administrative units.

2. Either Area or Regional service units tend to be possibilities for intermediate units.

3. With better structured service units the state unit would have to re-define its service function.

4. There would still be too many regional units to make decentralization practical.

The results of forming large county administrative units is shown in Figure 3. Steps leading to alternative structures include:

1. Both multi-county and area service units would be impractical with such large administrative districts.

2. Alternative 4 would result in re-definition of the state department function.

3. Alternative 5 could result in either redefinition or decentralization with decentralization becoming practical with enlarged regional service units.

Figure 4 presents a look at the 5 alternative structures for an state educational delivery system. Arguments for and against these alternatives are presented in Chapter 4.

FIGURE 1

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE - ALTERNATIVE I

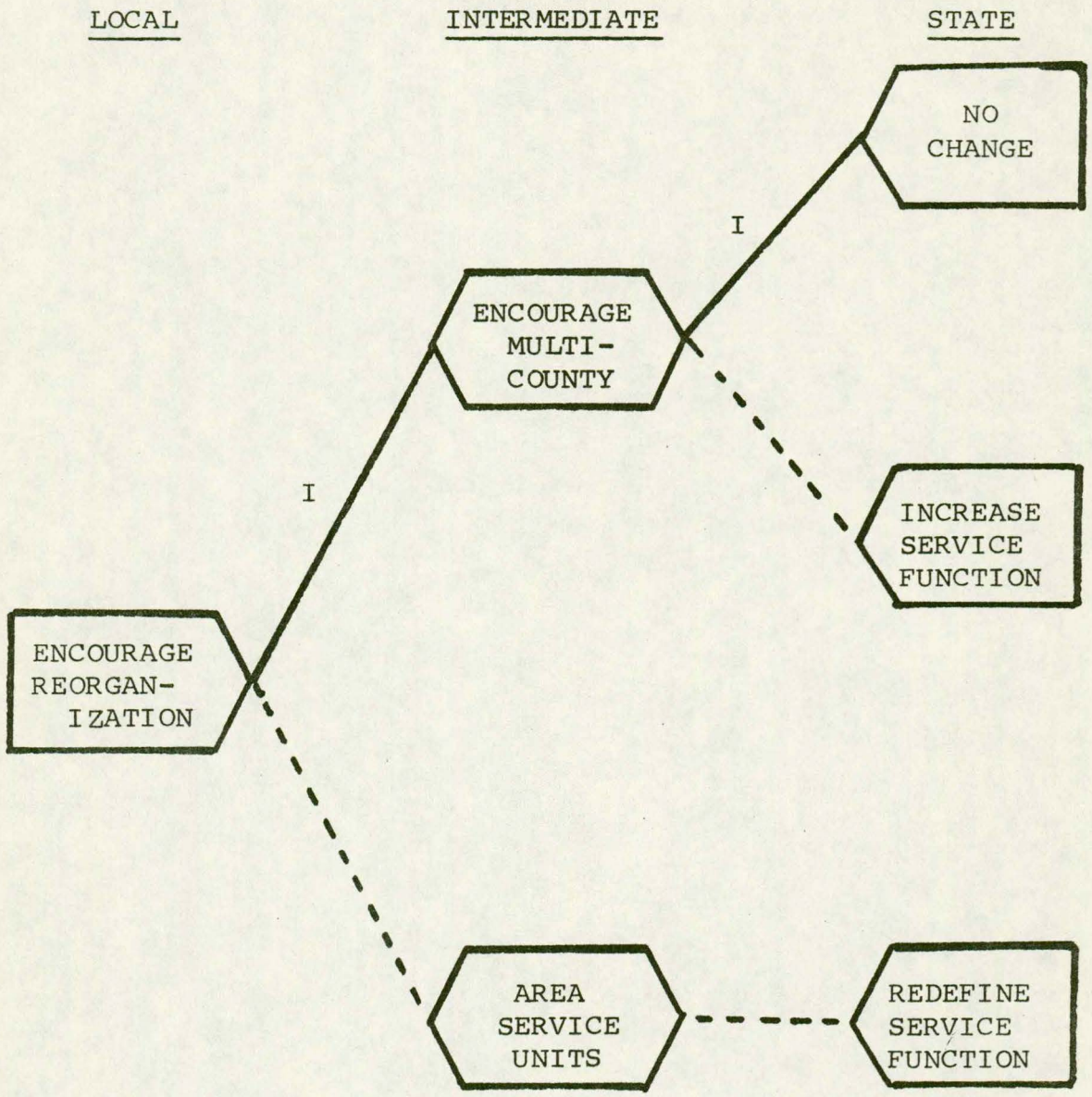


FIGURE 2

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE - ALTERNATIVES II AND III

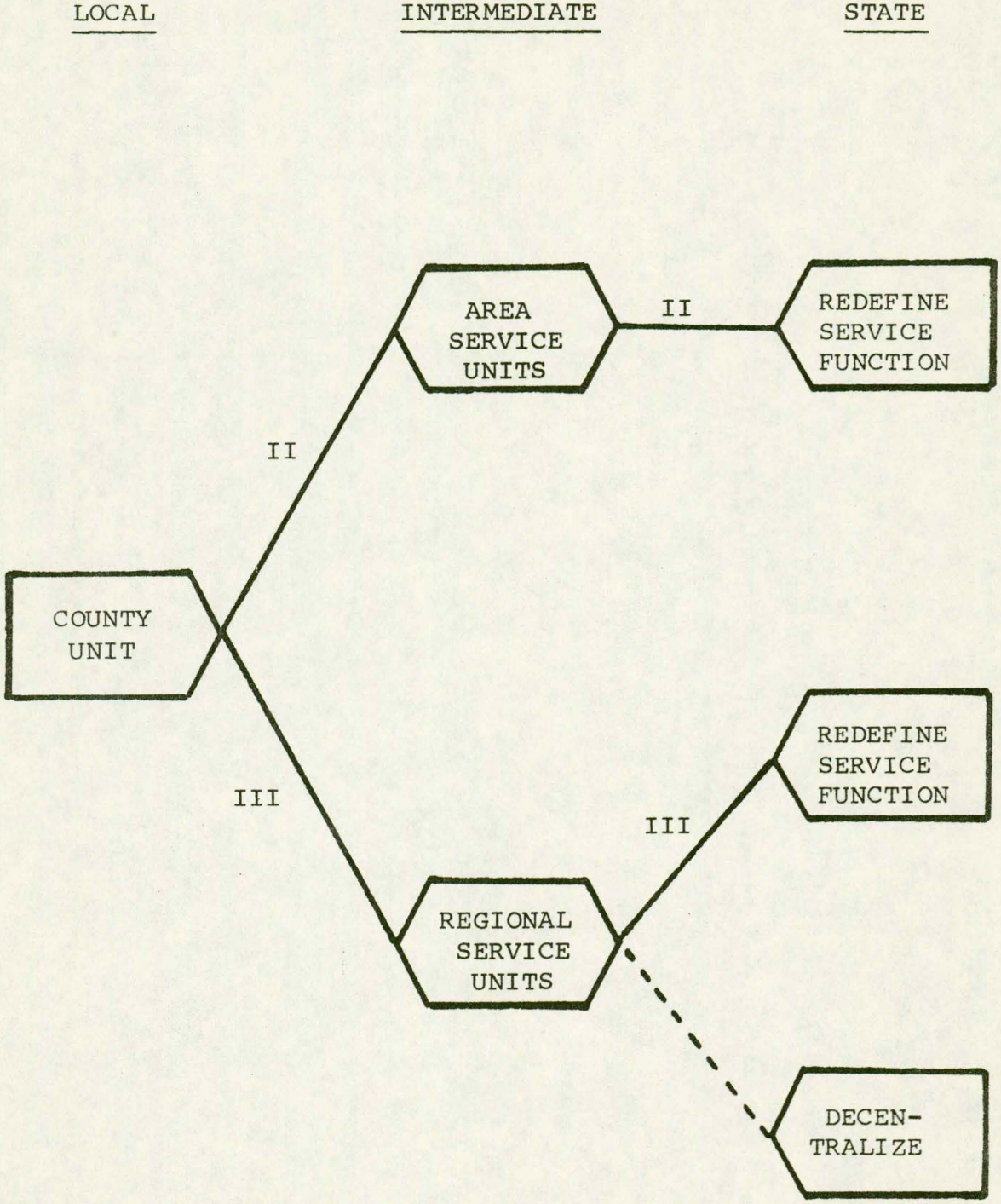


FIGURE 3

ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURE - ALTERNATIVES IV AND V

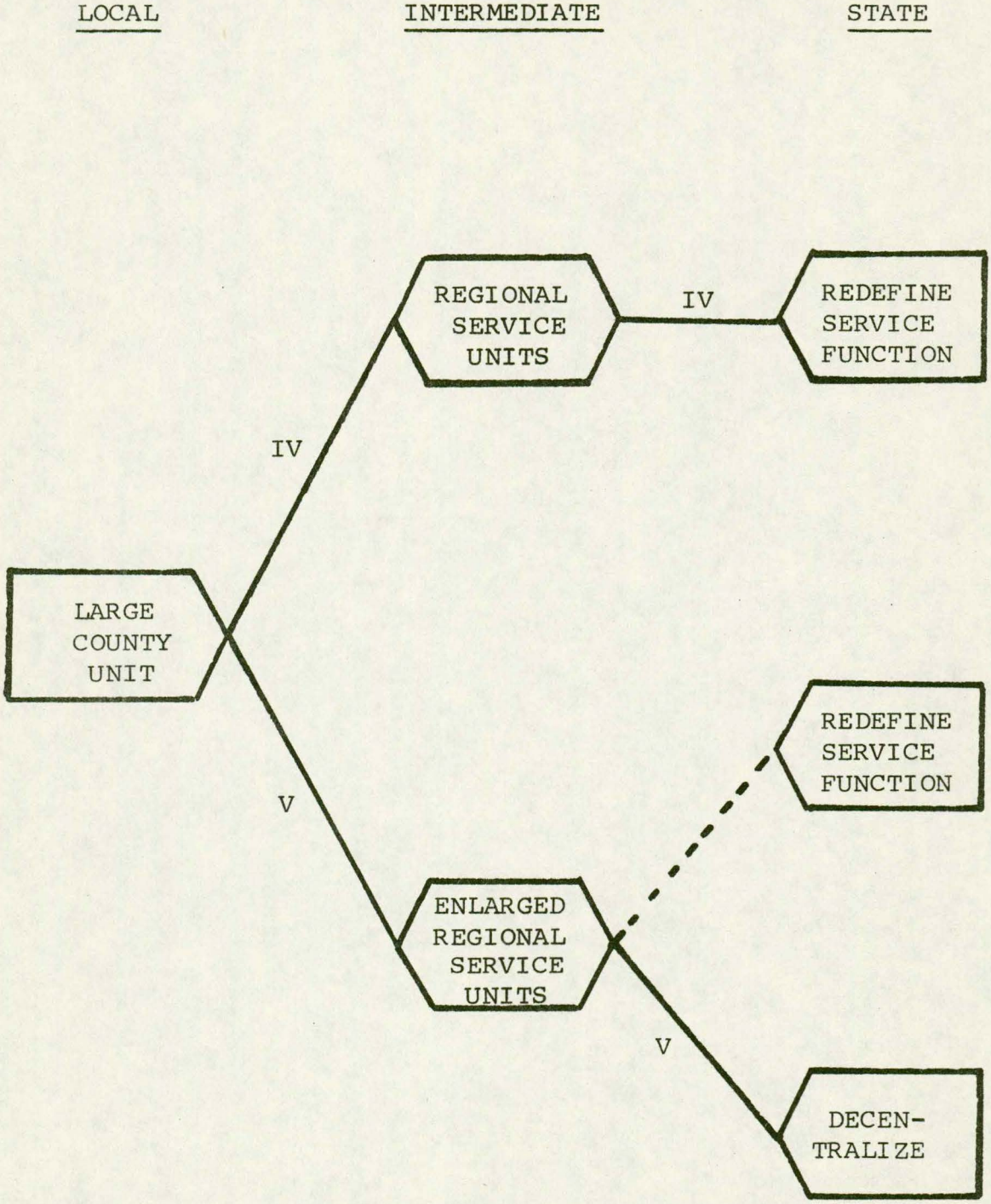
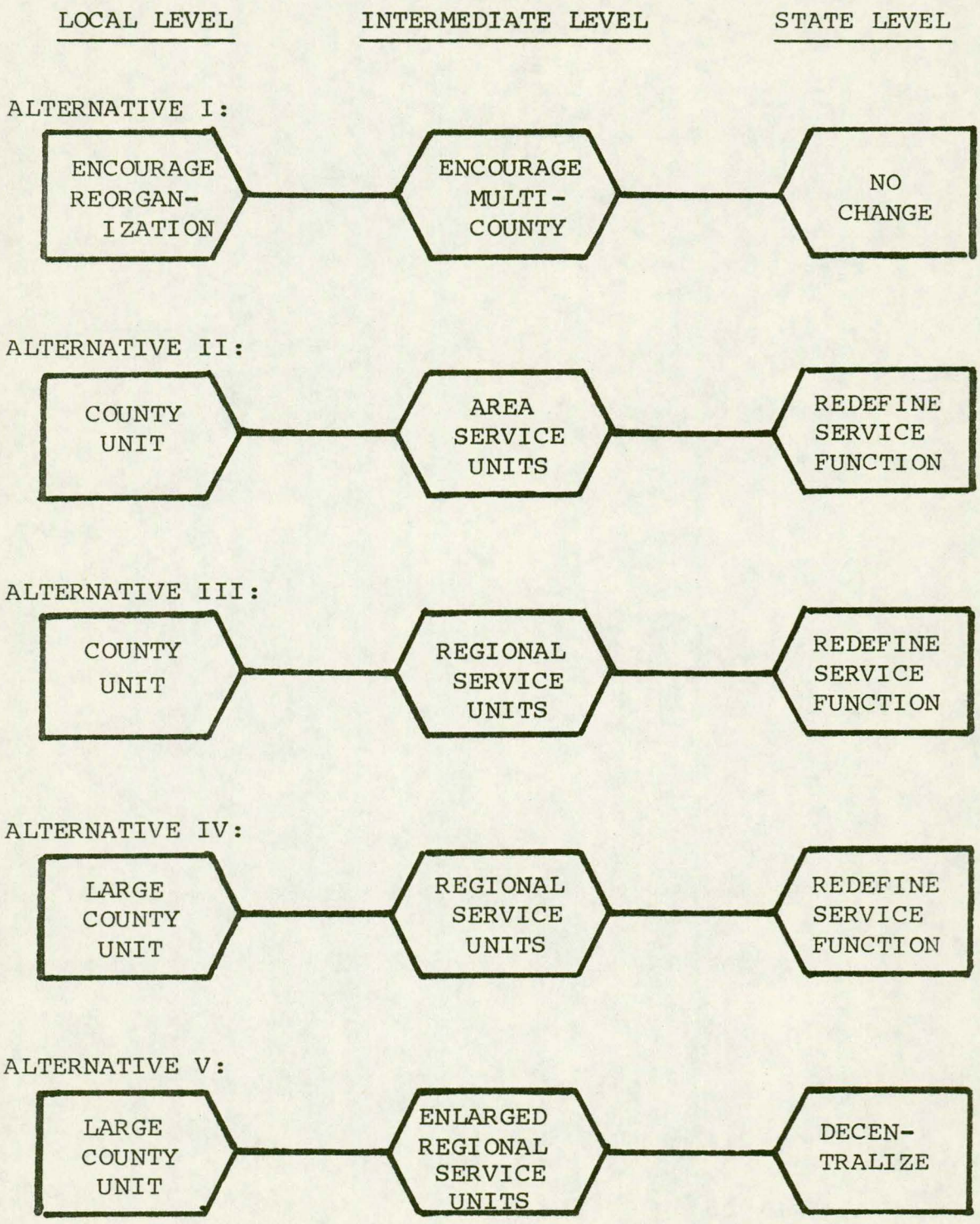


FIGURE 4

ALTERNATIVE ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURES FOR A STATE EDUCATIONAL DELIVERY SYSTEM - IOWA



Notes

Chapter III

1. National Commission on School District Reorganization, Know Your School District, Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1948, p. 47.

2. Ibid, p. 51.

3. Ibid, P. 47.

4. Ibid, p. 66.

CHAPTER IV

ARGUMENTS FOR AND AGAINST THE ALTERNATIVE STRUCTURES

Introduction

The purpose of the chapter is to provide a critique of the alternative structures developed in the preceding chapter by identifying the possible arguments for and against each alternative. The intent of the study was to conduct a preliminary study in an attempt to identify one or two possible alternatives for in-depth study. No attempt has been made to actually draw administrative unit boundaries; nor to determine the exact financial bases, student enrollments, staffing ratios, transportation figures, instructional programs or supporting services that would result from implementation of any of the plans. Sufficient background data has been presented to allow some degree of informed speculation.

The alternatives have been reviewed by both educators and non-educators. They have also been viewed with regard to the recommendations of authors in the field and those of various national commissions and state departments.

It matters not whether one agrees or disagrees with the arguments presented. The attempt has been made to present some of the more salient points that are likely to be advanced for or against the different alternatives. Practically all arguments, for or against, can be countered with other arguments; which in turn are likely to be subject to counter-counter arguments, ad infinitum.

Many of the arguments presented can be applied to more than one plan. Rather than repeat the complete statement several key words are presented with appropriate notation. In addition, some general arguments, commonly advanced against any form of reorganization, are presented at the end.

Several factors played a prominent role in the development of the arguments. They included:

1. Student population
2. Supportive services
3. Financing
4. Communication within the system
5. Political factors

ALTERNATIVE I: ENCOURAGE REORGANIZATION AT THE LOCAL LEVEL; ENCOURAGE FORMATION OF MULTI-COUNTY UNITS AT THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL; NO CHANGE AT THE STATE LEVEL.

Arguments For:

1. History has shown that the encouragement of local district reorganization can work.

2. Current financial inequities can be worked out through restructuring the state equalization aid formula and removing some of the pressure from local property taxes.

3. The area of local districts will remain small with attention being given to existing social, economic, and natural boundaries.

4. Location of the superintendent close to the attendance centers will serve to enhance communication.

5. It is more likely that the legislature will support legislation that encourages reorganization than one that mandates it.

ALTERNATIVE I: (con't.)

Arguments Against:

1. Encouragement of reorganization is a lengthy process and does not always achieve the desired ends.

2. Reorganization of some local units and some intermediate units will tend to widen the gap between the educational opportunities of students in the state, rather than narrow it.

3. The Department of Public Instruction will have to bear the burden under the system. This will tend to decrease the effectiveness of their service function.

4. Staffing of smaller units with qualified specialists will remain a large problem.

5. Legislation establishing minimum criteria for school districts is often interpreted as optimum criteria.

ALTERNATIVE II: ESTABLISH COUNTY ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS AT THE LOCAL LEVEL; AREA SERVICE UNITS AT THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL; REDEFINE THE SERVICE FUNCTION AT THE STATE LEVEL.

Arguments For:

1. County units would provide the necessary student population, in most counties, to provide for efficient utilization of central office staff.

2. County units would provide a logical basic unit with which the general population is already familiar.

3. County units, in most cases, would provide the means for utilization of the instructional staff in areas of their individual background and training.

4. County administrative units would tend to eliminate the large discrepancies in per student assessed valuations.

5. Area units would be able to concentrate on providing services to fewer local districts.

6. Area units could logically be combined with the present Title II Media Centers - resulting in improved services to local districts.

7. Local administrators are already familiar with the Area concept.

8. Area student population is sufficient to support a wide variety of supplemental services.

9. The financial base of the Area units is sufficient to support special services without undue burden.

10. Reorganization of the primary and secondary administrative units would allow the State Department to move into new areas of service.

11. State Department personnel can more effectively and efficiently coordinate the activities of about 100 local districts and 15 area units.

12. State Department regulatory functions would be lessened with the elimination of small districts.

ALTERNATIVE II: (con't.)

Arguments Against:

1. Problems of organization would continue to exist in counties having urban districts.

2. Although discussion concerns the administrative unit it is probable that such reorganization would also result in a change in many attendance centers.

3. County units would necessitate more travel for central staff and local unit special teachers.

4. Communication problems would be compounded at the various levels due to distances involved.

5. Large discrepancies currently exist in area size, population, and financial ability. This plan would not solve those discrepancies.

6. Movement of the State Department into new service areas would tend to standardize education.

7. Mandating legislation would be difficult to obtain.

ALTERNATIVE III: ESTABLISH COUNTY ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS AT THE LOCAL LEVEL; REGIONAL SERVICE UNITS AT THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL: REDEFINE THE SERVICE FUNCTIONS AT THE STATE LEVEL.

Arguments For:

1. Student population - Argument II-1
   Logical base unit - Argument II-2
   Improve staff utilization - Argument II-3
   Eliminate large valuation discrepancies - Argument II-4.

2. Regional units could be structured to overcome some of the inadequacies of the present Area units (i.e., population, finance, and student base).

3. Regional Service units could provide many services not possible under area structures as a result of larger student populations.

4. Regional units could also take over most functions currently handled by Title II Educational Media Centers.

5. Regional centers in all parts of the state would not be any larger than the area currently being serviced by Area XI.

6. State to new services - Argument II-10
   State more effective and efficient - Argument II-11
   Lessen regulatory functions - Argument II-12.

ALTERNATIVE III: (Con't.)

Arguments Against:

1. Problems of urban counties - Argument II-1
   Effect on Attendance Centers - Argument II-2
   Increased staff travel - Argument II-3

2. Creation of Regional Service Units would add another layer in the governmental complex and result in compounding the problem of inter-governmental coordination.

3. Regional Service Units would be too far from the local school districts to efficiently provide needed services.

4. Regional Service Units could not be formed with due regard to existing social environments.

5. Distance compounds communication problems - Argument II-4
   New state services standardize education - Argument II-6
   Legislation difficult to obtain - Argument II-7

ALTERNATIVE IV: ESTABLISH LARGE-COUNTY ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS AT THE LOCAL LEVEL; REGIONAL SERVICE UNITS AT THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL; REDEFINE THE SERVICE FUNCTIONS AT THE STATE LEVEL.

Arguments For:

1. Several arguments advanced in favor of county units would also apply to large-county units:

Neccessary student population - Argument II-1
Improve staff utilization - Argument II-3
Eliminate valuation discrepancies - Argument II-4

2. Large-county units would tend to equalize the area being served by all local administrative units.

3. Provide adequate student base for quality educational programs in all units.

4. Large-county units could be established that still conform to time/distance criteria.

5. Establishment of large-county units in education areas could start a trend toward reorganization of the political units of government.

6. Regional units:
Overcome present Area inadequacies - Argument III-2
Provide many new services - Argument III-3
Take over functions of Media Centers - Argument III-4
No larger than present Area XI - Argument III-5

7. State level:
Provide new services - Argument II-10
More effective and efficient - Argument II-11
Lessen regulatory functions - Argument II-12

ALTERNATIVE IV: (con't.)

Arguments Against:

1. Problems of urban counties - Argument II-1
   Effect on attendance centers - Argument II-2
   Increased staff travel - Argument II-3

2. A large-county administrative unit would result in large coordination and communication problems between the central office and attendance centers.

3. Large-county administrative units would result in fragmenting and/or changing current county boundaries.

4. Establishment of large-county administrative units would add another layer to the current government structure.

5. Regional units:
   New governmental layer - Argument III-2
   Too far from local - Argument III-3
   Disregard of social environment - Argument III-4

¢. State level:
   Distance compounds communication problems - Argument II-4
   New state services standardize education - Argument II-6
   Legislation difficult to obtain - Argument II-7

ALTERNATIVE V: ESTABLISH LARGE-COUNTY ADMINISTRATIVE UNITS AT THE LOCAL LEVEL; ENLARGED REGIONAL SERVICE UNITS AT THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL; DECENTRALIZE THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION TO THE ENLARGED REGIONS.

Arguments For:

1. Large-county units:
   Necessary student population - Argument II-1
   Improve staff utilization - Argument II-3
   Eliminate valuation discrepancies - Argument II-4
   Equalize area served - Argument IV-2
   Provide for quality programs - Argument IV-3
   Still conform to time/distance - Argument IV-4
   Start trend toward political reorganization - Argument IV-5.

2. Several arguments in favor of regional units would also apply to enlarged regional units:
   Overcome present Area inadequacies - Argument III-2
   Provide many new services - Argument III-3
   Take over functions of Media Centers - Argument III-4

3. Enlarged Regional Service Units could offer highly specialized services to large-county administrative units.

4. Enlarged Regional Service Units could be used for centralization of present county governments and other Health and Welfare Services.

5. Enlarged Regional Service Units could be used for decentralization of most government services and functions.

6. Decentralization of the State Department of Education would put the services of the state closer to the local level.

7. Decentralization could result in:
   New services - Arugment II-10
   Lessen regulatory functions - Argument II-12.

ALTERNATIVE V: (Con't.)

Arguments Against:

1. Large-county units:
   - Problems of urban counties - Argument II-1
   - Effect on attendance centers - Argument II-2
   - Increased staff travel - Argument II-3
   - Coordination problems - Argument IV-2
   - Fragmentation of current counties - Argument IV-3
   - New governmental layer - Argument IV-4

2. Enlarged regional units:
   - New government layer - Argument III-2
   - Too far from Local - Argument III-3
   - Disregard of social environment - Argument III-4

3. Legislation difficult to obtain - Argument II-7

4. Decentralization of the State Department of Education could result in the duplication of many services and functions.

5. The State Department would still have to maintain central offices at the state level. There is a tendency for government officials (including school administrators) to seek answers to their questions at the top level. This results in circumventing the intermediate level.

6. The areas of the enlarged regional units would make it very difficult to provide services to local administrative units - particularly to attendance centers.

7. Having the state department closer to the local level would serve to increase the possibility of standardization noted in Argument II-6.

General Arguments Against Reorganization

Whenever reorganization of any description is discussed certain subjects generally work their way into the conversation. Any of the alternative plans presented can be expected to be confronted with the following and answers should be decided upon in advance:

1. Transportation problems
2. Loss of local control - Big government
3. Effect on the local economy
4. Extra curricular activities

Information relative to transportation was presented in Chapter II (Graphs 16 and 17) showing that as reorganization has occurred there has not been a corresponding increase in tne length of time students spend on a bus. It is true that more students are transported.

Loss of local control is a valid issue. Equally valid is the question of how much local control can be exerted by the average person at the present time. Under a plan for the reorganization of administrative units there would still be administrators in the attendance centers to whom citizens could turn to with their problems.

Effect on the local economy is another valid issue. The whole problem surrounding this study is concerned with the adverse effect on the economy of too many small and

inefficient school districts. Looking at the broader picture, it can be seen that what might be bad for one towns economy may be good for anothers. As pointed out earlier, the prime function of education is to educate the students in the best way possible.

Administrative reorganization would not in itself effect the status of extra curricular activities. Any reorganization of attendance centers would have an effect.

Summary

Any of the five alternatives presented will serve to move educational delivery system organization toward the desired goals of:

1. Improvement of the possibilities for Quality and/or
2. Improvement of the possibilities for Efficiency.

The arguments for and against the proposals have a cumulative effect as the degree of centralization increases. In the end, it involves weighing the various arguments and selecting some alternative that one can support.

APPENDIX A

MINIMUM CURRICULUM REQUIREMENTS FOR APPROVAL OF IOWA ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Department of Public Instruction

1970 Curriculum Circular No. 1 - A
(Reproduced)

PART ONE

REVIEW OF MINIMUM CURRICULUM MANDATED BY LAW AND RELATED PROVISIONS

I. Introduction

It is commonly understood that education is a state function. This means that the state constitution and the laws made by the legislature are supreme in matters relating to public education. Reference and practice of long standing adhere to the principle that it is wise to delegate primary responsibility and control of schools to local school districts and their elected boards of education. However, every state has retained certain powers over its schools. Among these powers is that of mandating the minimum curriculum to be offered, and specifying those parts of it which pupils are required to follow.

Iowa has provided greater central control of the curriculum within the past few years. This broadened control of the curriculum was instituted in 1965 by the 61st General Assembly and continued with minor changes by subsequent sessions in 1967 and 1969. Prior to 1967 there had existed certain minimum curriculum requirements of the type common to most states: required offerings in the so-called "common branches" and required courses in areas such as health and physical education, citizenship, U. S. history, and American government.

This circular reviews the mandated requirements that approved schools from nursery school through high school must meet.

II. Curriculum Requirements for a School Level

Nursery School

The law does not require that public nursery schools shall be operated; in fact, aside from some reference to children under five years

of age requiring special education (SLI, p. 126, 281.2)[1], the law is silent on the matter. Nevertheless, in possible anticipation of further legal authorization in the future, the law does state that "they shall be designed to help children use and manage their bodies, extend their interests and understanding of the world about them, work and play with others, and to express themselves." (SSLI, p. 34, 257.25, par. 2)[2]

Kindergarten

Legal provision exists for the establishment of kindergartens. (SLI, p. 119, 280.16) "Kindergarten programs shall include experiences designed to develop emotional and social living, protection and development of physical being, growth in expression, and language arts and communication readiness." (SSLI, p. 34, 257.25, par. 2)

Special education services. In May 1969, the Iowa General Assembly added the following subsection to section 257.25: "Provision for special education services and programs, which may be shared by public schools, shall be made for children requiring special education, who are or would otherwise be enrolled in kindergarten through grade eight of such schools."

NOTE: Senate File 1293

Section 1. Section two hundred fifty-seven point twenty-six (257.26), Code 1966, is hereby amended by adding thereto the following: "School districts and

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[1]This reference should be read School Laws of Iowa (1966), page 126, section 281.2. The shortened citation is used throughout this circular.

[2]This reference should be read Supplement to School Laws of Iowa (1967), page 34, section 257.25, paragraph 2. The shortened method of citation is used throughout this circular.

county school systems may when available make special education services and materials enumerated in this chapter available to pupils attending nonpublic schools in the same manner and to the same extent that they are provided to public school students in the school district or county."[3]

Elementary School--Grades One Through Six

When the term "elementary school" is used in Iowa, it may refer to either of two grade arrangements, each including kindergarten, if operated: grades one through eight, or grades one through six when grades seven and eight are included in a secondary school. (See SSLI, APPENDIX, I-3, standard 3.2(3), for a definition of the elementary school.) In either arrangement, the law (SSLI, p. 35, 257.25, par. 3) clearly lists those areas which shall be taught within grades one through six. They appear below in alphabetical order for quick identification:

Art
Health and physical education, including the effects of alcohol, narcotics, and poisons on the human body
Language arts, including:
  English, oral and written
  Handwriting
  Literature
  Reading
  Spelling
Mathematics
Music
Science, including conservation of natural resources
Social studies, including:
  American citizenship, including the elementary study of national, state, and local government in the United States

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[3]Change made by the Second Session of the Sixty-third General Assembly of the State of Iowa (1970).

Cultures of other peoples and nations
Geography
History of the United States and Iowa
Special education services (See page 2.)

Sections of law enacted prior to the one already cited in the preceding paragraph with reference to the elementary school (SLI, p. 118-119, sections 280.3, 280.6, 280.10, 280.12, 280.13, and 280.14) specify what shall be taught in both elementary and secondary schools. These legal requirements (which are still in effect, but not in essential conflict with those adopted in 1965 and since) are listed below in alphabetical order:

American citizenship
American government, principles of
Arithmetic
Geography
Grammar
History of Iowa
Music
Physical education (more than one period and not less than a total of 50 minutes)
Physiology and hygiene, "which study in every division of the subject shall include the effects upon the human system of alcoholic stimulants, narcotics, and poisonous substances."
NOTE: The law, section 280.10, in addition to the stipulation just quoted specifies that the board of education "shall require all teachers to give and all scholars to receive instruction in" this area. It becomes still more specific as follows: "The instruction in this branch shall of its kind be as direct and specific as that given in other essential branches, and each scholar shall be required to complete the part of such study in his class or grade before being advanced to the next higher, and before being credited with having completed the study of the subject."
Reading
Spelling
United States history
Writing

Certain elements of flexibility are left to the curriculum makers even when faced with this rather formidable list of specific requirements. For example, no mention of specific grades within the six-grade span is made, and no strict time allotments are set out.

Grades Seven and Eight

The list (SSLI, p. 35, 257.25, par. 4; and SLI, p. 118, 280.7; p. 119, 280.10) of what shall be taught in grades seven and eight as a minimum program (except for the fact that instruction in the constitution of the United States and the constitution of the State of Iowa shall begin not later than the opening of the eighth grade. . .) follows:

Art
Constitution of the United States and constitution of the State of Iowa
Language arts, which may include:
  Composition, oral and written
  Grammar
  Other communication subjects
  Spelling
Mathematics
Music
Physical education (more than one period and not less than a total of 50 minutes)
Physiology and hygiene (see details on page 3 under the heading "Elementary School--Grades One Through Six")
Reading
Science
Social studies
Special education (See page 2.)

Here, again, curriculum makers will see that fairly broad opportunities for "decision making" at the local level exist within the framework of these legally-prescribed minimums.

Junior High School

The law lists no subjects under the title, junior high school. But it does state that when grades seven and eight are contained in an organized and administered junior high school, the same minimum program legally specified for these two grades must be included. In fact, the minimum program specified to be taught in grades seven and eight applies to these grades "regardless of the organizational structure of the school districts." (SSLI, p. 35, 257.25, par. 5)

Certain school systems in the state have organized their schools in such a manner as to include grades six, seven, eight, and nine. Nationally, schools can be found with each of the following grade combinations: 4 through 8, 5 through 8, 6 through 8, 6 through 9, and even 6 through 10. The term commonly used to designate this type of school organization is the "middle school." In such a school the legal curriculum offerings mandated for each grade level included (grades one through six, grades seven and eight, and grades nine through twelve--where applicable) must be adhered to.

High School--Grades Nine Through Twelve

Units or courses that must be taught annually. With the exception of physics and chemistry, which may be taught in alternate years, the minimum program mandated for a high school grades nine through twelve, must be taught annually. The law defines a unit as consisting "of one academic year instruction in the subject" (SSLI, pp. 34-35, 257.25, par. 6h). As indicated below, not all subjects must be taught as full units. Furthermore, courses in fine arts which clearly must be offered are not designated in the law as units.

The following list of required offerings has been arranged in alphabetical order:

Driver education
English, including language arts (four units)
Fine arts, courses in, including as options, but with the units or fractions thereof not specified:
- Art
- Dramatics
- Music

Foreign language (two units)
"However, the units of foreign language may be taught in alternate years, provided there is no break in the progression of instruction from one year to the next."[4]
Mathematics (five units)
General mathematics (one unit)
Sequential mathematics (four units)
Physical education (one unit with one-eighth unit each semester required of each pupil)
", except that any pupil participating in an organized and supervised high school athletic program which requires at least as much time of participation per week as such one-eighth unit may be excused from the physical education course during the time of his participation in such athletic program".[5]
Practical arts (five units), which may include these subjects:
Agriculture
Business education (including commercial typewriting)
Distributive education
Health occupations
Homemaking
Industrial arts
Science (four units)
Chemistry
Physics
NOTE: The units of physics and chemistry may be taught in alternate years. However, four units in science must be available to pupils annually.
Social studies (four units)
American government
American history
Economics
NOTE: The law permits a considerable degree of flexibility in social studies offerings. It states, "Instruction in American history, American government, and economics shall be included in said units but need not be required as full units." (SSLI, p. 35, 257.25, par. 6b)

However, this requirement must be read in connection with section 280.8 (School Laws of Iowa) which requires all high schools to offer and all students to take, "a minimum of instruction in American history and civics of the state and nation to the extent of two semesters, and schools . . . shall offer in addition one semester in social problems and economics." Social problems may be a part of or combined with economics. Note that American history and American

[4]Change made by the Second Session of the Sixty-third General Assembly of the State of Iowa (1970).

[5]Change made by the Second Session of the Sixty-third General Assembly of the State of Iowa (1970).

government must be taken by all students as a requirement for graduation. Economics (and social problems) must be offered for at least one semester but may be elective.

NOTE: The above is effective until July 1, 1972. After July 1, 1972, the following is effective:

> "All schools offering instruction in grades nine through twelve shall offer, and all students shall be required to take, a minimum of two semesters of American history which shall include the history and contributions of minority racial and ethnic groups, and one semester of the governments of Iowa and the United States, as part of the requirement for graduation. In addition, such schools shall offer, as an elective course, at least one semester in social problems or economics, or a combination thereof."[6]

Special education services

III. Schools That Are Exempted from Curriculum Requirements of Section 257.25 of the School Laws

Schools on special approved list of private college preparatory schools. There are legal provisions (SSLI, p. 39, 257.25, par. 13) under which a private high school or a private combined junior-senior high school operated for the express purpose of preparing its graduates for entrance to accredited colleges or universities are exempted from teaching the minimum program specified in section 257.25, paragraphs 6 and 7 of the school laws. Private schools meeting these specified legal provisions "shall be placed on a special approved list of college preparatory schools...."

Exception for Amish. A section of the law (SSLI, pp. 67-68, 299.24) provides that, under certain specified conditions, members of the local congregation of a recognized church or religious denomination may be exempted from standards set forth in section 257.25 of the school law.

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[6]Change made by the Second Session of the Sixty-third General Assembly of the State of Iowa (1970).