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ABSTRACT

Speeches given at this conference cover the following areas: trends in implementation and funding status of Title I and Title II programs of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act; problems of designing programs for the urban disadvantaged (recruitment, curriculum development, staff selection, and supportive counseling); the cultures of rural disadvantaged American Indians, Negroes, Spanish Americans, Appalachians, and the Amish; and, manpower and financial needs of media programs. (KG)

Division of Federal Assistance Conference

title I E.S.E.A. title II E.S.E.A.

Martin W. Essex
STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
COLUMBUS, OHIO

1969

MARTIN W. ESSEX

Superintendent of
Public Instruction
Ohio Department of Education

Foreword

The growing complexities of government and the economy bring compelling demands to expand the services of education in our state and nation. Maximum efficiency, therefore, in the deployment of all available resources is of the utmost urgency. In Ohio, the high degree of cooperation which exists among school officials with local, state and federal responsibilities is encouraging indeed.

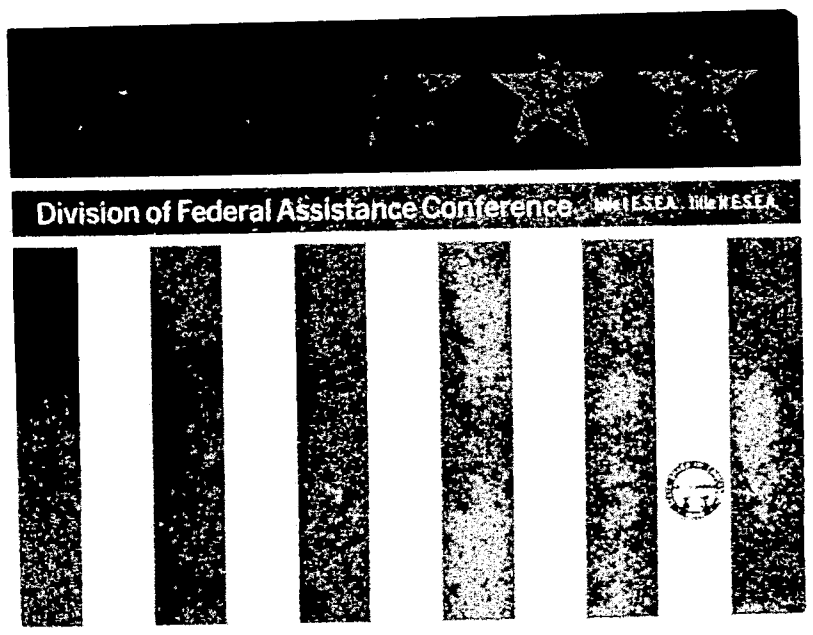
To create and maintain efficient coordination with all levels of government, the Department of Education has annually conducted "in-service" seminars for those persons associated with special services supported through federal legislation. This year in an effort to provide relevant dialogue between those persons whose responsibilities are associated with the disadvantaged and those whose primary interest is in instructional materials, the Department arranged a combined conference for personnel associated with each of these major responsibilities.

Through general sessions and concurrent work sessions on services for the disadvantaged and utilization of instructional materials, participants were able to share ideas with several of the most knowledgeable educators in the nation. The response of participants and the reports of observers as to the success of the conference are indeed gratifying.

We are most encouraged to note the generous sharing of the experiences of outstanding local programs. It augurs well for the future.

Martin W. Essex

APRIL, 1969



HON. CARL D. PERKINS

Seventh District of Kentucky
Chairman
House Education and Labor Committee

Washington Report

Hon. Carl D. Perkins

Dr. Essex, Mr. Horn, distinguished platform guests, distinguished educators throughout the great neighboring state of Ohio, you know I am not used to those introductions. In the first place, I don't deserve it, but I am just as happy as I can be to come here and put in an appearance to discuss education with you for the next twenty or twenty-five minutes.

I had commenced to think this past week that we may not have an educational bill. The first show of hands in the committee, some of our friends who are interested in education but who are not experienced at the lower district level as are you people, had a suggestion to freeze Title I at the 1968 level, and all above that amount would go to the states under what they termed a block grant approach to be distributed to the areas of need.

The amendment just did not make sense because today the Title I is only 40 percent funded. If there is anything the record disclosed in Washington after we heard some 130 witnesses, it was that we should put more money in Title I, but when we came to the floor, they abandoned that amendment and, by and large, we have ESEA pretty much intact, which means to me – I will discuss the consolidation amendment a little later, which I think we will have little trouble in kicking out in conference and bringing back to the House, and the House will ratify the action.

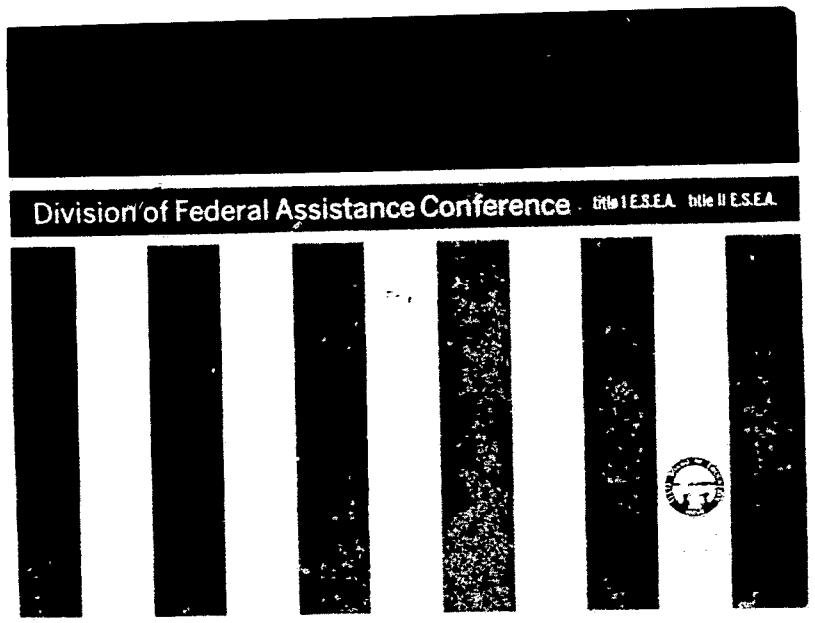
In Title I, throughout the hearing, all through the years and since we enacted the legislation, we have never given the Act a chance to operate as it should operate because of the untimely authorizations and the untimely appropriations, and we only authorized one year at a time up until 1967. We made more progress – educators tell the committee and the Congress – since we gave that program some stability by authorizing for a period of two years, from 1967 up to the present – the Act does not expire until June 1969.

I expect that whether we have a two-year authorization or a three-year authorization in the future, Title I remains unchanged for all intents and purposes. I predict that it will be able to stand on its own. I think I should tell you that you people who are involved in Title I, you are going to have these people in the conference that will want to tamper with it in the future and say, "Well, let's channel it in the direction of general aid," but if there is anything we have established in the public hearings in the past ten years in Washington, it is that we must establish priorities.

All the educators, right down to the local level, feel that the greatest priority is Title I, and fully funding Title I where it is only approximately forty percent funded today.

One of the great obstacles that we are going to encounter next year and the following year will be, "Well, let's wait until 1972. The President of the United States will come up with some recommendations by this time, and since this data is out of date, outmoded, and we don't want to put any of our money there until we know it is going to be more wisely expended."

Nothing could be further from the truth. Those are excuses that the enemies of this program can well use and, nine chances out of ten, get by with unless the Title I people and the ESEA people over the nation begin to scatter the gospel and let the world know what this legislation is about. We in the Congress – some of us – don't know. I know that the opposition to extending the bill five years was not well taken. I know that you need it to do some long-range planning. Run the schools around the clock, inservice training for your teachers, whatever problem you have and whatever planning you may want to do in the future. We should have got five years, but we just did not have the votes this week in the House on the basis that we were going to preclude the President of the United States from his views on this legislation in the future.



Culture of Rural Disadvantaged

Myrtle R. Reul

About thirty percent of the total population of the United States live in rural areas. This figure, of slightly over sixty million,[1] represents a hetrogeneous cross section of the American population, only one quarter of whom live on farms or ranches. The remainder live in small towns, villages, hamlets, residential subdivisions, strip settlements, and isolated dwellings scattered over the countryside.

RACIAL DISTRIBUTION

There are something around six million non-whites in this rural population, about four and one-half million of whom are non-farm residents who may, or may not, engage in some form of agriculture. The remaining one and one-half million live on farms. The greatest number of non-white rural residents are Negroes, more than five million. Approximately three hundred eighty-seven thousand in the rural areas of the continental United States, plus another forty-three thousand in Alaska are American Indians; eighty-three thousand rural residents are Japanese, eleven thousand are Chinese, forty-seven thousand are Filipinos and sixty-eight thousand are other races.

The 1960 Census[2] showed four and one-tenth percent of all rural residents were foreign born, mainly Europeans.

RURAL DEPRIVATION

Although only thirty percent of the people of the United States live in rural areas, this segment of the population represents the bulk of the disadvantaged. Incomes for rural people are disproportionately low. Rural individuals, by and large, receive less formal education, and often of an inferior quality, than do urban persons. There are large numbers of functionally illiterate living in rural sections who cannot follow written instructions, or who may not be able to read or write their own names. The displaced worker, the school dropout, the unemployed, and the under-employed are more prevalent outside of urban areas.

"Farm, rural, non-farm, and small-town persons make up the bulk of the stable poor. They are the majority of the American poor."[3] They are the low-skilled workers who even when regularly employed, do not have a sufficient income to care for large families.

When the disadvantaged and poor of this Nation are examined, the thirty percent figure needs to be reversed. True, rural people represent thirty percent of the total population, but they also represent seventy percent of the Nation's poor. "Only thirty percent of the poor live in metropolitan areas."[4] The majority of all the poor are found among whites who live in the mountains of Appalachia, the rural sections of the deep South, and in the north cutover lands of the Midwest. They are found in mining communities, in areas where farms have been consolidated, or turned into recreational areas. They are found in every state and are scattered from Maine to southern California.

DEPRIVATION AMONG AMERICAN INDIANS

The American Indian is an example of great extremes of deprivation. "The combination of his present situation and the historical exploitation of his race causes many of the current problems. The effects of poverty long experienced by the Indian are compounded by the indifference and the apathy of the general public and by his own inability to articulate his needs through the press or the ballot box."[5]

MYRTLE R. REUL

Professor
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1 October 1, 1968, estimated population, United States Bureau of the Census.
2 United States Bureau of the Census (14).

3 Glayer, Nona Y. and Creedon, Carol J., *Children and Poverty,* Rand McNally and Co., Chicago, 1968, p. 132.
4 Glayer, Nona Y. and Creedon, Carol, *op. cit.*, p. 132.
5 Reul, Myrtle R., "Deprivation Amid Abundance," *Changing Services for Changing Clients,* Columbia University Press, New York, 1969, p. 65.

On the eve of Mother's Day, 1964, my husband and I were on an Indian reservation in South Dakota. We had for the evening an adopted Indian son with whom we were attending the junior-senior banquet and prom at the Federal high school. He was a junior. It was the first time in his life he had attended any function with parental figures. The tall, sensitive boy wanted someday to be a psychiatrist in order to prove to the world that an Indian whose family lived the year round in a tent with an earthen floor, whose family had never known the luxury of electricity nor inside plumbing, nor any formal education, that an Indian from this sort of a background could amount to something. He had read every book on psychology he could borrow. He was conversant with the psychoanalytical theory, the works of Freud, Adler, Jung, and Watson and he understood the theory of the unconscious and something about hypnosis, on a level that would have done credit to any graduate student in any university in the country. A year later we called to congratulate him on his day of graduation only to find that he had been expelled from a foreign language class in which he was a discipline problem. His native Indian language was Navajo. His peer group in the school spoke Lakota, a dialect of Sioux. The faculty in the school were all English speaking and required English in classes. The foreign language he was enrolled in was Spanish. He was expelled for refusing to cut his hair and insisting that if anyone in the United States had a right to wear long hair, it was the American Indian. His Spanish class instructor (a non-Indian) disagreed and feeling the young man needed to be taught self-discipline had recommended that he be expelled for three weeks. The student left the reservation and went to live with a half brother in Chicago's south side, in that section of the city surrounded by the empty confusion of poverty where many dreams have died. It was in an environment of squalor that this young Indian gave up all thoughts of ever becoming a psychiatrist. What is he like today? There is nothing in his present manner or attitude or even physical appearance that remotely resembles the shy, yet proud young man, who five years ago plied me with questions about college entrance requirements and who enthusiastically bragged to me about what would happen when others had to sit up and take notice because an American Indian had finally reached the top. Today, he looks, and acts and apparently feels like so many of those who were Americans before Columbus who find they have no part in the great American dream, and who withdraw into their anger and try some mechanical way to forget.

INDIAN CULTURE

When an examination is made of Indian culture, the name Indian becomes confusing. American Indian is a collective name given to a race of people who represent varied cultures and distinctly different nationalities. Each Indian group or nation, such as Navaho, Chippewa, Pawnee, Comanche, or Appache, speak their own language and have their own customs. Historically, there were several hundred tribal languages and dialects. The Bureau of Indian Affairs still recognizes 279 entities.[6] An example of the diversified differences between Indian nations is found in a comparison of the Navaho, who are matriarchial in their family role patterns, and the Sioux, who are patriarchal. The Sioux nation also was divided into three linguistic groups speaking slightly different dialects of the mother tongue, Dakota, Nakota, and Lakota.

The name American Indian applies to a loosely knit confederation that is as diversified as a United States of Europe would be. These historical differences play a very important role in the present position of the American Indian. It is difficult for an Indian to speak for his race because his identity is always determined by his being a Cree, a Cherokee, or a Winnebago. Even should the various Indian nations unite, they still do not have large enough numbers to threaten votes or force issues, even if this sort of an aggressive approach were part of their culture, which it is not. In most states, Indians represent less than one-half of one percent. Even in Arizona, which has the largest number, Indians represent less than six and one-half percent of the total population.

[6] United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Indian Affairs.

It would be presumptuous on my part to try to describe the cultures of all the reservations my husband and I have visited from the Canadian border in North Dakota, to the cypress swamps of Florida. We have stayed in cabins made of logs stuck in mud, in tarpaper covered shanties, in a shelter of tin, in a chickee thatched with palmetto fronds. We have sat under a brush "tent"; have leaned close to a mosquito smudge of burning, twisted grass; and have ridden hundreds of miles across the prairie in a battered old car, the pride and joy of the Sioux family, who lived in the Badlands. We have seen Indians existing on less than eight hundred dollars a year. We have seen them divide one potato among seven people, including a frail old man, and four undernourished children. We have been on a reservation in a state noted for its sub-zero weather where out of one hundred families, sixty-one lived in log cabins, mostly one room, twenty-two in tents, thirteen in tarpaper shacks and discarded automobile bodies, and four in adequate frame buildings. This is the extreme of rural poverty – this is "Indian country."

RURAL POVERTY AT ITS WORST

"Of all racial and ethnic groups in the rural United States, the most disadvantaged are the American Indians. Their housing is the poorest. Many live in earthen hogans, floorless log cabins, or year-round in tents in the Dakotas. Many have never known the luxury of electricity. They carry their water from a river or stock-watering pond. Indians are the least educated of any group in America today and have the highest rate of unemployment. In Alaska it is eighty percent. Their health needs are also the greatest and their death rate is the highest.

"Indians are caught between the culture of their people and the culture of the dominant society. Fifty years ago the Federal Government came into Indian communities and carried children off by force to be educated in distant boarding schools. The result was confusion, ambival-

ence, and immobilization for the individuals who are now the parents of today's school-children. Many have a deep hatred for the dominant white society and contempt for themselves.

"The Indian culture was a shame culture; a child was not punished, but was shamed into obedience. He was taught by example. The Indian child today is surrounded on all sides with stigma that give shame and doubt to his own identification. From his grandfather he has heard stories of the time when Indians were great people, when they were free. In the history books of schools he attends he reads: 'In that part of America which is now the United States the Indians had nowhere advanced beyond the stage of barbarism . . .'[7] "[8]

The educational picture for the American Indian is equally as dark today as it was when Indians were first put on the reservations.

"The Bureau of Indian Affairs spent eighty-six million of its two hundred forty-one million dollars in 1968 on the education of fifty-five thousand Indian children and there is little to show for it. Nearly sixty percent of these youngsters must attend Bureau of Indian Affairs boarding school either because there is no public or federal day school near their home or because they are 'social referrals.' . . . The schools have a sixty percent dropout rate, compared to a national average of twenty-three percent.

"Often the government places children in Federal boarding schools at the age of six or seven; over nine thousand under the age of nine are so placed. That quite a few parents resist having their young taken from home for a year is indicated by a 1966 Health Education Welfare survey: sixteen thousand Indian children between the ages of eight and sixteen were not in school. . . . At present, only sixteen percent of the Bureau's teachers are Indian. . . . The turnover rate among teachers is double the national average. . . .

"The Indian school curriculum is standard . . . knowledge of and therefore pride in their historic and cultural heritage is almost nonexistent . . . Most Indian children speak English poorly or not at all . . . Yet Bureau schools conduct all classes in English . . . Most of the boarding school teachers are unable to speak or understand the native language of their students.

"Estranged from his family, confronted with an alien culture and unable to talk to his teachers, the Indian's academic performance is predictably poor. . . . For the first few years of school, Indian achievement parallels that of white children and then slowly but persistently regresses. An Indian starts to fall behind between the sixth and eighth grades, and if he does not drop out, finishes high school with a 9.5 grade education. . . ."[9]

"The preadolescent Indian child comprises the highest percentage of school dropout of any race because he has two choices: (1) to identify with the dominant society and make a complete cleavage with his own heritage, or (2) to return to that heritage. Most young people unconsciously select the latter. Two of the chief problems facing these Indian youths are (1) acquiring an education and (2) developing a sense of cultural identity. They return to the reservation, to the hogan, as did their grandfathers. There are many fatal accidents involving Indian youths. It is almost as if unconsciously they chose death as the solution to being trapped between the Indian culture of the past and the dominant culture of the present."[10]

"No other group in the United States lives under comparable conditions," the Public Health Service informed the United States Congress in 1962.[11] "The Indian is half a century behind the rest of the nation when judged in terms of health."

What does it mean in human terms to be half a century behind? The average Indian dies at the age of thirty-seven – twenty-five years before the average American. Fewer than half of the Indians born reach the age of twenty; one-third of them die before the age of five. Indians are afflicted by tuberculosis at nine times the rate of the general population; pneumonia at more than a hundred times, trachoma at seven hundred times; dysentary at forty times. Of every one thousand Indian babies born, seventy-six will not live to be one year old, three times the infant death rate for other Americans.

Dr. Herbert A. Hudgins, Director of the Aberdeen, South Dakota area of Public Health Services reported that a survey of the Cheyenne River Reservation in that state showed: "The scarcity of water for domestic use contributes greatly to sanitation being as it is. Contaminated water is hauled, stored in open barrels, and then used for drinking without any kind of purification. During the late summer months, after the sun and wind have lowered the water levels of livestock reservoirs and rivers, and the stock has wallowed in them, the water is exceedingly foul."[12]

THE CULTURE OF THE SIOUX

I was born on a Montana ranch, a few miles from a large Indian reservation. My first contact with a race, other than my own, was Indian. A Sioux whose native dialect was Nakota, taught me to ride when my father gave me a horse for my fourth birthday. Through the years, I have kept contact with some of those Indians who played an important part in the early formative period of my life. This is the Indian culture I know the best – the Sioux. This is the culture I will describe briefly.

Family ties among the Sioux include parents, children, grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins. The oldest male member is the patriarch who is the official family head and spokesman. In the traditional Sioux family all of the father's brothers are called "father" and all of the mother's sisters are called "mother."

Time is of a different significance to the Sioux than to the white man. He refuses to be con-

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7 Muzzey, David, A History of Our Country, New York: Ginn and Company, 1944, p. 35.
8 Reul, *op. cit.*, p. 65.
9 Henninger, Daniel and Espesite, Nancy, "Regimented Non-Education Indian School," *The New Republic*, February 15, 1969, pp. 18-21.
10 Reul, *op. cit.*, p. 66.
11 Public Health Report to Congress, 1962.
12 Hudgins, Dr. Herbert A. – quoted by Carl P. Rowan, reporter for the Minneapolis Tribune.

trolled by time. A mother may know which of her children is older or younger, but actual years of age may seem unimportant to her and she may have difficulty recalling their ages.

Indians do not find silences awkward or embarrassing. They may "size up" strangers during a prolonged silence.

For the Sioux to take initiative in any obvious manner would have the psychological effect of separating him from his social group, whether he is collecting material goods, or personal recognition. Instead of being congratulated, he would be censored by his kinsman and neighbors who would believe that only a stingy man, or one helped by witches would accumulate so much. Regardless of the tribe represented, all Indian children are taught not to compete, as in school, they feel very guilty and may withdraw and not try, rather than be ostracized by their classmates.

"The sharing of food was basic to the early Sioux culture. In the days of the nomad tribes, food was never hoarded by individuals nor families. Food was shared and shared alike. It had to be shared for the preservation of the tribe. Those who dared withhold food for themselves rather than giving to any member of the band who expressed a need, or a desire, were ostracized as not being worthy of being Sioux.

"Today this tradition of sharing still holds true. No one, especially a relative, is ever refused food or is turned away at mealtime. Food is divided although there may not be enough for a division. There is no guilt about coming to be fed. It is not a form of begging or accepting charity. It is part of the tradition of the past. Those who have today must share willingly with those who do not have, so that tomorrow, they too will be eligible for the generosity of others. It is a cultural right for those who are hungry to expect to be fed. It is a cultural obligation for those who have food to share. In the world of the white man's culture where the Sioux live, this sort of sharing reduces all to a degree of common poverty. Each year on the Reservation, this poverty becomes more evident. . . ."[13]

[13] Reul, Myrtle R., *Where Hannibal Led Us*, New York, Vantage Press, Inc., 1967, p. 196.

DEPRIVATION AMONG MIGRANT FARM WORKERS

Another fairly large group, many of whom experience extreme poverty, are the migrant farm workers who follow the crops in search of work.

My husband and I spent fifty-four weeks as migrants traveling in all parts of the United States.[14] We stayed in all types of housing. We worked in the fields, in orchards, and in packing sheds. We traveled in trucks and in a bus from border to border. We slept in our car standed in strange communities. We saw many situations where the ethnic culture of the migrant was in conflict with the culture of the dominant society in which we worked.

If one word were used to describe migrant workers, that word would need to be "isolation." "There is an aloneness for the seasonal worker created by the temporary status of his employment. The two greatest factors which motivated his becoming a migrant are: (1) limited work near his own home (2) the promise of work, or better opportunities in some other sections of the country. The average migrant worker is highly motivated to support himself and his family. He does not join the migrant stream out of dissatisfaction with his home area, as much as he is driven into this type of work because of necessity. His stay in any community can be determined by a whimsical change in the weather, a freeze, a windstorm, or hail, can wipe out an entire crop and he and his family are forced to move on, searching for another job."[15]

COMPOSITION OF MIGRANT WORKERS

The answer to the question, "who are the migrants," is a varied one; and the answer to the question, "how many migrants travel the roads of this nation each year looking for the work in the crops," can only be a rough estimate. Within the migrant streams can be found all races and most ethnic groups. There are individuals who have been counted and recounted, and those who have never been counted at all. There are migrants whose roots are deep in the early history of this country, and those who were born in Mexico, or the West Indies. There are migrants who are aged, and those who are newborn. There are migrants who are physically handicapped, who have respiratory infections, diabetes, and tuberculosis; there are those who are in need of all kinds of dental care; there are those who have defective vision and impaired hearing and there are those who are reasonably strong and well-nourished.

On one occasion, we met a stranded white family who had once lived in the mountains of Appalachia and who had joined the migrant farm labor stream when they were unable to make the mortgage payments on their tiny hillside farm. Their forefathers had lived in the mountains since the Revolutionary War. Yet, when we met this family they had followed the seasons of work so long they had lost their residency and had never been able to stay long enough in any new place to establish residency there. They were nomads of the open road — residents of nowhere. They were disadvantaged beyond poverty. They were ineligible for voting in any election, even that of the president of the United States. They were ineligible for any type of assistance where the eligibility depended upon residency. Their five school-age children had attended school for less than two months in the past two and one-half years. We met them stranded in the Everglades of Florida with less than two gallons of gasoline in their car and thirty cents in their pockets. This family had no rights as American citizens and yet they were blue-eyed and blond Anglo-Saxons whose ancestors had been among the early colonists to the new world.

I think a description of apple pickers we met in upper New York will give a picture of the various types of personalities and cultures represented in the farm migrant population. Except for slight racial proportions, these same workers can be found among those who harvest grapes in

[14] Reul, Myrtle R., *op. cit.*

[15] Reul, Myrtle R., "Isolation of Farm Workers," the Michigan State Economic Record, June 1967, p. 3.

the Sonoma Valley in California, or thin sugar beets in the Yellowstone River Valley of Montana, or cut celery in the muck lands of Florida.

The vast apple orchard was only a few miles from the blue waters of Lake Champlain. The fruit was large and firm and smelled of ripeness. It was a crop at the peak of its season which weighted the trees until branches touched the ground – tons of red apples – McIntosh, Winesap and Delicious.

A newly-wed couple walked past us hand-in-hand planning their future. Picking the row next to ours was a retired local white couple. He was a small bent figure of a man. His wife was three times larger. He worked on the ladder. She picked from the ground stating that she was "too heavy" to stand even on the lowest steps. There were several of these older local pickers who were living on social security or old age assistance. Sometimes they talked about what they thought would happen when they were too old to work in the harvest and add to their income. Even with the promises of the proposed medicare, they had many fears about their expenses being more than they could handle. The New York grower also employed several high school and college students who worked only on Saturdays or a few days in mid-September before classes began.

The row on the other side, and four rows beyond the spot where we worked were picked by Negro workers, part of the Eastern Stream who traveled in crews up and down the Atlantic seacoast. From across the road, toward the back of the orchard, drifted the sound of voices calling to each other in Spanish. A few were dusky-skinned from the island of Puerto Rico, but mostly they were families from south Texas whose cultural heritage was Mexican.

The workers kept mainly within their own groups. Racial or ethnic prejudices can be rather easily inflamed into open resentment so growers usually assign crews to different parts of the orchard and may even order them to stay away from each other.

Most of the Negro pickers were either in their early teens and early twenties or in their mid-forties. The older workers were more conforming and more willing to chat with the white workers. The younger workers were more defiant, more critical of working conditions and more openly hostile in their expressions of dislike for whites. There was much good-natured banter, teasing each other about something which happened the night before. Frequently they bragged about how much they made on another job or in some other crop. They fantasied about their drinking and about how many miles their cars got to a gallon of gasoline, or about the "killing" they made in a crap game or betting on the dogs, or the number of women they had dated.

One crew challenged another to see who could pick the most apples. A crew leader cautioned them not to bruise the fruit and to kneel down when they unfastened the canvas bottom of their picking bag.

A middle-aged Negro woman warned another "to stay away from her man" or she would scratch her eyes out. Once the two women scuffled briefly, slapping each other and pulling hair until a crew leader broke them up. The older woman threatened next time to shoot the younger one. She went back to her tree mumbling to herself, yet loud enough for everyone to hear, that she was not "goin' have no hussy foolin' 'round her man." He was "a good man" and she wanted him left alone.

A mother, late in her third pregnancy, rested in the warm September sun with a toddler asleep across her lap. While she and her husband picked, the baby slept in a packing box. There were ants and flies in the orchard, but she felt better if the baby were where she could watch him.

We always heard one fifty-five-year-old picker coming before he appeared, his ragged gray suitcoat hanging in tent-like folds across his thin shoulders. He sang, always a revival hymn, usually, "When the Roll is Called Up Yonder, I'll Be There." If the words were slurred, or slightly off pitch, we knew his breakfast had consisted of a bottle, or more, of cheap wine and that his shuffling gait was sideways, forward, and back. He would move diagonally across the orchard trying to find the row he thought had been assigned to him. Sometimes, he would stop with a lopsided grin and remark that someone was "playing tricks" on him by moving his trees. If he seemed too drunk to work, a fellow picker would help him find a shady spot to "sleep it off." In the eyes of the community this man was a fruit tramp, human refuse from skid row. Yet, he was a very lonely man who willingly would share his last bottle of wine or his earnings with anyone who only would stop and talk with him. He was a man who picked apples on those days he could stay sober in order to buy more wine. He was white, Scotch-Irish, the son of a Calvinist minister. He had been a child prodigy with a gifted musical talent, and he could still sing beautifully even on those days when he had a bottle of cheap wine for his breakfast.

Most of the workers put in long hours and full days from the time the early sun cut pencilled lines of shadow among the trees until the orchard lay in deep evening shade. They worked hard, earning as much as they could. One exception was a love-smitten adolescent who left his tree every few minutes to saunter nonchalantly towards another part of the orchard looking for a girl in a yellow blouse. She knew he was watching and responded with a teasing flip of her long dark hair, encouraging him to maintain his interest, but never hesitating as she firmly grasped an apple and gently slid it through the metal throat of her picking bag.

Migrants, regardless of race, represent all personality types. There are all kinds of individuals. Migrant camps are like a cross section of any city with the most obvious feature being that of poverty – but a poverty more extreme, more secretive, more insidious than that found in the ghetto of any city.

THE MIGRANT STREAMS

The principle migration of agricultural migrant workers is along five main streams. They follow the crops from the South to the North and back to the South. Workers also move from

low wage areas to higher wage areas seeking better worker conditions. The streams of those looking for work constantly change and men and women who picked strawberries in California last year may come to New Jersey for peppers or blueberries this season, or to the cherries of the Midwest, or the vegetables of south Florida.

The East Coast Stream, with approximately 50,000 migrants, leads from the Everglades of Florida up the Atlantic seacoast with branches thrusting as far west as Lake Erie and northward into New England. This stream is made up mainly of southern-born Negroes with large numbers of Puerto Ricans and about ten-thousand black and white "day-haul" workers who come to the fields from Philadelphia and other northern cities.

The Central River, largest of all, with about 150,000 workers, originates in south Texas and moves northward on both sides of the Mississippi River. The western workers in this stream thin sugar beets from Nebraska to Idaho and Montana, the eastern workers pick fruit and harvest vegetables from Missouri to Wisconsin and Michigan. These migrants are mainly Mexican-American, with some southern Negroes and Caucasians.

Approximately 100,000 workers make up the third stream which moves up and down the West Coast staying mainly in California. These migrants are Mexican-Americans, Caucasians, Indians, Negroes, and Orientals. The fourth stream is found in the southwest, woking in the crops of Arizona, New Mexico, and southern California. The predominant culture here is Mexican-American — with some Mexicans, Indians, and a very few Negroes and Caucasians.

The fifth stream is concerned only with wheat, oats, rye, and barley harvesting. It includes about 50,000 workers, mainly Caucasian, who originate in Texas and Oklahoma. These are the aristocrats of the migrant workers. They travel mainly with house trailers, or stay at motels, and for the most part, do not experience the discrimination known to the "stoop laborers," who thin lettuce or pick strawberries.

FAMILY CULTURE

"The largest number of migrants in the United States are Spanish-Americans, mainly from a Mexican heritage. Many of these are more traditional families than those usually found in urban centers. In the Spanish culture the strongest feeling of belonging is in the family. This is not the nuclear family — it is the kinship or extended family. When the Spanish-American speaks of his family, he means his spouse, his children, his parents, his in-laws, aunts, uncles, cousins, and god-parents.[16] In the traditional Spanish-American home, whether Mexican, Puerto-Rican, or Cuban, the man is the head of the household. He is the one who makes most decisions. It is an insult in his culture to enter his home without his permission.

"Among the Negro migrants, the woman, especially the grandmother, plays the more dominant family role. Divorce, separation, common-law marriages, or unwed parenthood are the usual reasons for the female family head, although there are some migrant families where the legal husband is present and yet the woman makes all of the major decisions. There are also many "adopted" children, or relatives being raised by other family members or children being raised by non-family members. Although these may be rather loosely defined family relationships, these adults, whether biological parents, step-parents, or self-adopted parents, seem to have a good deal of love and affection for the children in their care.

"There is less of the common-law marriage among white migrants. Family membership is along extended family lines with the grandmother playing a dominant part. While the man is the head of the household, the woman is often the one who actually makes decisions."[17]

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[16] Reul, Myrtle R., *Sociocultural Patterns Among Michigan Migrant Farm Workers*, Rural Manpower Center, Michigan State University, 1967, p. 5.

[17] Reul, Myrtle R., "If Rehabilitation Services are to be Offered to Migrants," to be published in Rehabilitation Record, summer, 1969.

THE IMPACT OF RURAL MIGRATION

The roots of today's urban crisis are in rural America and although these roots originate in all sections of the country, the majority of those found in the larger cities of the North and West represent Southern culture.[18]

In the past ten years over one and one-quarter million Negroes have left the Black Belt of the South and have taken the trail North to cities like New York, Detroit and Philadelphia. Since 1940, this Negro migration has amounted to three and one-half million individuals. Added to the black movement are thousands of poor whites. They have left the rural South where the grass grows with a lush greenness, where the wild honeysuckle fills the air with a perfume which is overwhelming. They have exchanged the quiet of the countryside for the odors and poverty of the cities. They have no choice but to leave; automation has virtually eliminated jobs. There is no work for them in rural America. They hope there is something in the city. And so, they move from the tiny shacks along the dusty, winding lanes into the crowded apartments of Atlanta, New Orleans, or Houston. They go to St. Louis, to Boston, and to Sacramento. They bring their culture with them, their sense of values and their family life styles, all of which may be in conflict with the new society in which they find themselves. While the cities have been overwhelmed with the problems these newcomers bring, the rural areas they leave are being depleted. Those who migrate out are usually the younger and more educated. They are those who are motivated to change. They leave behind the older and the ill, those who while they may not be happy with their existence have developed an attitude of apathy, a hopelessness. Many of these individuals have given up the struggle of trying to help themselves. They may say, "So be it. This is the will of God. I'se worked hard all my life, ain't ever had nothin' and don't 'spect nothin' 'till I die."

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[18] Beardwood, Roger, "The Southern Roots of Urban Crisis," Fortune, August, 1968.

In these areas of high out-migration and low in-migration like Appalachia, the rural deep south and Arkansas old ideas are not exposed to the questioning of newcomers with the result that the dominant emotional tone of the area tends to become pessimistic and backward looking.[19] The interest in community improvement lessens. People perceive that the force of change is out of their hands. Low in-migration places the kinship family in a more powerful position than in areas where there is high in-migration.

DEPRIVATION AMONG SPANISH AMERICANS

There are three and one-half million persons of Spanish or Mexican descent living in five Southwestern states, California, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and Colorado. Twenty years ago, most Spanish-Americans lived in rural sections of these states but a very rapid urban movement has resulted in something under fourteen percent now living in rural areas.

"The personal and social adjustment of the Spanish-American has been greatly complicated because of his culture. Value orientations of the Spanish-speaking, for instance, typically reflect traditionalism, familism, paternalism, and resignation regarding conditions of life. Also, the low value placed on education is congruent with a simple division of labor, a higher value placed on self-sufficiency than riches, and an oral rather than written tradition. These values stand in sharp contrast with the dominant values of American society. . . ."[20]

"In the Spanish culture the older members of the family held a revered position. They gain wisdom with age. For a Spanish-American to institutionalize such a relative is very difficult because it is not part of his culture. There is a strong need to keep the family together, physically as well as emotionally. At an early age, a child learns respect for his elders. Above all else, he is taught to honor and defend his family . . ."[21]

DEPRIVATION AMONG RURAL NEGROES

Most of the rural Negroes have come out of a background of cotton economy which required the labor of the entire family to earn a living. In the Negro culture there was always pride in large families. For man the size of the family is a test of virility and for the wife the number of children carry proof of her value as a mate. In a culture where the individual often feels inadequate, producing children may be his or her main purpose in life. As one woman with thirteen children stated a few years ago, "Lordy, I'm just building up dis world wid babies."

It is not unusual to find Negro families raising children of friends, neighbors, or other relatives. One woman whose own family was practically grown had undertaken the rearing of several grandchildren and three babies who belonged to a neighbor. She said, "I'se got these little motherless chillun here and got nothin' much to give 'em to eat, but we'se manage."

The main diet of the rural Negro is still that of his forefathers: salt pork, rice, grits, corn meal, collard greens with syrup or sorghum. On the trips to town they indulge their children and themselves with peanuts, candy and soda pop if they have the money.

The normal earnings of a man and wife if both work as tenant farmers in many counties in the Deep South is less than fifteen hundred dollars a year. They will pay at least a third of this amount in rent.

If the woman does not assist on the farm she usually does day work as a maid. For this she may receive from three to seven dollars a day.

The church plays a very important role in the culture of the rural Negro. It is respectable to belong to church and practically all families retain some degree of connection. The denomination is predominantly Baptist. The country church often stands at a junction of two red clay roads with no other building in sight. There is little formal ritual and the congregation gives the minister encouragement in their responses of "Amen," "Yes Lord," "Tell us Preacher."

Church suppers are very popular as a form of entertainment. These are usually box socials or picnics.

The houses in which the great majority of Negroes live in the rural South are notoriously wretched. They are constructed of rough lumber. A large number of them are not equipped with glass windows bat have crude wooden shutters which serve as coverings for window openings. Unpainted and weathered a drab gray, these three and four-room structures offer little more than shelter.

FAMILY CONSTELLATION

In the lower socio-economic groups the family is more often dominated by the woman than by the man. . . . The "independence" of Negro women is complimented by "irresponsibility" in the man. The man knows his family will get along without him. When deserted, the woman makes no attempt to force the man to support her or his children. Legal recourse is expensive and violates community morales; the social stigma upon the man who neglects his family is not pronounced.

Desertion is in many instances an extremely casual process:

"I don't know what happened to my husband. He just went off. One day he come in and said he was going to town. We ain't heard a word from him since. I kept looking and looking for him but that was going on over a year ago and he ain't turned up. . . ."

Children are no barrier to remarriage for the woman since husbands readily accept children of their wives by a former marriage or even illegitimate children.

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[19] Coppe, James H., "Family Backgrounds of Rural Youth" in *Rural Youth in Crisis*, edited by Lee Burchinal, 1964, p. 39.

[20] Burchinal, Lee G. (Ed.) *Rural Youth in Crisis*, U.S. Dept. of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1965, p. 393.

[21] Reul, Myrtle R., "Deprivation Amid Abundance," *Changing Services for Changing Clients*, Columbia University Press, New York, 1969, p. 72.

The children's attitude toward separation of parents is often unemotional. A youth may say his father drinks or is "no-account," but there is little expression of antagonism.

The man is usually the head of the household in upper-class families. In these families responsibility for family support rests on the father. The mother may work out, but the man is recognized as the primary wage earner and ultimate family authority.[22]

"The parents of rural Negro youth are not only poor but have low levels of education. About eighty percent of rural Negro adults in the South in 1960 had completed less than eight years of school and half of all Negro rural adults in Alabama, Mississippi, and South Carolina had completed less than six years of school. . . . Youth who want to get out of and away from school find it easy to do so in rural areas where there is little, if any, enforcement of school attendance. . . ."[23]

DEPRIVATION AMONG THE WHITES OF APPALACHIA

The largest number of those who live in rural poverty are the whites of the Appalachian mountains. Approximately seven million people live in the eight states that make up that section of the country.

"In this sad economy of food stamps and subsistence, the coal company is no longer the great employer – and hence the paternalistic provider – it used to be. Gone are the days when the company owned the buildings, ran the store and furnished the services, and even the more naive have now abandoned the hope that someday 'the mines will open up again.' What remains is the condition of dependency: Through a half century of rural industrialization, the once independent mountaineer was reduced to reliance on a single enterprise and, when it no longer required his labor, to nothing except the dole . . .

[22] Johnson, Charles S., *Growing Up in the Black Belt*, Schocken Books, New York, 1967, pp. 38-70.
[23] Burchinal, Lee G., Rural Youth in Crisis, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C., 1965, pp. 389-390.

"Appalachia, now growing its third welfare generation, has counties where more than a third of the population is unemployed, where the government check – social security, welfare, aid to dependent children – is the prime source of income, and where some men are so far from their last job that it cannot properly be said that they have a trade at all. Here, the average adult has a sixth-grade education, and three-fourths of the children who start school drop out before they complete the twelfth grade. . . ."[24]

FAMILY ROLES[25]

The concept of family in Appalachia is one of extended relationships with three or more generations often living together. There is little of the philosophy of the companionship marriage. The man is the head of the household. He is often overshadowed, however, by the woman who actually makes many of the decisions he claims to make. According to one mountaineer, "The husband is the head, but the wife is the neck, and she turns the head in whatever direction she wants him to go."[26]

Following the honeymoon a young couple settle down in the same valley to a life of farm work, employment in the mines, or in one of the glass or chemical factories. It is not unusual for them to live in the home of their parents or other relatives. After marriage, a man continues to spend a good deal of time with men friends playing cards, drinking, fishing, or just talking. The woman has her women friends with whom she talks, sews, or gardens. Outside of church and family reunions, most parents and their children do very few things together as a family.

Emancipation of adult children has traditionally been difficult. There was once an old mountain saying that a child should never move further away "than you could see the smoke from his chimney."[27] Adult children refer to their fathers as "daddy" and how "daddy feels about something" is important as to how the adult child behaves. It is not unusual for adult children, themselves parents, to turn to their parents for continued advice and direction.

[24] Schrag, Peter, "Appalachia: Again the Forgotten Land," Saturday Review, January 27, 1968.
[25] The rest of this section on Appalachian Culture is from a paper "The Adult of the Appalachian Mountain" which I presented at The Ohio Seminar for Administrators of Adult Basic Education in Columbus, Ohio on September 19, 1968.
[26] From personal interviews.

ROLE OF WOMEN

From the early history of Appalachia, there has always been a clear division of labor in the Highlander's home. An older brother, or cousin, charged with seeing that a little girl got safely to a spring would walk ahead of her and would let her carry the pail of water without assistance because to do anything else would not be "proper behavior for a boy." Although he had a deep affection for his sister or cousin, he would not see any need to "take over her work." Likewise, today, an adult son can comfortably rock on the front porch and watch his aging mother hoe the garden and feel no compulsion to help her, nor guilt about her obvious fatigue, because gardening has always been considered part of a woman's responsibility. While the general attitude on the part of mountain men, even now, is to permit women to do this sort of work, their attitude is largely offset by a very real and fundamental respect for womanhood. In general, it may be said that the average woman submits unquestionably to her lot of hard work, excessive child bearing and rule of her husband. It is something of a paradox, however, that when she becomes an old woman with a large family of grownup children, she comes into her own and assumes somewhat the character of a matriarch. She is often consulted, looked up to, loved, and respected. And is usually the real head of the home and may dictate to her adult sons and overrule her daughter-in-laws in making family decisions such as whether to move, to visit the homeplace, or if the son should take a job in Detroit.

CHILD REARING PRACTICES

Large families of eight or more are common. New babies are welcomed regardless of numbers by all family members.

[27] From personal interviews.

Early childhood training and experience not only foster loyalty to the family, but encourage emotional dependence upon the parents. Because most contacts are with relatives, many children have little or no opportunity to relate to non-relatives prior to their school experience. They are themselves in relationship to grandparents, aunts, uncles and cousins. While they are expected to conform to the wishes of the parents, most children are over-indulged. In the hills they are free to roam, to hunt for blackberries high on the mountain top, to explore a cave. Parents, aware of the "hard life of adults" allow their children the happy carefree days of summer with few, if any, restrictions.

There is very little vandalism or delinquency in the mountains but many of these children and young people have difficulty when they move to metropolitan areas. In the cities their roaming curiosity would be called "running away" and such parental permissiveness would be labeled as "parental neglect." There is little in their early training that teaches the children discipline and self-control. The few rules and regulations they may encounter in their homes are based more on family values than on whether or not the behavior would be anti-social, contrary to community values, or delinquent.

Children may be kept out of school to do things with the family, or there may be hostility toward the school because the school program does not fit the pattern of family living. This attitude toward school attendance goes back to a time when children in farm areas were kept home to help plant or harvest crops, or to hunt, and when little value was placed on education. Today, the "desirability of knowledge is generally conceded, but only so long as it does not interfere with the basic social and economic life of the family."[28]

PERSON TO PERSON CULTURE

The Highlander's culture is person to person centered. Each situation applies to an individual in a very personal sense. He views his community in relationship to himself, not himself in relationship to the community. Such an individual has difficulty accepting criticism.

An Appalachian Highlander may feel superior to his employer who, although part of the affluent society, did not have an ancestor with Washington at Valley Forge, or one who helped to carve Knoxville, or Jamestown from the wilderness. The alienation the Highlander feels outside of his mountains, the ridicule he fears and senses, may cause a self-imposed isolation. He may never really think of another community as home, although he may live and work there for years.

It is very difficult for a person from this background to view an experience in the framework of another. He sees things only in relationship to self. He is opinionated and bases his concept of what is right or wrong on his own experiences. His total concept of the world is in relationship to self. As he depends upon his five senses for much of his perception, it is difficult for him to understand something he has not seen. He views life in concrete terms and has difficulty with abstractions.

There is a tendency for these adults to think of themselves as surrounded by situations which are detrimental to their personal progress. They feel surrounded by others who are envious, jealous, or hostile. It is very difficult for such individuals to take responsibility for their own position in life. Their culture has provided few opportunities for their self-choice. They have been forced into situations because of others. It is the hand of fate. It is easy under these circumstances to think of themselves without fault, surrounded by those who continuously place obstacles in their way. These "blocks in their pathway" are referred to as "they." When defined, "they" become neighbors, employers, anyone in a position of authority or the government. Many living in Appalachia blame their present financial situation on the farming methods of their neighbors, the Tennessee Valley Authority, or the Federal Government for taking the best land for parks and projects, or on the supernatural. God is punishing the world for being wicked and they "just as well as sinners must suffer." "They" may also be members of another religion (Jews, Catholics), or of a different political party, or "foreigners" (Wops, Hunkies, Poles), or a family of "inferior or superior" ancesteral blood lines, or "newcomers."

While the people of Appalachia are not all alike in their attitudes and their approach to personal crises, there is much that all mountain people have in common with each other which needs to be understood. Loyalty to the family is one of these.

While loyalty to family is growing weaker in recent years with out-migration, nevertheless, many of these who geographically leave Appalachia never feel psychologically separated from their kin. "Moving means establishing a home like the original one and carrying on the activities that preserve a sense of family and cultural continuity."[29]

Loyalty to family is more than affection for family members. It is a deep obligation to help each other and to share together, to provide care for the sick and a home for the aging. If a kin is in need, there is an automatic impulse to help even if one is in debt, has no job, or is living on welfare.

AMISH AS A RURAL CULTURE

Our host drove a square box-like buggy pulled by a gray mare who responded to the gentle tug of the lines and slowly headed out of town into some of the most productive farm lands in all of Pennsylvania. Our host was an Amishman, one of fifty thousand individuals often referred to as the "Plain People." The question frequently raised by non-Amish is whether the Amish are truly happy. "How," it is asked, "can a group in 1969 be content with their life when they are still living in the eighteenth century?" The Amish are often viewed as being socially, educationally, and culturally disadvantaged.

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[28] Pearsall, Marion, *Little Smokey Ridge*, University of Alabama, 1959.

[29] Pearsall, *op. cit.*, pp. 169-170.

Yet, economically, they are well off. They have good sized land holdings, which, through their own efforts, they have developed into some of the country's most fertile acreage. There is nothing remotely resembling a millionaire among the Amish, but at the same time, there is no poverty among them. Apparently, none of their members have ever been on public relief nor have they accepted any other type of state aid, including any form of Social Security. In fact, adherence to such practice would violate their religious beliefs.

There is a good deal of evidence to suggest that the Amish maintain what is perhaps the strongest and the most stable family system in America. The birthrate is unusually high. Illegitimacy is unheard of, as is adultry. Desertions are rare, and no divorces have ever been reported.

They probably have more reason to be happy than most other groups in the sense that their areas of tension are not nearly so great. They are not concerned with "conspicuous" consumption or "competing." Most of the so-called social problems facing the general American scene are unknown among the Amish. There is no alcoholism. Crime and delinquency are rare indeed. Still, they are pitied by non-Amish and called disadvantaged.

THE MEANING OF CULTURE

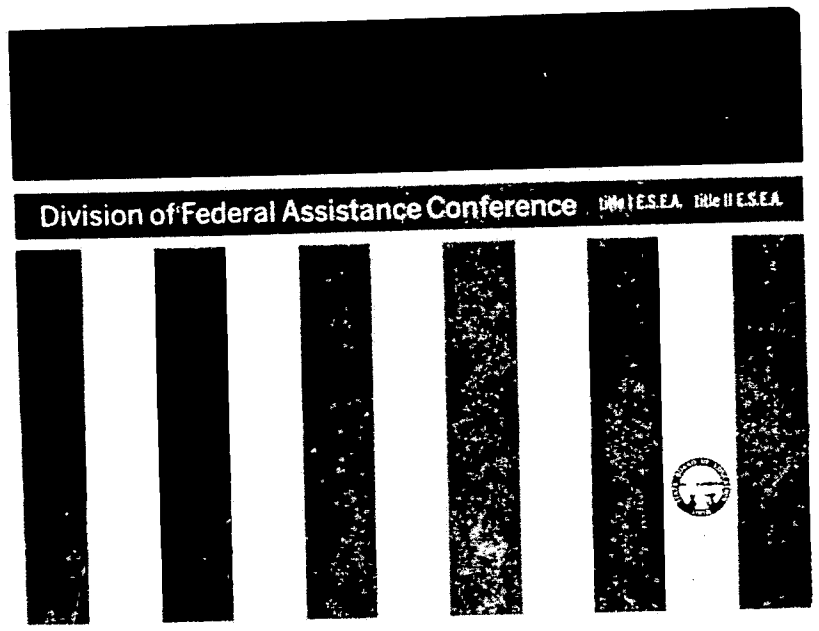
Culture has been envisioned as the means devised by a group to meet its needs. These needs and the means of meeting them become values for that group and tend to be regarded as the natural and even the right way to do things.

It is the culture which molds child-rearing practices, family roles, patterns of communication, and trust, or mistrust, of the dominant society. It is the culture which gives the individual a feeling of identity, a sense of being a person in his own right. The culture is only strange to those from another culture.

Some of the cultures presently represented in the rural population of this country create conflict for their members because their values are so different from the values found in the dominant society. An individual from such a culture feels caught between two ways of life, guilty, torn, and confused as to "who am I?" This is the picture of many of the rural youth of today.

The cultures of the rural disadvantaged are varied. The people speak with many languages, both verbal and nonverbal. Their skin color is white and non-white. They are infants; they are aged; they are middle-aged. They are physically strong; they are sick. They have worked all of their lives; they have never been employed. They are fairly well educated; they are illiterate. They have traveled from one corner of the nation to another; they have never been out of the county in which they were born. They are disadvantaged in different ways; culturally, educationally, socially, physically, spiritually, or emotionally with varying degrees – but the subculture they know in common is that of poverty. This is a poverty that is more prevalent than that found in the cities. It is a poverty that affects more individuals and yet may be more difficult to detect because it is hidden away in the tiny coves or along the ridges of the mountains, at the end of a country lane, among a cluster of Negro cabins, in the back north woods or inside the boundaries of Indian reservations.

These are the disadvantaged citizens of rural America today. They see themselves on the small end of the horn-of-plenty and they feel a sense of helplessness. They wonder if a move to the city would be the answer, but they suspect it would not, and they are afraid. They see an affluent, dominant society passing them by as they sit waiting and hoping for a better day. They see a continued focus on the problems of the city and they wonder if they are always to be the forgotten ones.



RAYMOND A. HORN

Director
Division of Federal Assistance
Ohio Department of Education

Issues and Trends

Raymond A. Horn

As one prepares to address a group such as this – it is always difficult to produce a framework to include all of the ideas and thoughts, the proven theories and successful practices, the fantasies and dreams and the reality of facts into a meaningful symphony of words. One struggles with words and phrases. We might even take a walk in the night air to clear away some of the cobwebs – but, in the end we are grappling with some rather simple, yet basic, questions.

Who are we? Where are we? What are we trying to do? Why do we exist in education? Do we really understand our position?

Eventually I found myself wrestling with these questions for today. In this process I remembered something written by Sir Richard Livingston:

"The river is always flowing,
O'er most of its reaches the flow is so slow and peaceful
That the direction of the current can hardly Be determined,
May even be mistaken.
But at times the stream does fall rapidly
And it hurries in turmoil in broken water,
As with rivers so with individuals.
So, too, with the State.
It is always changing,
For the most part imperceptively,
But there comes a time when the nature of the pace of
Change is such that no one can mistake it."

I would suggest to you this morning that the present is just such a time. It seems to me that we are caught up in a maelstrom of change. Problems are more severe and more complex. As a matter of fact, there are days when just staying alive is very complicated. At times, we become so entangled in the revolution taking place in education, it is difficult to stand back far enough to envisage all of the changes, let alone to deal with them intelligently.

If it were possible to find a quiet moment and a perch high on a mountain top above the roar of today's problems, we might find two areas of concern. First is an ancient African proverb that says, "If a man does away with his traditional way of living and throws away his good customs, he had better make certain that he has something of value to replace them." This can slow us down a little in a time when change for change sake seems to be the thing to do. Secondly, we must recognize that whatever the future holds for the children of tomorrow will depend on what we actually do today. The problems faced by the children in this or any other generation of our history are basically those problems imposed upon them by the society, the culture and the heritage handed to them by the previous generations.

On April 11, 1965, the United States Congress gave birth to the historic legislation called the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. The purpose of this Act was to strengthen and improve educational opportunities in the nation's elementary and secondary schools. President Johnson at that time defined the four major goals of this legislation as:

1. To bring better education to the millions of disadvantaged youth who need it most.
2. To put the best education equipment, materials and ideas within the reach of all children and teachers.
3. To advance the technology of teaching.
4. To provide incentive for those who wish to learn at every stage along the road to learning.

These programs are now in their fourth year of existence and represent an investment of 143 million dollars for programs under Title I and 18¼ million dollars for the acquisition of instructional materials under Title II.

The development, organization and management of these programs have been hectic, or perhaps hysterical to some. However, the pro-

grams in general have settled down and are operating at a reasonable pace today.

The first year was high level frustration. The late appropriation brought about a frantic rush to install hardware, issue purchase orders prior to the deadline and provided a broad scale summer program. This was followed by a rush to hire personnel and to find room for all the newly acquired materials. Programs were hell-bent on the immediate remediation of all the educational problems we had taken generations to create. Librarians were having a glorious time weeding out all the volumes printed prior to 1940.

We have been plagued by studies and reports in recent months all pointing to our failures. However, these studies for the most part have been ill-conceived, loosely reported and reported out of context. Last fall there was a banner headline in the *Akron Beacon Journal* that shouted "Title I Is Not A Failure Here" and a recent letter from a teacher stating that for the first time in over twenty-five years of teaching, her children had access to quality instructional materials – speak more eloquently than computers and researchers who do not understand the problems nor the children you are serving.

As we observe the present status of Titles I and II in Ohio, the trends and the issues are fairly clear –

TITLE I STATUS AND TRENDS

1. The programs are more systematic and selective and are moving to a comprehensive approach.
2. Programs are being concentrated in fewer buildings and on fewer children.
3. We have shifted from hardware and materials to personnel. Last year more than 86% of the total expenditures was related to salaries. This current year personnel will represent more than 90% of the costs. Last year there were 22,230 full time and part-time personnel employed in Title I programs.
4. The programs are moving from a remedial to a preventive approach. There has been a substantial increase in programs for children below the age of 8. 75% of all children participating in the program are in the elementary grades.
5. There has been a steady increase in the inservice training program. Last school year 10,000 professional and 5,000 non-professional staff received some type of inservice training.
6. Parents are being involved in ever growing numbers. In 1968, 192,000 parents were involved in Title I programs.
7. The program evidences more careful planning and an increasing involvement of teachers in this planning.
8. The schools report substantial improvement in attitude, school-community relationships and motivation.
9. Marked progress is also reported in academic achievement. 66% of the children enrolled in communication skills programs demonstrated 1.1 month gain for every month in the program while 34% of these pupils showed a gain of 1.5 months or higher for each month enrolled.

TITLE II STATUS AND TRENDS

The acquisition program presents an interesting pattern:

150,000	film strips
100,000	recordings
37,000	periodical subscriptions
27,000	maps, charts and globes
12,000	films
3,200,000	library volumes

The library acquisition represents 600 volumes for every tax and non-tax supported building in the state.

Other points of interest:

1. The 54 Special Purpose Grants show great promise as models for other school districts to observe.
2. There has been a reduction in the number of high schools being reported as deficient in the library area.
3. More than 300 new elementary libraries have been established. School administrators report this growth as a result of Title II materials.
4. There has been an increase in the number of library personnel including librarians and supervisors.
5. Reports from school districts indicate substantial gains in organizing and processing materials and in the selection of quality material.

The issues in these programs have become apparent in this past year.

TITLE I ISSUES

1. Funding has not been adequate to do the task outlined in the legislation. In our eight major cities there are 326 eligible buildings, but only 135 are receiving concentrated services.
2. It is increasingly evident that summer projects have little or no effect unless they are a part of a year round program and in effect become an extension of the basic program provided throughout the year. A change in policy may be forthcoming to eliminate summer projects that are not extensions of the year-long programs. In this respect all districts allocated more than $10,000 will be required to conduct a school year program.
3. The use of parent advisory committees has been an issue. This may be resolved with a change in the legislation now pending in Congress that will require such advisory committees as a part of the approval process.
4. There is increasing evidence that successful programs are those where there is a highly concentrated effort on a small number of children. Ohio is recognized as providing a rather high degree of concentrated efforts. However, with limited funds it may be necessary to give further consideration to reducing the number of children served and increasing the program services to the selected children.

Nothing could have been further from the truth, just as I stated a couple of moments ago.

I happened to serve with the President twenty years ago on Federal Aid to Education — I mean, on the Committee on Education and Labor. Jack Kennedy was on that committee at the time. In 1949 and 1950, we had a sharp fight in the Congress, the first term that I was in the Congress. Though we lost the general federal aid bill by a vote of thirteen to twelve, after the Senate had passed the measure seventy-six to sixteen. All we lacked at that time was getting it out of our committee. Both President Nixon and the late President Kennedy voted against federal aid at that time because we had some sharp issues in it, the church-state issue, and the integration problems. It wasn't the reason, I presume, but both of them came later to support it.

I am one of the few members in the Congress who was on that committee and I remember all these days, but to say that we would preclude the President anytime — and I told Secretary Finch that anytime he comes up with a proposition, he is going to be heard. Naturally, I am going to do everything possible to protect the bill and we are going to protect the bill, but if it has constructive amendments, we will give them a fair hearing, evaluate them, and if we feel they are deserving, we will put them into effect; but at the same time, the educators of America need this continuity from this program. We didn't get the five years. We got three. We may get three in conference, but, be that as it may, let's make the maximum use of Title I.

I think, personally, it is the greatest educational legislation that we have ever enacted in the Congress. I think time will prove that. We have some studies made that, in my judgment, do not go to the real evaluation of the entire program. It is piecemeal on some academic study like remedial reading and stuff. They forget this is a child-development program all the way around, but we have got our work cut out to make this program work just as it should.

I want to compliment you in the last year, you got greater value from the money spent than you did the year before, and you are going to still get greater results obtained from the money spent in the next year than you did in the last year.

In connection with the other titles to the bill, I have always thought that your library Title worked wonders, worked wonderfully well. You have added on eighty-five or ninety-five thousand additions to libraries in this country. Many of them do not have any books at all, filmstrips, projectors, and we were getting that title off the ground in good shape. They came along with the committee amendment — we knocked it out in committee, but the House went along with it. We have a lot of problems where funds have been withheld in the Southern states because of integration. I certainly can understand why some of the members from the South are sore and wrought up about this situation. They felt that if the states could administer this plan that it would, to some degree, lessen this problem that they are confronted with, but here again we threw some programs together with no assurance that Title III of ESEA, the innovative programs that we started — no assurance that they will not go down the drain.

There are no funds in the Nixon budget for Title II (the library and other instructional material), not one thing. There are no funds in Title III. The equipment title has done so much — laboratory equipment in the schools of Ohio is on a matching basis. This has worked wonderfully well since we enacted the National Defense Education Act in 1959.

There were no funds in the budget for the Guidance and Testing, Title V-A, NDEA.

They said they had four similar programs. I didn't think they were similar at all. The only one with funds at all was Title III, ESEA, the innovative title. They grouped them all together and said that we were going to simplify this matter at the state level. Let the states submit one plan and guarantee to libraries and equipment fifty percent as much as they received in the fiscal year 1969.

It would appear to me that an amendment that has been so hurriedly drafted and has so many loopholes in it — and at the state level you decided to set up all these different programs, and I know you do have them in the state of Ohio. It is not going to lessen your paperwork. It is going to multiply your paperwork. You are going to have to have separate plans from every local educational agency in the country, and it will be so cumbersome that it will not work the way it was drawn.

After we come back from conference, I predict that the educators in this country, north, south, east, and west, will prevail and we will come back with a bill that will be ratified by the House. That will leave these titles pretty much intact.

We have got to make a fight up there this year. We have got to make a fight for an increased appropriation. Title I, yes; Title II, yes; and the other titles must be fought for. Once and for all, this idea that we are trying to lock some President out, to not let him submit his views, nothing could be further from the truth. That is just the terminology that the enemies of this program want to use and this is going to be your fight if we do something for the disadvantaged child to the extent that will really put some money in the local educational agencies, where we should have put it twenty-five years ago.

We are holding hearings in connection with the poverty program now. These youngsters in the Job Corps — there is opposition to that. They say, "What amount of money has been spent? forty-five or fifty-five hundred or eight thousand average is too high." They are going to experiment and see if they can do it cheaper. They recommend that we close the Job Corps councils down. The best money we can spend now is in early childhood education, and that is the reason we are missing the boat in Washington. We should fully fund Title I as the Congress intended. I was over to a dedication of the new vocational school today in my own congressional district in Ashland, Kentucky, after I flew out of Washington this morning. The

building is outmoded before it started to operate. It is outmoded. It is a beautiful structure, cost about a million, five hundred thousand dollars. It is well equipped, but they have more than a thousand applications pending and they are not going to be able to take care next year of more than ten percent of the high school applicants in the area that want technical training and will not go to college. There we can train those youngsters for some three hundred or four hundred dollars a year.

In the Johnson budget – I am not getting political – there was only two hundred eighty-five million dollars. We have the same amount in the Nixon budget. What actually happened, in the Johnson administration, they were trying to cut everything to the bone before he went out. As great as he believed in education in this country – and no one has done more – the budget people downtown just would not put any funds there except the two hundred eighty-five million, after we completely rewrote the Vocational Education Act of last year. I hope that we can do something about that on the floor of the House, and I think we can, but I don't know many programs that we have in the conference that take preference or priority over some of these programs that I am talking to you people about tonight.

I think they are completely under-funded, and I think we might as well let our friends in the Congress know they are completely under-funded and begin to try to do something about it.

It is not going to be an easy job. It is not going to be an easy job to keep Title I from being subjected to tremendous criticism two years from now, but if you people who are involved in it will begin to sell to the local communities and to the Congress the good work flowing from this program, it will become established just as did the Impacted Program. There is no comparison in importance between Title I and the Impacted Program. Both of them are great programs, and I have helped write the Impacted Program back in 1949 and 1950, the 81st Congress, the first term I was in the Congress, but I say to you again, there is no comparison as to the priority from the standpoint of the most important program. For the Impacted Program, you don't have any worry in the Congress. You just try to fool around with that, and you will almost get kicked off the floor, because the Senate is so strong. By and large, the Impacted Program helps the middle-class people and the upper-class people in the country, the higher salaried people around the military installations and the defense installations are helped, and I have supported it all the way. I am perhaps guilty, perhaps more so than anyone else, for writing these liberal provisions in this legislation. I am trying to point out a more important program.

You can go on the floor of Congress and obtain ten billion dollars for Impact, where you would struggle for your life to get a billion dollars for the disadvantaged youngsters and the children from families with low income. You get those in the poor rural areas, so I think I might as well just be blunt about this thing and tell you that there is a lot of work yet to be done to make sure and insure that you have the most important educational program on the books in Washington, that we should get in shape to fully protect that program.

I stated at the outset, and I intend to introduce the general Federal Aid to Education Bill, but I think we all understand that we should not do anything to support any program at the expense of the first program that deserves the first priority. All through the hearings, yes, I stated I was for the general Federal Aid to Education, but not at the expense of the disadvantaged child. What we really need is a massive education program, and that would do more to cure many of these ills, especially the drop-out program in either general federal aid program, but we need it on top of our Elementary-Secondary Education Title I, not as a substitute for it, not to take the place of it, not at the expense of it, but on top of it. We need both of these programs, but the first order of priority is to fully fund Title I.

We also have to do something about school construction in this country at the elementary-secondary level. We have got to do something from the federal level. I don't just know how difficult our task will be, but, my good friends, I think we might as well begin to let all of our friends know that we intend to carry on our good work and keep the faith in bringing better educational legislation from the statehouse and from Washington to our local educators.

I predict after this conference – we have a lot of people talking up there, but they remind me of the city boy – of course, I am a country boy – who desired employment. He went to an old farmer and told him he wanted to be employed, needed some work. The farmer asked him what he could do. He told him that he didn't know, but he hadn't worked on a farm.

The farmer asked him if he could feed. He didn't know how to feed, but the farmer took him and showed him how to feed. He took him the second day. The third day he went on his own. He wasn't gone but a few minutes when he came back and the farmer asked him how he got along. He said, "All right."

The farmer said, "What did you feed the horses?"

"Fed them hay."

"What did you feed the cattle?"

"Fed them hay."

"What did you feed the sheep?"

"Fed them hay."

"What did you feed the pigs?"

"Fed them hay."

"What did you feed the geese?"

"Fed them hay."

"What did you feed the ducks?"

"Fed them hay."

The farmer said, "Did they eat it?"

The city boy said, "I left them talking about it."

That is just the way that you have got to do your enemies of these federal aid to education

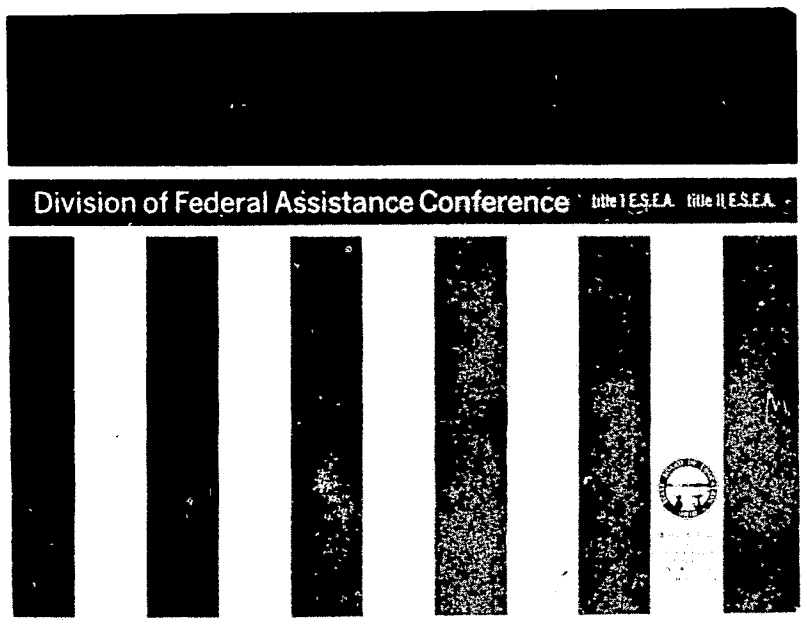
measures in Washington. We have got to a lot of educational work. Let them come up with false pretenses. We have to wait for a new administration, and we are trying to do something for the administration. We are not doing those things. We will work with any administration to get these programs improved.

I am so happy that we have been successful. In conclusion, let me state, in defending these programs, whether it is a two-year program or not, I think we will be successful. We won ninety-five percent of our battle when we won Title I and kept it intact. If we had got Title I frozen, it would have been a tremendous setback for us and then there would have been some rows about the effectiveness of the program in the future because you would not have been able to carry on your present ongoing programs because of the increased cost of education in general. You are not going to be able to do it under the present funding, so I think it will behoove us all to set our sights on the goal that we are going to see that Title I is fully funded.

We have made a lot of progress, but we have a long way to go. We can't close our eyes to the progress we are making because there are so many people today that are torn up about one thing and another that we could lose some of this progress if we all failed to keep our eyes on the goal.

It is a great pleasure for me to be here. I have talked too long. I certainly will make plans to come back and see you again sometime in the future and speak to you again. Doctor Essex and others have come before the committee in Washington in the past, and I will see more of them in the future. I don't know how we are going to come out of this battle, so-called, for Title I, Economic Opportunity Act, what is going to happen to Headstart and Job Corps. I know what the poor people want, but I am not so sure that I know what the Congress wants. These problems are all ahead of us in Washington, but we are going to do the best job we can.

I thank you very much.



JOHN F. HUGHES

Director
Division of Compensatory Education
U. S. Office of Education

The National Scene

John F. Hughes

This is circuit-riding time for some of us old Chautauqua speakers. Come spring, and we hit the trail going from one major conference to another.

Almost every State, it now appears, has an educational games day, and this year the game is in the key of C – communications, community involvement and concentration of services.

If educators and school administrators do not make a real effort in these areas, they will be faced with a fourth C – confrontation. The community, the children, their parents and citizens groups will be playing the tune instead of being partners in a common venture.

Communication is not just talking, it's listening – *really listening* to what is being said. It's not just talking and listening, but *understanding* and *knowing how to translate it all into action.*

Judging from comments and complaints from around the country, school officials have been acting slowly on community involvement at the local school district level and maybe this is good.

But they have seen the consequences of inaction in New York City, and they have heard the demands of many, not for involvement, but for control of the school systems. Only now are the local school districts moving on this critical matter of making the community a real partner in the education decision-making process.

What, you may ask, then, can we do to improve community involvement in Title I? First of all, there must be a better informed local citizenry. In the urban areas with sizable concentrations of minorities, we should make a substantial effort to keep them informed through a massive public information program.

We should not only inform the general public, but we should inform such groups as local teacher associations, principal associations, school board associations, Urban League, NAACP, etc., about the intent of the law, about local allocations, and about successful projects in school districts of comparable size.

Part of the reason some Title I projects have been ineffective is that only the person designing the project, or maybe only the local school superintendent, has had access to the information necessary to challenge what is being done.

We need, somehow or other, to recognize the problems that grow out of too few persons from poverty areas being involved in the planning and implementation of Title I projects. We said something about this in a memorandum to State Title I Coordinators last summer. We re-emphasized its importance in our conferences last December in Silver Springs, Maryland, on "Improving the Education of Disadvantaged Children." And we will keep on mentioning it until the job is done, and the practice of including the community in the education decision-making process is commonplace.

This is not just a matter of race or equal employment opportunity – although these things are involved; rather it is more a matter of feeling with the people and understanding their needs.

We have said involve the community. This is more than people, you know, and trust. Sometimes the community is harsh and hostile but if they will be heard they will work with you.

In many areas this is already happening because of Title I.

Because many classroom teachers are getting trained aides to assist them, trained counselors to help them diagnose a child's educational needs; because Title I helps to feed hungry children so they will be in a condition to learn; because Title I will give a child a pair of shoes so he can come to school with dignity like "the other children" or eyeglasses so he can see the chalkboard and read more easily, parents from impoverished communities are beginning to take a more sympathetic interest in schools.

The process is slow but we must continue to hammer away, not only to reach every school

principal and teacher but to reach every member of every community.

We can turn hostile groups into willing allies and get unwilling taxpayers to approve bond issues by getting them involved. Of course, we realize this is no simple task.

This year, as you may already know, we have asked Title I coordinators in State Departments of Education to approve only those Title I projects that detail a planned activity for community involvement — not just through a PTA group, although that is necessary too — but through the *whole* community.

Since the Elementary and Secondary Education Act was signed into law on April 11, 1965, about a total of $4.4 billion has been spent to provide greater educational opportunities for some nine million children.

As you can tell, this has not bought the educational revolution which some people seemed to have expected. But it has made schoolmen aware of the problems of educating disadvantaged children from poor communities. And it has tried to identify some successful practices in teaching those children.

But this field of exploration is new, and the newness is multiplied by the thousands of communities which must work out their best solutions.

At present there is some agreement on the types of needs that must be met — careful diagnoses of a child's educational and physical needs, concentrated compensatory education focused on basic skills, such as reading and arithmetic, attention to a pupil's sense of personal worth, racial integration, year-round schools, and pre-kindergarten classes.

There is recognition that schools must assume responsibility to overcome disrupting outside influences — to fill the vacuum in a child's life caused by social and cultural isolation; to replace cultural influences which hamper a child's development in our society's mainstream, and to instill pride and identity by recognizing and teaching him the values of his background.

There is agreement that home and community environments should not combat learning, and that schools must interest parents in the education of their children.

But to state the needs is only to raise the problems. There are no firm solutions. But some past experiences are showing us some new paths.

There is a concept in physics called "critical mass." In educational terms it indicates that any amount of resources short of the "critical mass" will fail to produce measurable change in pupil achievement.

This suggests that we concentrate all those human and material resources needed to produce major improvement in pupil achievement.

Charles Benson of the University of California has cited small class size, a pupil-teacher ratio of five to one or less, extensive diagnostic services to identify learning problems, and many types of instructional aids to learning as factors associated with successful Title I programs. We in the Office of Education may not venture that far.

But we do know that when services to disadvantaged children are spread thin, the achievement rate of those children does not progress as well as it should. This was borne out in projects in New York City, Philadelphia, St. Louis and San Francisco. And we see it in the State evaluation reports from one year to the next.

And so, we are urging school systems serving Title I children — educationally disadvantaged children from poor communities — to concentrate their funds and their efforts on the most seriously deprived.

Along these lines, I want to take the time to congratulate the Columbus, Ohio, school system and its courageous superintendent, Harold Eibling, for being one of the first large city school districts in the Nation to concentrate its Title I efforts on its most seriously deprived children. And while I am on the subject, Columbus should also be congratulated for its outstanding Title I preschool program.

Ohio, as a whole, has been very progressive in its aproaches to innovation and educational change under Title I.

I'm talking about the outdoor classes and laboratories in Tiffin and Springfield.

I'm talking about your historic State Act to help disadvantaged children.

I'm talking about some of the marvelous Title I programs operating in Cleveland under my good friend, Superintendent Paul Briggs — those programs providing food and health services to little children who were too hungry to learn before; programs providing reading specialists and individualized instruction and counselling to children who could not get this help before.

California, too, has set plans in motion for the 1969-70 fiscal year to concentrate its Title I services on the most seriously deprived children in the lower elementary grades. Wilson Riles, California's director of compensatory education, tells us that he had mapped out his program of concentration after a thorough analysis of his Title I evaluation reports.

Evaluation of Educational progress on the local, state, and federal levels is probably the major innovation of Title I.

And evaluation is probably one of the most controversial areas of the program.

Because evaluation is, strangely, so new to education, we are constantly searching for new methods and approaches to assess our programs. Before Title I there was no real assessment of school programs.

Evidence tells us that to find out if a Title I project has been sufficiently effective in improving the education of disadvantaged children and is thus worthy of the expense, the evaluation must be systematic and, above all, tied directly to the program objectives, from the very inception of the program.

The effectiveness of Title I as a program cannot be measured by combining the results of individually evaluated projects, no matter how

validly such evaluation is conducted at the local level.

To assess a program's impact, a representative sample of projects should be studied. These projects should be measured systematically in terms of common behavioral objectives. Their differences and similarities should be carefully documented, and the instruments used for data collection and measurement should be both compatible and properly administered.

Title I evaluation, however, is not amenable to strict experimental conditions. All educationally disadvantaged children are included in design projects. Help for disadvantaged children cannot be withheld for research or experimental reasons. This is prescribed by law.

Add to this the problems of collecting educational data and you can see what we face. There are over fifty million children and two million teachers in public and private schools in the fifty states and outlying areas. More than 18,000 schools systems, of which more than 16,000 participate in Title I programs, operate more than 25,000 high schools from which nearly three million youths graduated in 1967-68.

The sheer size of the number of units, from which information is needed for sound evaluation procedures, makes a big problem for data collection. Add to this the absence of uniform accounting and reporting procedures, as well as variations in terminology, and you get an idea of our problems in the U. S. Office of Education.

We are seeking solutions to these problems and we will be in constant touch with you on this.

So Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act has pioneered many changes now commonplace in American education and many not so commonplace.

The greatest need in American education today is to change, to meet the needs of our ever-changing society, so that what we teach will be more relevant.

Our changing world and attitudes of our young people will not be easily resolved — certainly not by T-squares and T-tests.

There is no reason to believe that all of the approaches and methods being tried today will prevail. But out of the activity, prototypes of success are developing.

The presence of large numbers of disadvantaged children in our schools, the demands of impatient communities, and the requirements of a society which has little need for those who are unskilled or under educated demand that we apply the best that is currently available even as we seek to improve.

TITLE II ISSUES

There would appear to be only one major issue in this program. It can be categorized as "survival". The funds for this fiscal year were cut to about 50% of last year's grant. The present administration, in budget revisions last week, recommended that Title II receive no funds for next fiscal year. Therefore, all other issues become "moot".

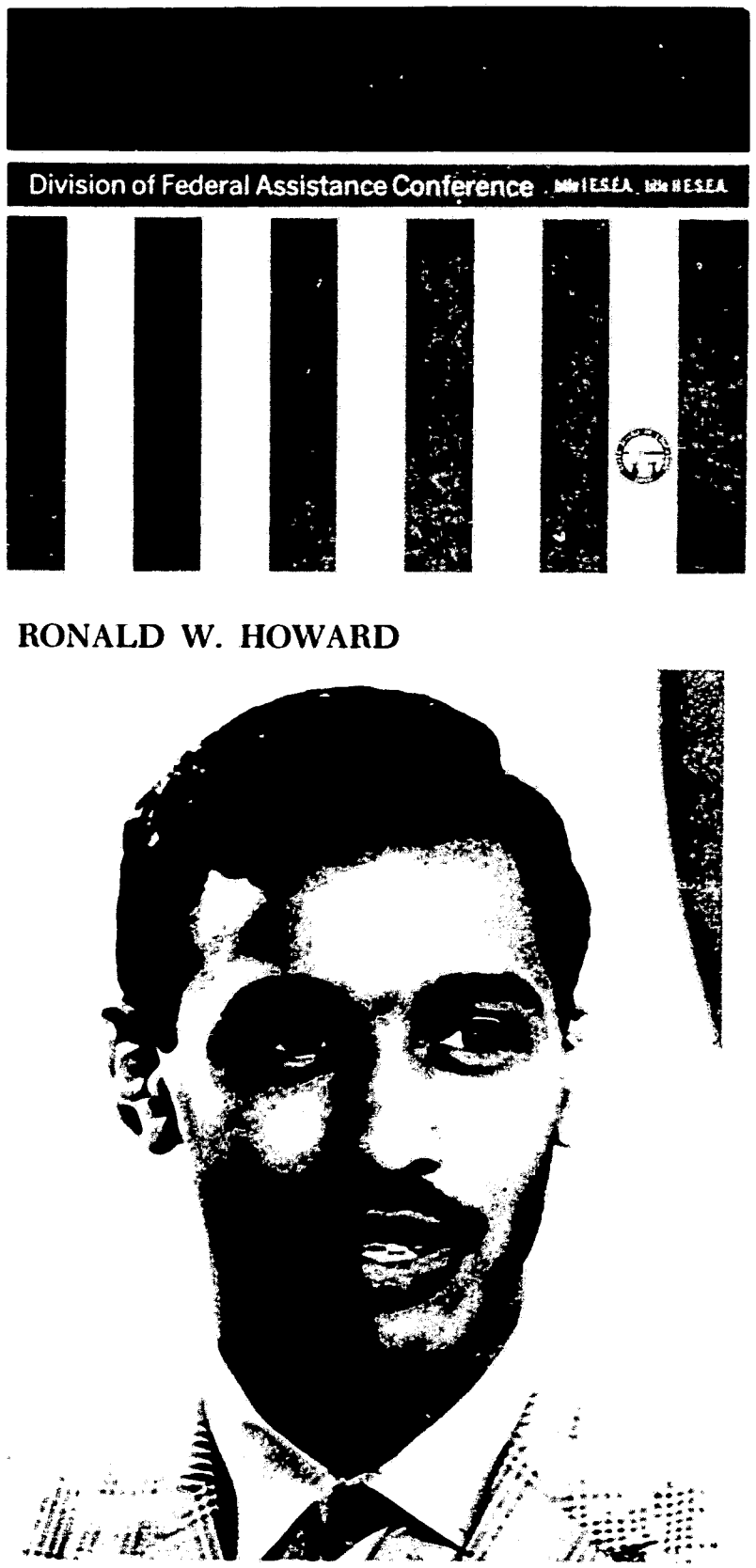
It would be most unfortunate if Title II is deleted at this time and point in our development. The program is just beginning to emerge and has great potential to improve the quality of education in Ohio and the nation.

A final point in this area concerns action. What can we do? In education we have historically done our job and raised few if any questions. However, times do change – and we need to tell our story – even though it may be "the voice in the wilderness." May I suggest you do two things:

1. Let the public and the people in Congress know what you are doing and the fact that it is worthwhile for the children you serve.
2. Let your Congressmen and our Senators know that these funds are well spent and that they should be continued and, if possible, expanded. Let them know that someone cares.

In opening this speech I raised some rather basic questions. Therefore, let me conclude by sharing with you my answers to these questions:

1. *Who are we?* We are members of a leading edge in education.
2. *Where are we?* We are the focal point of a rapidly expanding area in education. While you may wonder at times, it is my judgment that we are in a crucial area to make one of the most substantial contributions to the next generation.
3. *What are we trying to do?* We are not trying to do – we are doing. We are accomplishing what many people are still talking about doing. We are setting a new pattern. If we don't – we will be in great trouble.
4. *Why do we exist in education?* We are filling a vacuum – a gap – that has not been solved by general education. A need exists – and must be resolved. We are providing some of the most vital programs and services in education today.
5. *Do we understand our position?* I would hope so. I doubt if you would be here today unless you do understand your position. Our goals are clear – our sights are high – our horizon is as bright as the gold of the morning sunrise – and as broad as we dare dream, because down deep we must believe that the children we serve will rise just a little higher and shine a little brighter because each day we know what we are doing.



RONALD W. HOWARD

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Designing Programs for the Urban Disadvantaged

Ronald W. Howard

One of the most meaningful challenges confronting those of us who are engaged in the field of educational administration is the problem of designing and implementing programs which are directed toward reaching the urban disadvantaged. It is clear that in the process of implementing educational programs there are certain problems which are going to exist no matter *who* the projected target population may be. But when the intended target group of a specific program is the urban disadvantaged, the problems encountered tend to be considerably compounded.

The cultural values, attitudes, needs and life style of the urban disadvantaged frequently conflict with the middle class orientations which all too frequently form the underpinnings of current educational programs, particularly these which are designed for disadvantaged adults. How we, as administrators, go about bridging this important gap will have a major impact on the potential for program success and effectiveness.

I would therefore like to concentrate on five areas of program operations which directly influence the success of programs geared toward reaching the urban disadvantaged. The five program areas to which I refer are:

1. Recruitment
2. Curriculum Development and Selection
3. Staff Selection
4. The Learning Environment
5. Supportive Counseling

It is my belief that the methods, techniques and insight employed in each of the above mentioned program areas must be designed in accordance with the cultural attitudes and needs of the urban disadvantaged.

A. RECRUITMENT

Let us begin with a closer look at the functional area of recruitment. One of the important indexes for gauging the effectiveness of education programs is the ability to attract and retain student participants. All of the program resources – the teachers, instructional equipment, curriculum materials, educational expertise – are rendered superfluous if classes are empty.

Programs which are aimed at reaching the urban disadvantaged should include a recruitment design which utilizes both direct as well as indirect recruitment approaches. Programs which rely entirely upon indirect recruitment methods (i.e. radio promos, T.V. announcements, newspaper ads, posters, mass mailing, throw-outs, etc.) are likely to experience limited effectiveness in bringing persons from disadvantaged populations into their program. The most effective method of recruiting individuals from low income, disadvantaged neighborhoods is face to face, personalized contact by paid staff members who are themselves selected from the indigenous target population. This suggests the need to include in our program design, specific resources in the form of a paid recruitment staff to handle this most important function. The special skills and talents of the recruiter can be utilized to personally involve the disadvantaged resident who must be made to feel that his participation will be comfortable, friendly and relevant to his needs. No method other than direct confrontation by a recruiter who is perceived as "like us" will successfully involve this target group.

The following additional guidelines should be considered when designing recruitment programs for the urban disadvantaged:

1. *Program Administrators Must Recognize Recruitment As An Essential Priority* – We would not think of designing educational programs which did not include teachers, equipment, curriculum materials, counselors, administrative support, etc. We must begin to include staff recruiters as an essential resource for programs.
2. *Recognize That Recruitment Is Not Public*

Relations – Recruitment is direct activity that gets members of the target group into the classroom. Public Relations develops public interest and acceptance of the educational program, and creates a climate in which direct recruitment can be more effective.

3. *Don't Be Afraid To "Sell" Your Program* – It is surprising how many educators feel that there is something unethical about promoting their program. It is my feeling that the reverse is true: that it is unethical *not* to sell your program. Certainly many of the problems faced in our urban communities stem from the lack of skills held by disadvantaged populations. If strong promotion of educational programs does not occur, how will basic skills be acquired?

4. *Take Into Account The "Limited Sphere Of Identification"* – Many programs have operated under the tacit assumption that people living within a 20-30 block radius feel a common bond and identity. Consequently, it is assumed that programs should be geared for broad areas or "communities" and that they will attract the interest and involvement of all people living within those boundaries.

   My experiences in recruitment have suggested that people in disadvantaged neighborhoods have a severely limited sphere of identification. The boundaries of their identification are frequently limited to a single block. Areas which are often assumed to represent a "community" are not perceived as such by the residents. In short, disadvantaged participants often feel that they are "out of their area" if they are out of their block.

5. *Select Recruiters From Indigenous Population* – Our experiences also suggest that the persons selected for recruitment positions should be drawn from the indigenous target population. The essential requirement in recruitment is an ability to communicate. Recruiters must therefore understand the language, attitudes, mentality and life style of the intended target group. These qualities are best ensured if recruiters are themselves a part of the indigenous community.

B. CURRICULUM SELECTION AND DEVELOPMENT

For some reason there always seems to exist a time lag between the point at which we uncover certain research findings, and the point that we are able to put these findings into operation. The selection and development of curriculum materials for the urban disadvantaged provides an excellent example of this point. Research studies and findings have long convinced us of the need to make curriculum materials relevant to the real life experiences and needs of a given target group. Despite this realization, we are a long way from having realized this objective in the development of curriculum for the urban disadvantaged. Materials which are usually available continue to have, at best, a marginal relevance to the interests and experiences of the urban poor.

This situation points to the need to provide additional attention and resources for the function of curriculum development and selection. Our experiences suggest that disadvantaged residents are vitally interested in current trends in minority advancement; are concerned about getting the most out of scarce dollars; and want to do something about conditions in their communities. Herein lies three sample subject areas which could readily be developed into content material for lesson in reading skills. These subject areas could easily serve as vehicles of basic instruction because of their ability to maintain a high level of interest, involvement and participation. It is my belief that greater numbers of disadvantaged participants can be attracted into educational programs if this type of curriculum revision is undertaken on a concentrated basis.

C. STAFF SELECTION

The success of programs aimed at the urban disadvantaged are obviously influenced directly by the quality of staff selection and screening. The need for genuinely concerned, sensitive and capable staff members is well recognized. Equally accepted is the valuable role of inservice training – both before and after the initiation of program operations.

One relatively new area which might be explored in the process of staff selection is the utilization of paraprofessional staff positions. Many important aspects of program operations may well be improved through the use of subprofessional staff in such categories as recruiters, instructor-aides, counselor-aides and the like. The Manpower Administration of the United States Department of Labor through its Bureau of Work-Training Programs has sponsored a number of important experiments in the field of New Careers which opens an exciting new dimension to the possible design of educational programs.

In addition to assisting disadvantaged populations in helping themselves, the use of subprofessional staff persons can potentially improve and expand the services offered by a given program. It is my belief that serious consideration should be given to the possibility of integrating paraprofessional staff functions into the structure of programs aimed at reaching the urban disadvantaged.

D. THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

The selection of sites and facilities to house programs aimed at reaching the urban disadvantaged is an important consideration. This is especially true when the target group for a program is the disadvantaged adult. The learning environment should be designed to reduce the normal fears, anxiety, embarrassment and reticence which is usually characteristic of this target group.

The Adult Armchair Education (AAE), a Special Project which I direct, is a program designed to involve unreached residents of disadvantaged urban neighborhoods with beginning experiences in adult education. The program's central mission is to establish channels by which

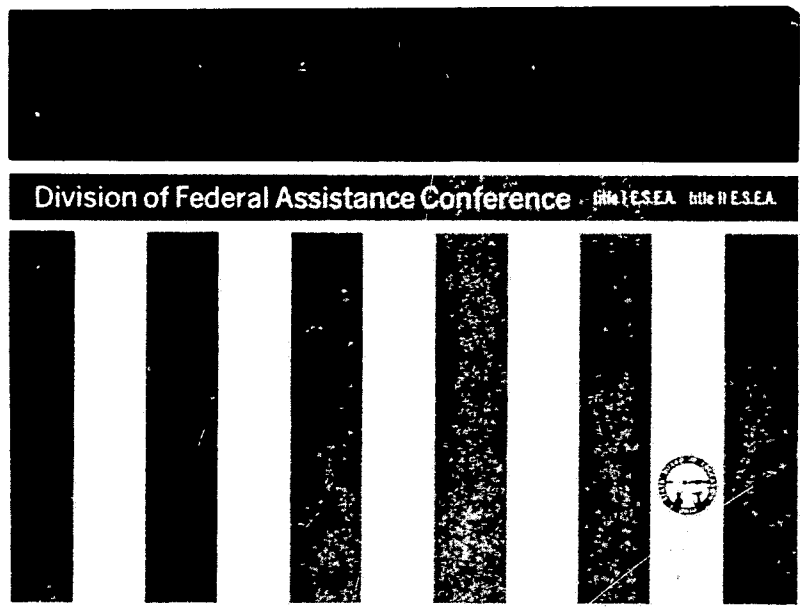
community residents may move into concentrated adult education programs. Meeting once a week in homes volunteered by neighborhood residents, AAE groups are introduced to varied learning experiences designed to link individual aspirations with continued education. AAE groups meet one night a week for 10 weeks after which time students are referred into more concentrated adult education programs such as those offered by the Local Board of Education. This program currently places 87% of all AAE home class participants into more concentrated programs.

It has been our experience that the use of neighborhood homes overcomes the resistance of grass-roots participation because of its *convenience, familiarity* and *informality.* Herein lies three important conditions which greatly enhance the learning environment for disadvantaged adults. Such barriers as formality, distance, unfamiliarity, inconvenience and pressure need to be consciously reduced or eliminated when selecting and designing the learning environment.

E. SUPPORTIVE COUNSELING SERVICES

The final operational area which greatly influences program success is the counseling and guidance function. The range of problems, concerns and needs experienced by disadvantaged trainees necessitates the development of a supportive counseling staff to ensure their continued participation and progress once they have been enrolled into a program.

Counselors can play a major role in dealing with these problems which are directly related to attendance in classes. Even further, supportive counseling is necessary to help those trainees whose personal and family problems will interfere with continuing their education and training. Finally, counseling should be designed to provide appropriate follow-up information which becomes an invaluable managerial tool to measure the strengths and weaknesses of a given program.



Determining Manpower Needs for School Media Programs

Milbrey L. Jones

A few guiding principles to assist in determining manpower needs to operate school media programs are set forth in this paper. They are formulated on the premise that the selection, organization, and use of a variety of educational media are essential to instruction and that the most effective selection, availability, and use of media occur where manpower needs are met. Following is a statement of these principles:

A unified school media program is desirable at state, district, and building levels. Unified school media programs provide instructional and other services related to both printed and audiovisual media administered in a single unified program under one director.[1] The trend toward developing unified programs where a full range of material is organized and made available for use is strongly evident. The current tendency is to include in standards for instructional materials, provisions to facilitate a unified approach to a variety of media and media services.

It is now becoming relatively common to find elementary and secondary school media centers where pupils and teachers turn easily from books to film, from filmstrips to microform, as they make use of all dimensions of art, information, and entertainment. For example, under Title II of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act about 10 million audiovisual items representing an expenditure of $70 million have been loaned to children and teachers through school media centers.

Some schools have in the last few years through local, state, and federal effort been provided with some kinds of materials not previously available such as art prints, educational games, sculpture, 8mm film loops, and tape cassettes. Table 1 shows the number, total cost, and variety of audiovisual items loaned to Ohio pupils and teachers through school media centers under ESEA Title II. The total amount spent over a 3 year period for audiovisual materials as school library resources was $2.3 million to provide nearly a half million audiovisual items for the use of Ohio children and teachers.

The comments of children on these materials are frequently perceptive and revealing. A ninth grade boy who attends a school where an excellent media program supports a schoolwide independent study program said:

> "During the time I've been in this school, my grades have gone up considerably. But more important is my increased knowledge. It would be a waste of time and intelligence to take these materials away from the students. Before, we spent a whole grueling day in a classroom. By the end of the day we were worn out and hating school. Now we learn as much and more in less time. The best thing about this new school is that we are learning more about how to get along in life, as well as book learning."

An important means of providing a comprehensive and coordinated media program at all levels is through state education agencies. Most states now have consultants in school library services and audiovisual services. A number of states have gone beyond the employment of consultants to encourage comprehensive educational media programs at the local level by organizing state media programs and services into one unit. One state, now in its third year of implementation of a coordinated media program, provides professional staff to assist county and city school administrative units in establishing and extending media services in schools and school systems and in utilizing a variety of educational media in school instructional programs.

In July 1958, another state announced the formation of a Division of Instructional Media

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Table 1. Number and Total Cost of Audiovisual Materials Loans to Ohio Elementary and Secondary School Children as School Library Resources Under ESEA, Title II.

Item	Fiscal Years					
1	1966		1967		1968	
	Number	Cost [1]	Number	Cost [1]	Number	Cost [1]
	2	3	4	5	6	7
Motion Pictures	820		4,611		7,743	
Filmstrips	32,000		57,384		59,277	
Recordings	60,000		19,636		21,785	
Slides and Transparencies	102,000		19,733		41,657	
Programmed Instruction Materials	10,100		11,222		4,144	
Maps, Charts, etc.	6,350		11,344		8,970	
Totals	211,270	$1,072,085	123,930	$990,971	143,576	$1,116,906

[1] Only total cost was reported rather than cost of individual items.

to give more coordinated and effective leadership in this area to schools in the state. The new division was formed by combining audiovisual and television instruction, school libraries and instructional materials, and federal programs involving media. California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, North Carolina, Texas, and Washington are among states with unified media organizations in state departments of education.

School districts are increasingly assigning a person the administrative responsibility of directing the School Media program. This increase is evident from the fact that the number of school library supervisors assigned to school district central offices has risen from 540 full-time positions in 1960-61 to over 1,250 in 1968.[2] Directors of system media programs design and develop programs, provide advisory service to all school personnel, prepare budgets and supervise expenditure, determine manpower requirements and participate in selection of media personnel, and direct other important activities.

The system-wide approach offers an excellent opportunity to establish media programs in schools without them, to merge separate library and audiovisual departments, and to improve media services in all schools. Categories of services provided on a school district level usually include:

1. Overall direction of the media program and provision of appropriate consultant services to school personnel;
2. Centralized services to order, catalog, and process materials, leaving school media personnel free to work with pupils and teachers;
3. System media center to provide supporting and supplemental services to school media centers in individual schools.

In most cases, priority in these three services is given to provision of consultative services in order to bring about equalization and coordination of media services in all schools. The establishment of a processing center and a system media center usually follows the appointment of a system media director so that he can provide the direction and coordination needed to make a processing service and a system media center effective.

Professional staff in sufficient number is necessary to an effectively functioning media program. Individual secondary schools, almost universally, and elementary schools in rapidly increasing numbers, have the direction and services of at least one media specialist. School media standards have usually called for personnel in terms of school enrollment, i.e., one media specialist to every 300 or 500 pupils. For example, using a standard of one media specialist for every 1000 pupils and an estimated Ohio public school enrollment of 2.5 million, the state would need 2500 media specialists to staff elementary and secondary schools. But in addition to enrollment, newer thinking with respect to staff is also emphasizing specialization (elementary, middle, junior high, etc.), subject specialization, and media specialization. The latter category provides for personnel who are familiar with specific media such as television, modes of computer assisted instruction, and remote access systems.

Sufficient clerical and technical support is necessary to an effective media program. Supporting staff in school media centers include paid media aides and technicians who make it possible for professional staff to focus their attention on professional services. Media aides do clerical and secretarial work; media technicians provide assistance in graphics production and display, information and materials processing, photographic reproduction, and equipment operation and maintenance. Work of this kind when performed by professional staff is a waste of expensive specialist time and deprives students of the attention and services they deserve.

Media personnel should be educated for the varied aspects of the media program to assure the proper organization and use of the needed for teaching and learning. The transition to unified media programs when separate library and audiovisual departments are merging demands

careful attention to the professional education of media personnel.

Reviews of certification requirements are taking place in many states to identify manpower needs and specialization within the field. Some type of specialization will almost certainly continue; however, all media specialists need to know enough about the entire field so that they will not get in the way of media users. Unless all professional media personnel have a minimum competency in working with all media, pupils and teachers will be continually shuttled from one area of the media center to another and from one person to another as they attempt to use a variety of media to obtain information about a single subject.

Appropriate inservice education, emphasizing areas where assistance is most needed, insures continuing education for practicing school media specialists. Practicing school media specialists possess many skills and competencies needed to manage effective programs. In previous years professional media training has usually been focused on either library or audiovisual services. During the transition to fully unified programs, media specialists now on the job should begin to develop competencies beyond these limitations.

Working in unified media programs will require a variety of competencies. The organization of the media program and qualifications of present personnel will affect the content of inservice programs; however, school librarians need to know more about the new technology as it relates to media. Conversely, audiovisual specialists need to know more about the selection and use of materials in instruction to support their knowledge of hardware. And both school library and audiovisual personnel need to know more about modern developments in educational management and evaluation.

All school media personnel, whatever aspects of media have been emphasized in their formal education, can profit from inservice education. Continuing education for school media personnel could produce such results as:

1. Ability to utilize effectively the talent and competencies of all media personnel
2. Improvement in communication with teachers on using media in instruction
3. Ability to become more effective through the use of machines

Professional school media personnel who can truly involve themselves in the educational process are needed. When media staff are able to suggest to teachers ways they can work with media, a climate favorable to the effective use of materials is created. One media director in a secondary school with an excellent media program has issued to all teachers a publication on the use of media and media services in each subject field.

The following examples give some idea of the suggestions offered. For teachers of business education, the suggestion is given as follows:

> Facility in using manuals of business writing is essential to a business student. The library staff would be happy to give instruction in the use of handbooks that would answer questions of grammar, style, usage, spelling, vocabulary, and form. Worksheets with exercises that train student proficiency in the practical use of these manuals would be useful. The library staff would be happy to assist in the preparation of these exercises.

The suggestion for home economics teachers is:

> One of the best approaches to problems of family life is through guided reading or film viewing in which situations akin to those of the student are, in fictional form, met and analyzed. Among these problems are financial, clothing, social relationships and pressing questions of sex, marriage, and divorce as they affect young people. In these areas, books and film serve as silent monitors, not to be sidetracked by preaching or moralizing; they are frequently more effective than text or lecture. Classes could be brought to the media center to hear book talks by the media staff about realistic modern tales of family life. Students could view films, browse, select, and discuss.

A recent article by Dr. John Goodlad cites some frequently discussed and recommended modern educational practices which might be expected to be implemented in elementary and secondary schools.[3] One expectation was that classrooms would be characterized by a wide variety of learning materials, records, tapes, models, programmed materials, filmstrips, pamphlets, and television and not be dominated by a single textbook. The author's survey of schools did not generally find this to be true. In most of the schools visited the textbook was still the most highly visible instrument of learning and teaching.

Survey of school media holdings indicate that most schools have inadequate supplies of books, film, filmstrips, and other aids to learning. But in spite of the fact that many schools do not have sufficient collections of materials, we have in many schools more materials than we are actually using. Implementing educational goals through the use of media is the major job of media personnel and major attention should be devoted to it.

> "Media specialists, assisted by technicians and aides, make unique and vital contributions to the total educational program of the school. Staff in sufficient number and with a variety of competencies is an indispensable part of a functional media center. Personnel qualified to implement the many diverse services are essential for the selection, organization, and effective use of a wide spectrum of educational media."[4]

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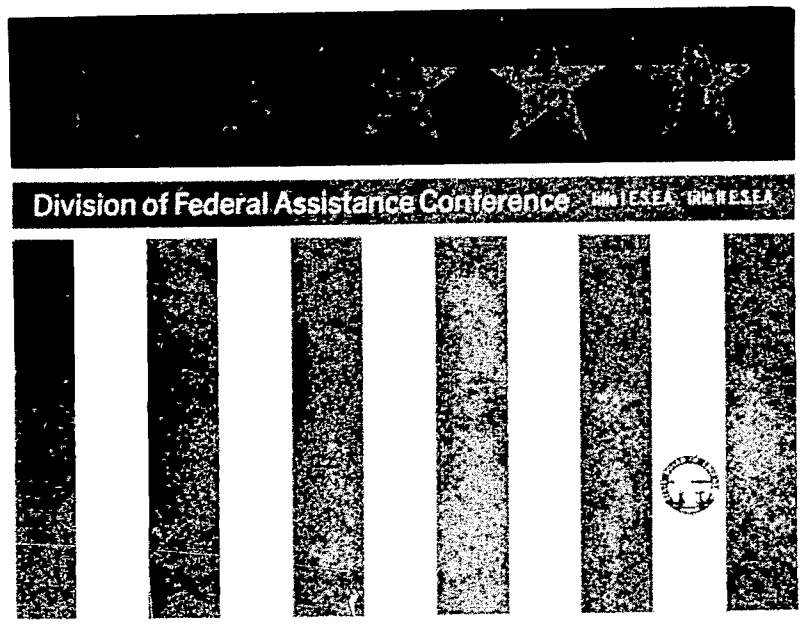
2 Mary Helen Mahar, Statistics of Public School Libraries, 1960-1: Part II Analysis and Interpretation. Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. p. 11.

3 Goodlad, John I. "The Schools vs. Education" *Saturday Review* 52: 59-61, 80-82 April 19, 1969.

4 American Association of School Librarians and the Department of Audiovisual Instruction of the National Education Association. *op. cit.* p. 7



Media, Environment, and People

Ira J. Singer

Education is the sum total of one's inner and outer environments. The inner environment of the ghetto child is hunger, minimal clothing, little to read, occasional love and pervasive despair and hopelessness. The outer environment is the street, the school, the park and the media. For the most part, the environments are extensions of one another. The street should offer room, free air and escape – instead it offers the temptations of crime and the excitement of violence. The school should offer learning, opportunity and scholarship. Instead, it offers maintenance, accommodation, and discipline. The gang should offer love and friendship. Instead it offers fierce competition and a ruthless dedication to survival at any price.

The equalizer of the environments is the media. It sells the same hopes and dreams in the streets as it does in the tenements. The newspapers, radios, phonographs, and TV sets of the inner environment become the billboards, news stands, signs, lights, and sounds of the outer environment. There is no escape from the enticements of middle class white America. The media is the ghetto's past, mirror, and future. It reminds the aged of their welfare rights, tells the youth of diminishing chances for employment, and promotes middle class luxuries and leisure pursuits unattainable by the ghetto tenant.

The media is the carrier. In its conventional print and audio-video forms, the media has been commerce's pitchman to America. The price of "education" (newscasts, public service programs, news columns, etc.) has been the commercial, the advertisement, the inane substance of most television fare programmed by the networks for corporate profits. As a result, this "way" of education has been shut out of the classroom. Except in its most conventional forms, media remains the gadfly of the streets, the dream merchant of the tenement – everything but the carrier of knowledge in the "temple of knowledge" – the American school house.

PROGRAMMED LEARNING

The generally unimaginative use of programmed materials in ghetto schools is a waste of a potentially useful instructional tool. Incorporating specific skill and/or conceptual objectives, a program contains a body of material presented to the learner in sequentially arranged frames of information. Proceeding through the program, the student is confronted with increasingly sophisticated material until he has completed the program and thereby achieved the objectives formulated by the programmer. Whether in textual or machine form, the program has infinite patience. It has no preconceived notions about a student's lack of desire or interest. It does not discriminate by color, weight, appearance or attitude. It removes a certain amount of human contact which, for some ghetto students, is continually frustrating and abrasive. Mistakes are not penalized by score or sarcasm. Successes are marked by positive reinforcement of "correct" student response. Depending upon the building schedule, students may proceed through programs at their own speed, rather than the speed of the group.

In order to truly realize the potential of this technique, programs must be developed in areas of immediate interest to ghetto students. Programmed learning materials are needed in such areas as: applying for student loans and scholarships, seeking summer employment, orchestrating a musical composition, legal rights upon arrest, writing a short story, riding the subway system, or techniques of contraception. Ghetto students receive little teacher generated instruction in these areas. Yet, all are essential and can be prepackaged and programmed for student consumption in a variety of print or multimedia formats.

PURPOSES AND USES OF REMOTE ACCESS SYSTEMS

The need to retrieve information "at will and at once" grows more pressing with each passing

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day. Although computers have been effective in solving vexing storage problems, relatively little companion technology has been developed for high-speed selection and retrieval of information in familiar audio and video modes. Students learning job skills at school, expectant mothers in the ghetto administering self-care during prenatal periods of pregnancy, teachers observing student (and teacher) behavior in a variety of teaching-learning situations, citizens requiring transportation directions to a nearby hospital – all are seekers of selected information at specific times for specific purposes. Relatively few packages of such information exist to satisfy these needs, but even where they do, they are not readily available to potential users on a demand basis. The major purpose of a dial access information retrieval system, then, is to enable learners at remote locations to dial and receive instantaneous access to a wide range of selected audio and video materials.

Remote access information retrieval networks can be installed to run from central information banks to schools, homes, building lobbies, barbershops, bus terminals, bars, laundromats, shops and telephone booths. Receiving stations would incorporate 9″ monitors, headsets, volume and other manual controls, and separate intercom connections. Systems in West Hartford, Connecticut; Mt. Kisco and Burnt Hills, New York; Beverly Hills, California; and Oral Roberts University in Oklahoma have proven the feasibility of relaying video and audio information from point to point immediately upon student request. In West Hartford, the expansion of a single building to a multi-building system has resulted in the design of a low cost, telephone company installed electronic network interconnecting nine buildings requiring 12 miles of video cable. Since eight video and 40 audio programs are currently transmitted, new cables have been developed to carry the increased video capacity. Drastically reduced rates were established specifically for the dial access network by the Southern New England Telephone Company. The present plan is to tie a central information bank located in suburban West Hartford Hall High School to urban Hartford High School. In this way, urban and suburban students may share electronically a variety of curriculum materials in video and audio tape, film, slide and/or film strip form.

MULTI-MEDIA TECHNIQUES

Simulating the future for the ghetto student while he is in school can show him not only the way it is, but also the way it can be. Multimedia techniques now make it possible to design instructional experiences to be lived vicariously by students learning in carefully controlled environments. For example, a student may enter a room in complete privacy, turn on a switch and simulate a job interview. Surrounded by rear-projection screens and responding to prepared audio tracks containing pauses for student responses, the employer interviewer can "chat" with the youngster, "take" him on a tour of the place of employment, "introduce" him to other employees and indicate the procedures for an on site visit. Another student may turn on a switch and be ushered into the home of a French (or English) speaking family and through a sequentially arranged set of experiences – attending school with the screened family's children, dining, shopping, etc. – begin to learn the family's language.

Ghetto students and residents rarely travel through suburban areas. Local simulation programs designed to introduce these youngsters to various aspects of suburbia could reduce the fear, tension and misunderstanding suggested by such a move. The simulation of visits to suburban school houses, prospective suburban employers, realtors, and residents offers to the student a vicarious, but meaningful, confrontation with unfamiliar agencies and individuals. Hopefully, students in suburban schools would be involved in the same kind of simulation activity educating themselves about people they rarely see but may soon be receiving as classmates and neighbors.

REDUCTION OF TIME LAG

Instant access information retrieval systems reduce the time lag between the occurrence of an event and its perception by the learner. Despite the promise of television as an efficient means for mass dissemination, it has become increasingly apparent that students do not need the same thing at the same time. Put more precisely, they need what they need when they need it. Single channel fixed schedule educational TV cannot satisfy this diverse array of individual demands. For example, via dial access, a youngster performing on the football field can dial his performance immediately after the contest and review it with his coach; a group of young actors can dial themselves in action scene by scene following the day's rehearsal; a job applicant can view her manner and conversational technique following a role played employment interview episode; a youngster with speech defects can view his lip movements after a speech exercise; a teacher can dial his own teaching performance following a session with small or large groups of students; an absentee can dial a lesson he missed; cultural events occurring in the vicinity of the school, taped by a mobile production crew, can be made immediately available for student viewing; educational "specials" taped off the air can be offered to individuals or groups the very next day for study and review.

A dial access video system enables a student to relive important experiences, albeit vicariously. In most conventional programs for the disadvantaged, the child visits an art gallery or a zoo when the teacher decides it is time for the group to take such a trip. The logistics of most school agencies require participation in large numbers in order to bring costs down and spread the benefits to all. Laudable purposes, no doubt, but contrary to the requirements of students expressing needs as individuals rather than as a group. The youngster returning from the art gallery must wait for the next trip (perhaps a year) before seeing a certain painting again. A child trying to recreate his trip to the zoo through an original sketch, song, or poem, might want to take another look at the funny giraffe's ungainly legs, loping stride, and quizzical look. Through dial access, he can dial his painting or giraffe on film or video tape without having to wait for next year's field trip.

CATALYST FOR DIALOGUE

Perhaps the greatest promise of the remote access system lay in its potential as a catalyst for an electronic dialogue between poverty areas and health, education, and welfare agencies; between school systems and public libraries, museums, planataria, and hospitals; between community services centers and people at home; between classroom teachers, and university scholars — in short, a spectacular exchange between strangers. In the near future, professionals at home and abroad, via satellite, could dial into pre-packaged programs racked in international program banks and receive video and audio transmission in strategically placed remote carrels. Display facilities installed in hospital centers could provide interns, students, and general patients with medical, academic and occupational instruction. Teachers in training at schools of education equipped with dial access systems could dial into nearby public school classrooms to keep informed about current practices in urban, suburban and rural schools. The possibilities are truly limitless.

EVALUATION OF DIAL ACCESS

Little evaluation of remote access systems of an empirical nature has been done. That is best explained, perhaps, by the nature of the system itself. Since the dial access audio/video system is a synthesis of a variety of multimedia techniques, it does not seem immediately appropriate to repeat traditional studies of TV vs. conventional methods of instruction, since such studies are already available. For example, Wilbur Schramm in 1964 reported a comprehensive analysis of the evidence on learning via ETV in his "What We Know About Learning From Instructional Television".[1] In 1964, the Schramm Institute also compiled some 300 abstracts of research on instructional television and film representing a substantial sampling of research done between 1950 and 1964. Mere replication of such studies for dial select would add little to the literature. However, developmental studies concerning the application of this research in terms of the system and its components can be significant. Dial access is a system, more like a library than a single book, and is as difficult to evaluate with precision as is the library. To assess, for example, the precise educational output of a library is an impossible task. A perfectly controlled experiment to "prove" that the library produced certain valuable outputs would be nearly impossible. For the same reasons, the nature of dial access as a system precludes its evaluation through "definitive" small scale tests here and there.

[1] Schramm, Wilbur, "What We Know About Learning From Instructional Television," *Educational Television*: The Next Ten Years. Stanford: Institute for Communication Research, 1962.

SUMMARY

It seems clear that the following developments must occur if remote access audiovideo systems are to succeed and proliferate:

a) A concerted attempt must be made by education and the new education industry to produce high quality, provocative software based on student and curricular needs.

b) A program must be constructed stressing a positive, content oriented approach to teacher training. Teachers impressed by the message should be treated to a synthesis of content, method, and media in their in-service training.

c) Hardware must be designed and produced stressing flexibility, economy, durability, and reliability. Subservient to the needs of the program, the hardware must be dependable enough to contribute to the development of positive user attitudes.

It is also urgent that dial access communication centers extend beyond the borders of the school house. New instructional techniques and technology should be employed to convey information and service in the areas of health, welfare, law, transportation, housing and employment. Community centers incorporating manpower recruiting offices, housing exchanges, medical clinics, legal aid societies, facilities for training in the performing arts, and vocational training facilities should be located in the vicinity of school-oriented audio-video program banks, handicapped children's programs, in-service teacher training centers, film libraries, data retrieval centers, graphics and publications services, and modest television production facilities for the preparation of special video tapes to be transmitted to the community as new needs arise.

The appetite of Americans for information is enormous. Negative attitudes toward mechanical delivery of such information are not quite as prevalent as they once were. Better software is beginning to appear. New sources of funding are being tapped. Approached in a systematic manner, assigning first priority to user needs, the future development of remote access systems can bring significant benefits to all.

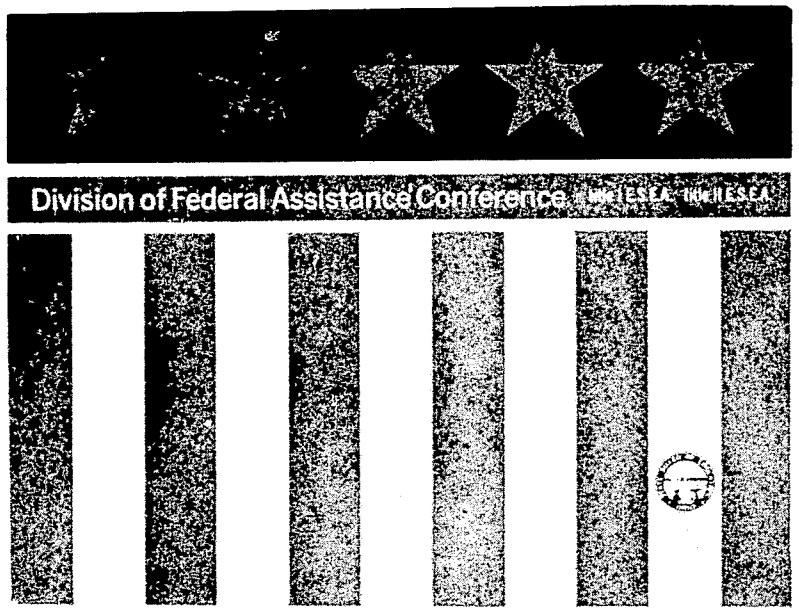
The foregoing has been abstracted and adapted from the following papers prepared by Dr. Singer:

At Will And At Once, The Audio-Video Dial Access Information Retrieval System

Submitted to The Study of Instructional Technology, Washington, D.C.

Ghetto Education And Urban-Suburban Mixing, Organizational Reform And The Application Of Media And Technology To Instruction

Submitted to the Center for Community Planning, Washington, D.C.



Money and Resources for a Media Program

Loran C. Twyford, Jr.

The assignment of money and resources for any educational program must rest on an understanding of the objectives of the program and the goals to be achieved. The most definitive statement of these goals and objectives for the media field was published in the Department of Audiovisual Instruction's position paper on "The Function of Media in the Public Schools."[1]

"The first function of technological media is to supplement the teacher through enhancing his effectiveness in the classroom. Educational media are both tools for teaching and avenues of learning, and their function is to serve these two processes by enhancing clarity in communication, diversity in method and forcefulness in appeal."

"The second function is to enhance overall productivity through the use of instructional media and systems which do not depend upon the teacher for routine execution of many instructional processes or for clerical-mechanical chores. Here the teacher determines objectives, selects methods and content, and evaluates final learning outcomes. The presentation of information, and even the direction of routine pupil activities, may be turned over to such new media as programmed learning materials, television, or motion pictures." This concise paper also delineates the role of the media specialist and patterns for organization and staffing that can be followed to advantage by any administrator instituting a comprehensive media program.

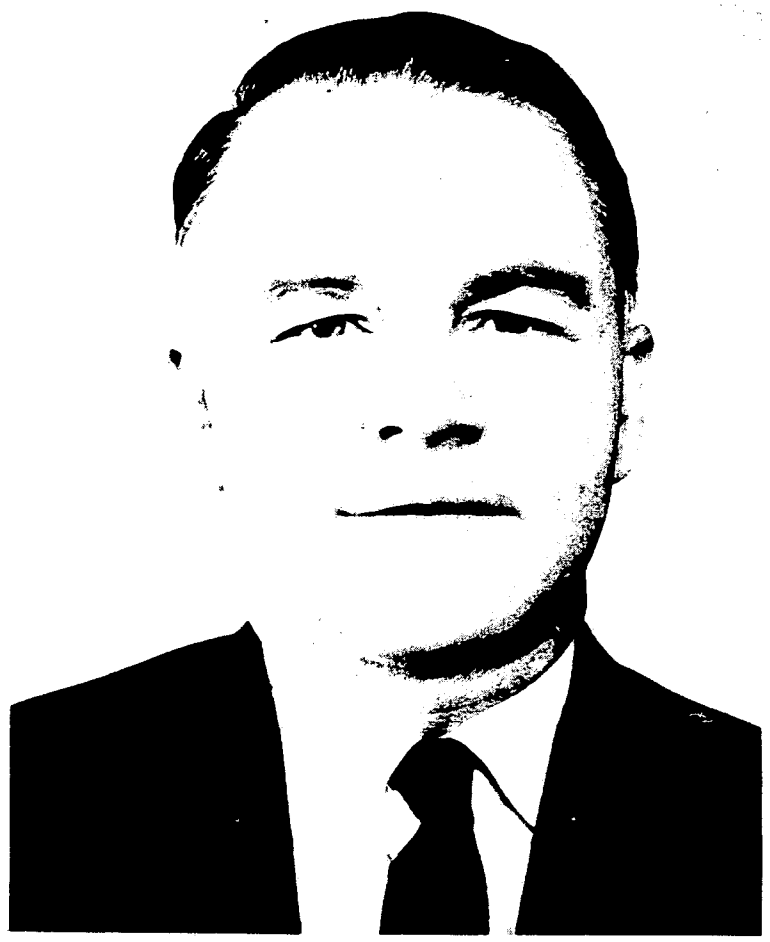
Given the objectives, an administrator may wish to know whether media are being employed to achieve these objectives. In a survey of research on educational communications media to be published in the Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Twyford concludes that instruction making extensive use of communications materials and media is at least as effective as conventional instruction.[2] Carefully prepared materials that are utilized under optimum conditions may be several times as effective as the average instruction as it is normally presented.

To capitalize on the efficiency of instruction provided through use of media it is important to proceed with learning new material rather than waste the time that has been saved through the use of media. We may conclude that media employed in a well-planned program should realize the goals and purposes described in the DAVI position paper.

In order to interpret accurately the rate at which a media program should be introduced in a school system it is important to assess the role of technology in society and its probable role in education. We can do well to heed the words of Senator Ralph W. Yarborough when he introduced the Educational Technology Act of 1968 in the United States Senate.[3]

He said that "Man has witnessed a 200-fold increase in the speed at which man can travel during the past two-thirds of a century. Advances in such fields as medicine, psychology and chemistry have been so striking as to defy the comprehension of the average layman. Breakthroughs since 1900 such as radio, television and the Telstar satellite have revolutionized man's ability to communicate. Even more startling is the recognition of the rate at which we move from concept to application. And the velocity of change will increase. For acceleration begets acceleration. Stated in its most simple terms, the task of education has become that of providing more knowledge in less time to more people. The time has come for our Nation to focus the attention of American educational leadership on the promise and potential of technology as a powerful thrust

LORAN C. TWYFORD, JR.



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[3] Yarborough, Ralph W. "S4184 – Introduction of a Bill Entitled "The Educational Technology Act of 1968" Congressional Record, Vol. 114, No. 168, October 10, 1968.

toward realizing many of the long held, but seldom fulfilled, goals of American education. The Educational Technology Act of 1968 is designed to meet all of the requirements for the successful introduction of technology into education. Most important, it is geared toward the bringing about of significant improvements in the educational process."

"The time for extensive use of all forms of educational technology within every single classroom of this Nation has already come. We now owe it to the children of America to prepare for it and to wisely use these newly developing educational "tools" for the greatest number of young persons. Educational Technology offers the "keys" for major breakthroughs in achieving instructional excellence. It may even bring about basic changes in our traditional concepts of a school, since increasingly we are being made aware of the fact that students learn outside of school as well as – and perhaps as much as – in school."

Senator Yarborough has reintroduced a refined version of the Act in the 91st Congress.[4] The Commission on Instructional Technology will submit its report this Spring on its findings concerning the uses of media and technology in education. These and other activities at the National level give us assurance that within the next few years media will assume a large and essential place in American education.

ESTABLISHMENT OF QUANTITATIVE GOALS

The primary goal of an educational communications media program is the improvement of education. It is not easy to establish quantitative goals or standards for educational improvement. Instead it has become customary to assess a media program by the amount of materials, equipment, staff, facilities and budget. We always assume that these resources are reasonably well organized for instructional purposes.

Goals may range from a very poor program to the best that can be designed. School districts from deprived urban areas or poorly capitalized rural areas may set a goal of attaining a program comparable to other deprived districts. Most school districts are satisfied with an average program representing what they believe is representative of the average district. The more wealthy districts may carry out a media program to the best of their financial ability. The highest goals are established by national professional organizations such as the Department of Audiovisual Instruction, of NEA in their Quantitative Standards for Audiovisual Personnel, Equipment and Materials.[5] The standards which were developed by media experts establish quantitative levels called "basic" and "advanced" as goals to be attained by every school district. We shall see that standards or goals that are appropriate to the deprived school district are altogether unsuited to the needs of the "pacemaker" district.

CURRENT STATUS OF MEDIA PROGRAMS

One of the most comprehensive and useful surveys of the current status of media programs was conducted by the New York State Education Department.[6] Fourteen aspects of media programs were measured and school districts in the State were given a percentile ranking on each measure and on an overall basis. The results are felt to be reasonably applicable to other parts of the country. Table I gives percentile rankings projected for May 1969 in comparison with the 1969 Standards For School Media Programs. Through the use of these data a school district may make a determination of the status of its current program and establish realistic goals for succeeding years.

To determine the current status of a media program divide the number of teachers in the district by the number of 16mm projectors. This will give the average number of teachers sharing the use of each projector. Find the nearest number on the top row of Table I. If this number is in the 70% column this means that your district ranks at the 70th percentile among all school districts in availability of 16mm projectors. You may interpolate to obtain more exact percentile figures. Next, proceed to determine percentile rankings for the other equipment items, materials, staff and per pupil expenditure.

These percentiles should indicate whether your district is currently at the 10th or 90th percentile. It will also indicate which aspects of your program rank lowest and deserve to be improved.

SETTING A GOAL

If your district ranks at the 20th percentile and you feel that you have an average school district you will probably want to bring your program up to the 50th percentile very rapidly. Using the chart a district can determine how many items of equipment, materials, staff, and per pupil expenditure will be needed according to the number of teachers in the district. If the district is at the 50th percentile it may wish to develop a program that will rank at the 80th or 90th percentile. There is assurance that such a program is practical because many schools have already attained that level of development.

Those districts which rank at the 90th percentile may wish to achieve the basic or advanced levels as proposed in the 1969 Standards.

Several factors must be kept in mind in determining goals. Over the past three years there has been a 50% growth in the average program. If your proposed goal is less than 50% in three years you will find yourself at the same percentile ranking if your expansion takes three years to carry out. We can assume a 15% growth each year.

The second factor to consider is depreciation. Projection equipment and materials wear out when they are used. Their life may extend from five to ten years. To replace these items we should add another 15%. It is evident that the cost of maintaining one's percentile ranking re-

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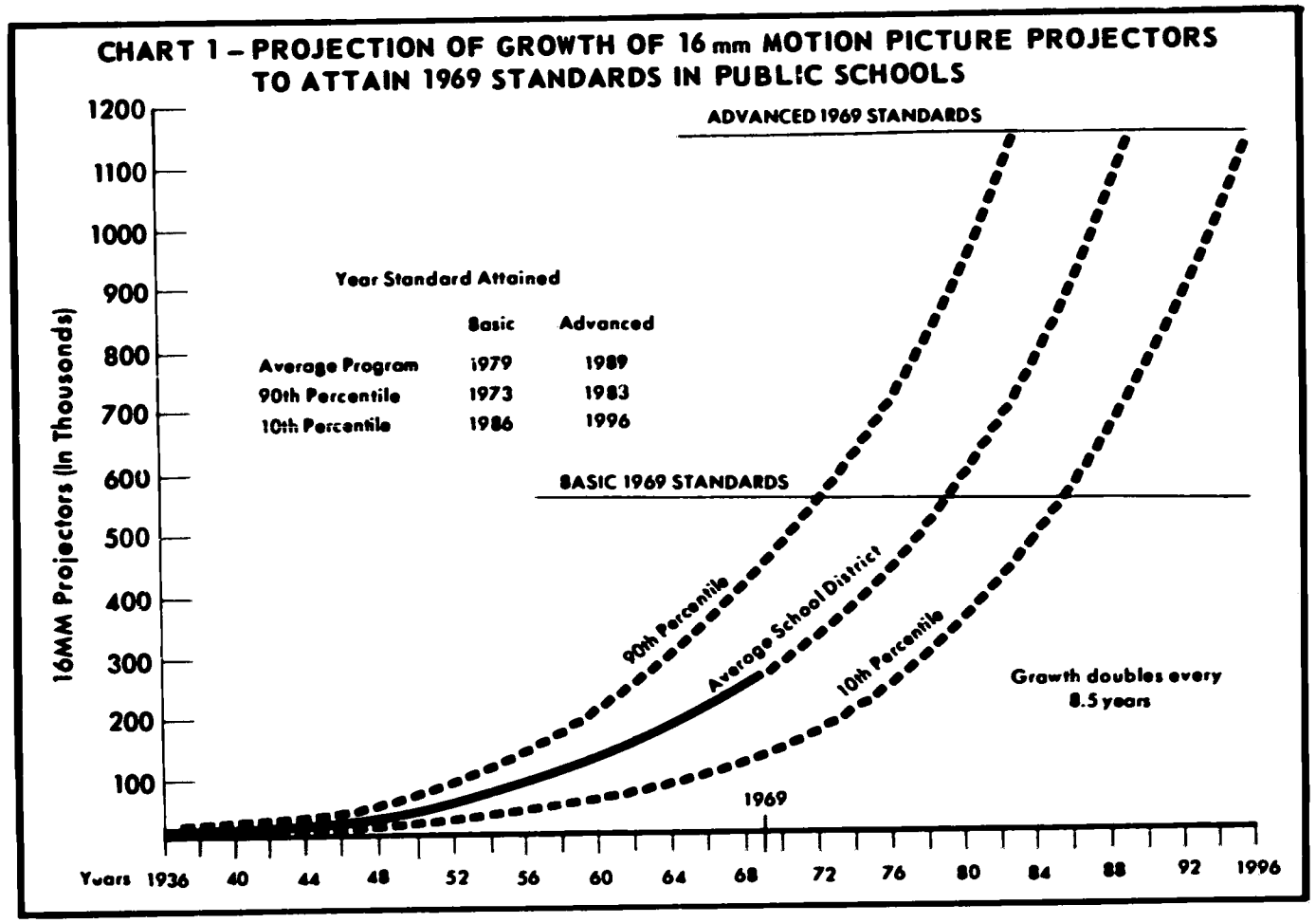
[4] Yarborough, Ralph W. "S1189 Introduction of a Bill, entitled "Educational Technology Act of 1969" Congressional Record, Vol. 115, No. 36, February 28, 1969.

[5] Faris, Gene, and Sherman, Mendel. *Quantitative Standards for Audiovisual Personnel, Equipment and Materials.* Department of Audiovisual Instruction, NEA. 1966. 18p.

[6] Twyford, Loran C. *Percentile Ranking of Educational Communications Programs.* New York State Education Department. 1968. 161p.

TABLE I 1969 EDUCATIONAL COMMUNICATIONS PERCENTILE RANKINGS AND STANDARDS FOR ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

	Percentile Ranking									1969 Standards	
	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	Basic	Advanced
Teachers per 16 mm motion picture projector	14.6	11.7	10.3	9.3	8.6	7.7	7.3	6.3	5.4	3.9	1.8
Teachers per record player	—	8.0	5.3	3.8	3.1	2.7	2.4	2.1	1.5	2.8	1.5
Teachers per tape recorder	12.4	9.8	8.7	7.6	6.7	6.1	5.3	4.6	3.2	3.1	1.3
Teachers per television set	—	101.0	22.1	15.3	11.5	9.8	6.4	4.2	3.0	1.3	1.3
Teachers per filmstrip and slide projector	9.9	7.8	6.5	5.6	5.0	4.4	3.9	3.5	2.8	1.6	.64
Teachers per overhead projector	14.0	9.3	7.1	5.7	4.7	4.2	3.4	2.7	2.0	1.1	1.0
Teachers per screen	5.5	4.3	3.4	2.7	2.3	1.9	1.5	1.3	0.9	1.2	1.2
Teachers per darkened room	16.6	7.6	4.6	2.8	1.9	1.48	1.18	1.03	0.80	1.1	1.1
Teachers per opaque projector	43.8	35.4	28.6	25.8	23.4	20.7	18.2	16.3	14.3	29.	9.9
Teachers per professional edcom staff member	3840	768	485	346	253	202	158	124	87	22.2	22.2
Teachers per non-professional edcom staff member	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,110	470	156	11.1	11.1
Filmstrips per teacher	1.64	4.57	6.4	8.5	10.1	11.9	14.5	17.1	21.8	67.8	67.8
Expenditure per pupil (Not personnel or major installations)	.75	1.28	1.76	2.13	2.53	3.10	3.76	5.06	8.20	51.80	51.80



quires an annual increase in funds of 30%. To move up to a higher percentile ranking will require a much greater annual increase.

The 16mm projector is an essential part of any media program. Chart #1 shows the growth in their use. At the present rate of growth the average district will attain the basic standard in 1979 and the advanced standard in 1989. The number of operating projectors doubles every 8.5 years. This growth pattern shows no signs of saturation and should continue to grow for many years.

Something should be said about the relative need for increases in current programs just to meet current needs.

The following figures represent the average percentage increases that would provide an adequate program over the current program.

	Percentage Increase for Adequate Program
Professional Staff	197
Nonprofessional Staff	512
Per Pupil Edcom. Expenditure	64
16mm. Projectors	40
Filmstrip and 2"x2" Projectors	31
Overhead Projectors	173
Audiotape Recorders	64
Television Receivers	165
Radios	73
Electronic Classrooms	89
Record Players	29
Screens	56
Darkened Classrooms	52
Microprojectors	73
Opaque Projectors	59
16mm. Films Owned	125
Filmstrips Owned	54
Free Films Used	19
Average Increase	104

These results indicate that the greatest need is for professional and nonprofessional staff. In addition, it is clear that there is great need for overhead projectors, television receivers and ownership of 16mm. films. The average increase for an adequate program calls for a doubling of the present program.

If a 104 percent increase were obtained, districts would then find the level for an adequate program would have increased. The affluent as well as the deprived school feel that an increase would be desirable. A reasonable increase is generally felt to be no more than 104 percent above present levels.

PROVISION FOR SPECIAL MEDIA PROGRAM

Many school districts have undertaken special media programs. These may be televised instruction, computer - assisted instruction, language laboratories, individualized instruction areas and programmed instruction. The cost of these programs is in addition to the foregoing costs since they seldom reduce the need for a basic media program. It is essential that these more glamorous programs do not deprive teachers in their use of media for instructional purposes. Many schools limit teachers in their use of media because of lack of funds for materials and for staff to make them available. Media for student use is gaining acceptance but this use should not be permitted to detract from teacher use. A teacher reaches 30 students with the same visual material that is used by one student.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE MEDIA PROGRAM

Competent personnel are required to administer a media program. The savings that can be effected in the proper administration of a media program will usually pay for the salary of the media director. Unfortunately many administrators feel that they are qualified to administer such programs. This often results in large expenditure of funds for materials and equipment that do not meet educational needs. Expensive films may be purchased that are seldom used. Complex equipment may be acquired that can not be operated and maintained by the personnel assigned to oversee its use.

A media director that has extensive training, experience and leadership qualities is best able to conduct an efficient program that most adequately meets the educational needs of the school district. He will keep abreast of the continuing developments in the media field and adjust to changing conditions. The technology involved in the use of media is a complex field requiring a person with competence in this field. In addition, the media director is usually involved in the use of media in curriculum development. The range of his responsibilities have been outlined in the Educational Communications Handbook published by the Bureau of Classroom Communications of the New York State Education Department.[7]

FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

There are many developments involving media. Some promise more than they will be able to achieve. Nevertheless, within a few years every classroom probably will have a permanently installed overhead projector. If the Educational Technology Act is passed and funded, we may expect a rapid increase in the essential use of media. Printed materials may also participate in this use of technology when microcard libraries are made available in 1970. It is difficult to predict which of the newly developing media will be practical. We can be certain that technology will increasingly occupy a more important role in education.

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[7] *Educational Communications Handbook*, Bureau of Classroom Communications, New York State Education Department, Albany, New York.