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ABSTRACT

Information on characteristics and outcomes of proorams existing under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act is summarized in this factbook. The information is organized to answer questions concerning: (1) program effectiveness; (2) services provided by Title I funds; and (3) participants in Title I projects. The factbook concludes that Title I programs are effective in improving reading and mathematics skills for Title I students, in increasino test score gains of low achievers, in getting extra funds to poor schools, and in providing a model for designing state programs for low achievino and poor students. It is reported that the major services provided by Title I funds include supplementary programs for educationally deprived children, remedial reading and mathematics, special teachers and aides, smaller classes, more instructional hours, varied instructional approaches, special needs of migrant children, and services for handicapped children. The factbook reveals that in 1979-80, participants in Title I programs included approximately 5.2 million students; about 241,827 teachers, professional staff, and support staff; and parents who served in advisory councils and as home tutors, aides, and organizers. Also discussed are policy considerations for the continued improvement of services for educationally disadvantaged children. (Author/MJL)

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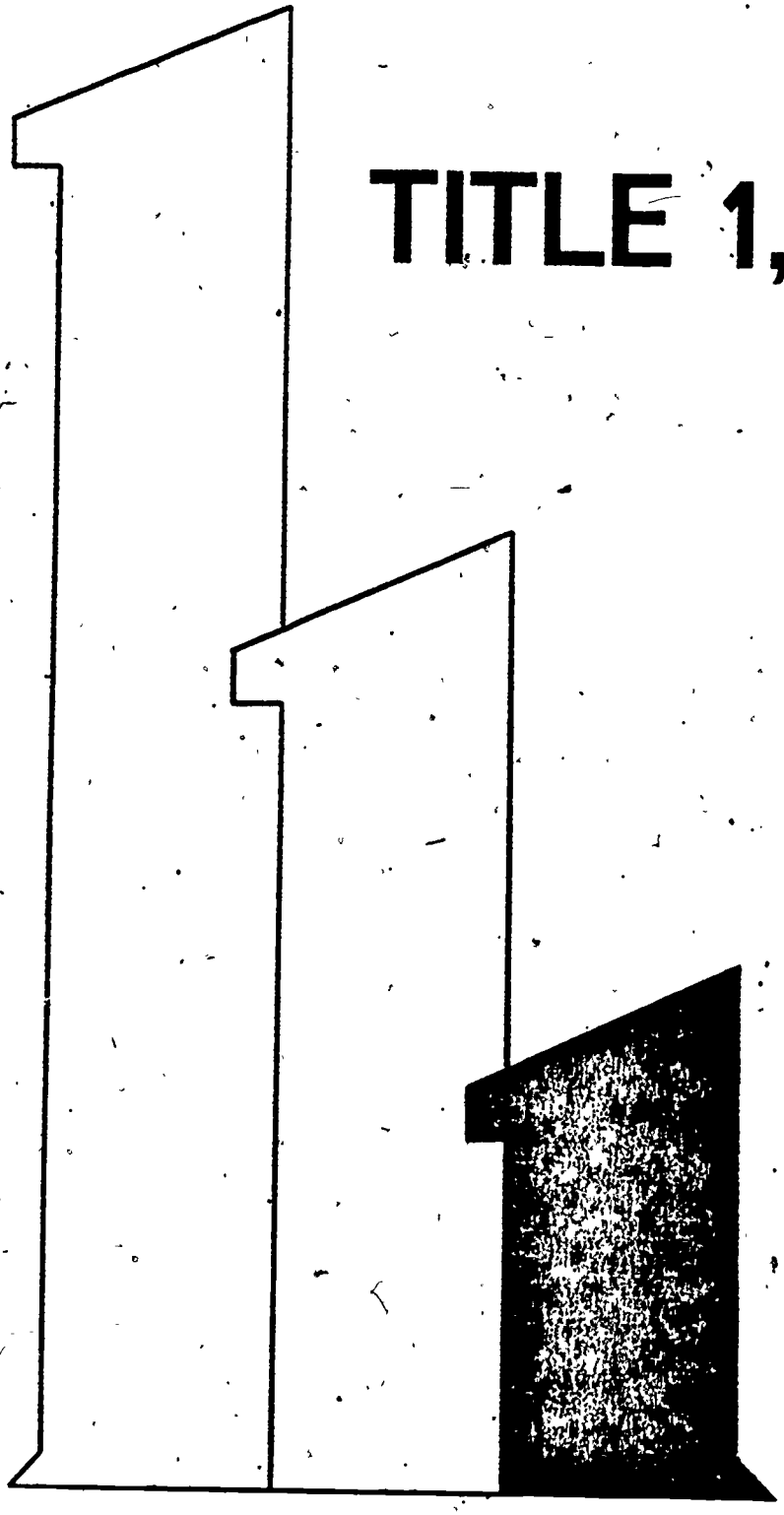

Spring 1981

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TITLE I, TODAY:

A FACTBOOK

A Descriptive Summary of Title I (Financial Assistance to Meet Special Educational Needs of Children) of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

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PREFACE

A major emphasis of federal education policy, especially over the last 16 years, has been to support programs for children who are in need of special assistance -- limited-English speaking students, children of migrant families, the handicapped, ethnic minorities, and the poor.

Under the Congressional leadership of such individuals as Congressman Carl Perkins, Chairman of the House Education and Labor Committee and Senator Claiborne Pell, Chairman of the Senate Sub-Committee on Education, several landmark pieces of legislation have underscored the Federal commitment to promoting equal educational opportunities to these targeted groups of students.

By far the largest of these programs for elementary and secondary school students across the country is Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Projects funded under this title are primarily designed to help children farthest behind in school catch up with other students in the basic subjects of reading, language arts, and mathematics. The largest component of Title I is intended to provide extra and specially-designed services in schools that traditionally receive the fewest resources -- schools with high concentrations of poor students.

The next several years will be marked by considerable deliberation and possibly significant redirection of the federal role in education. Policymakers in the Executive Branch and Congress will need basic information about the purposes, services delivered, costs, and effectiveness of existing federally-sponsored education programs, as do the hundreds of thousands of teachers, administrators, and parents responsible for making Title I work.

The National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children (NACEDC) has a statutory mandate to "review and evaluate the administration and operation" of Title I and to report to the Congress and the President on the effectiveness of this and other programs aimed at improving the educational attainment of educationally deprived children.[1] Although the Council office is in Washington, D.C., its members are community and educational leaders from across the nation. Council members include a parent of Title I children, local Title I administrators and teachers, community and civil rights leaders, academicians, and representatives of Indian, Hispanic, Black, migrant, non-public, and other children eligible for Title I services.

The Council believes that the decisions made over the next few years about federally-sponsored education programs will be improved if decision-makers have access to a synthesis of recent information on existing programs, much of which is often reported only in disparate and voluminous documents in limited circulation. This factbook represents the Council's attempt to provide straightforward answers to fundamental questions about Title I. It summarizes the most relevant existing information contained in detailed and technical reports and studies, and organizes this information around the most frequently asked questions about the program.

Readers who desire a more in-depth information on the issues and data summarized in this sourcebook will find a listing of major research and survey reports in the "Selected References" section at the end of this book.

TITLE I, TODAY SUMMARY FACT SHEET

Are Title I, School District Programs Effective?

- Stable Title I programs which focus on improving reading and mathematics skills can result in dramatic achievement gains for Title I students.
- Title I achievement data reported by states consistently show better than month-by-month test score gains for students who would otherwise be low achievers.
- Title I has been effective in getting extra funds to poor school districts and schools, and also in serving as a model for states in starting and designing their own programs for low achieving or poor students.

What Do Title I Dollars Buy?

- Over 86 percent of all Title I dollars is used by school districts to provide specially designed supplementary programs for educationally deprived children in poor schools.
- Remedial reading and basic mathematics are, by far, the subject areas most frequently supported by Title I funds.
- Title I services involve smaller classes, more hours of instruction in reading and math, special teachers and aides, and more varied instructional approaches and materials.
- In 1980, grants totaling $209.6 million were provided to SEAs to meet the special educational needs of the children of migrant farmworkers and fishermen.
- Approximately 225,500 handicapped children in 3,900 state schools and 3,100 school districts received services funded by the Title I Program for Handicapped Children.

Who Participates in Title I, School District Programs?

- Over 87 percent of the 16,000 school districts nationwide participate in the Title I program. More than 4.9 million public school children and 185,140 non-public school children, totaling approximately 5.2 million children received Title I, services in school year 1979-80.
- An equivalent of 241,827 full-time teachers, aides, administrators, and other professional and support staff were employed in Title I, projects in fiscal year 1979.
- In those schools with Title I programs, 34 percent of the compensatory education students are black, compared with 19 percent of the total enrollment; 54 percent are white, compared with 75 percent of the total enrollment; 10 percent are Spanish surnamed, compared with 5 percent of the total enrollment.
- Title I teachers tend to have more specialized inservice training and more courses in instructional techniques than regular teachers in Title I schools.
- Title I has led the way in recognizing the value of involving parents in the decision-making and instructional aspects of their children's education. In 1979, 265,755 Title I parents were members of the program's parent advisory councils and more than 431,000 participated in other Title I activities such as home tutors, in-class aides, and organizers of special events.

INTRODUCTION

Poverty and poor performance in school go hand in hand. They cause students to drop-out of school, and they foster unemployment, crime, and more poverty. Prior to the 1960's little was being done to break this so-called cycle of poverty. At that time, most children in the nation's poorest schools had two strikes against them. They suffered from the deprivations of growing up in poverty, and when they entered school, they received fewer educational resources, were taught in larger classes by less experienced and less well-trained teachers, and had virtually no special programs to help them catch up with other children in basic academic skills.

In 1965 Congress passed what remains the largest program in this country to help low-achieving children in poor areas do better in school. This program, Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, funded in fiscal year 1980 at $3.2 billion, serves over 5.2 million elementary and secondary students in public and non-public schools. It pays for an equivalent of almost 100,000 full-time teachers and more than 100,000 educational aides in approximately 14,000 school districts nationwide. On average, Title I provides each child served an additional $436 in educational services which represents an increase of about 34 percent more than these students normally receive from state and local sources.[1]

A growing body of research demonstrates that low-achieving students who participate in Title I, on average, make greater academic gains than do similar types of students not receiving Title I or other compensatory services.

This factbook is organized around three questions frequently asked about this program:

- Are Title I programs effective?
- What do Title I dollars buy?
- Who participates in Title I projects?

To better understand the answers to these questions it is helpful to know how Title I is administered.

In enacting Title I, Congress recognized that districts with concentrations of poor students usually do not have adequate resources from state and local sources to offer extra services for their lowest achieving students. Congress also recognized that rules are needed to ensure that states and school districts actually spend their Title I dollars on educationally disadvantaged children in the poorest schools and to increase the likelihood that Title I projects would be effective. Finally, Congress believed that federal, state, and local levels of government should share the responsibilities for Title I's administration.

Thus, the primary roles of the federal government are to (1) determine how much Title I money each state will receive and distribute the funds, (2) establish the rules under which the program operates, and (3) review and monitor the performance of the states and school districts to ensure that the rules are observed.

States are responsible for (1) helping school districts understand Title I rules, (2) ensuring that the districts use their Title I funds as intended by Congress, and (3) submitting to the Department of Education assurances which describe how the program funds were spent and reports which evaluate local programs.

School districts are responsible for (1) selecting Title I schools and students, (2) designing programs and delivering services to eligible students, and (3) submitting accounting reports and evaluation results to the state.

In practice, however, these administrative responsibilities are highly intertwined. The Department of Education allocates funds to the states, which in turn distribute funds to school districts. (The "Glossary" section of this factbook describes in more detail the rules or program requirements for Title I, and Appendix A presents a state-by-state list of Title I expenditures and enrollments.) School districts must first, however, submit an application for Title I funds. The requirements for spending Title I dollars are meant to increase the likelihood that Title I services supplement not substitute for local resources, are of the highest quality, and result in increased student achievement.

ARE TITLE I SCHOOL DISTRICT PROGRAMS EFFECTIVE?

The success of Title I is usually judged by examinining test score gains in reading and mathematics. Judged by this criterion, Title I is a success. Recent national achievement score data from a number of source's consistently document gains for Title I students significantly exceeding those of other needy students not served by Title I.

Improving The Academic Achievement of Title I Students in Basic Skills

Early national evaluations (1965-1974) of Title I's impact on improving achievement gains in reading and mathematics were discouraging.[1] However, some of these early studies failed to take into account the frequent use of Title I funds for general aid in those early years and others were conducted with highly questionable methodologies. For example, the TEMPO study of 14 districts receiving Title I-funds found no significant gains in student achievement when it compared the gains of the students in 1967 with Title I to the gains in the previous year, before Title I programs started in these schools. This study, however, used average classroom achievement of all students for the study's schools rather than focusing on the achievement of Title I participants.

Since 1975, carefully designed studies consistently report that Title I programs do improve students' performance in reading and math over the school year; moreover, the most recent study reports that students seem to maintain these increases when they "graduate" from Title I programs.

In 1977, the National Institute of Education reported on the reading and mathematics achievement of Title I students in 400 classrooms. Included

in this study were classrooms with stable Title I programs which emphasized improving reading and mathematic skills of low-achieving students. While these classrooms were not randomly selected, the students came from a range of income levels and ethnic backgrounds, and the schools they attended were in urban, rural, and metropolitan areas in both the North and the South. The study found:

- Title I students in first grade made an average gain of 12 months in reading and 11 months in mathematics in the seven-month period between the fall and spring testing.
- Title I students in the third grade gained 8 months in reading and 12 months in mathematics over the same time period.[2]

Both of these results were higher than would be expected without the special services provided by the program. Iris Rothberg, Deputy Director of the study notes, "While we cannot conclude from the results that all compensatory education students are gaining as much as those who participated in the study, the results indicate that school districts can and do create the conditions necessary to make compensatory instructional services effective."[3]

The National Diffusion Network's publication, Educational Programs That Work, provides one of the more detailed sources of information demonstrating that Title I promotes programs that result in marked achievement gains for educationally disadvantaged children. This catalog describes those "exemplary" projects approved by the Department of Education's Joint Dissemination Review Panel (JDRP) for national dissemination and replication. Each approved project must provide objective evidence of its effectiveness. Of the 140 projects listed and described in the Fall, 1980 edition, 53 were developed with Title I funds.[4] Appendix B presents a "Sampler" of these Title I-funded exemplary projects.

Other recent national surveys and studies that do not focus only on exemplary programs report higher achievement gains by Title I students than would be expected in the absence of the program. Stanford Research Institute collected and analyzed 283 state-level reports on Title I completed during the 1969-74 school years. In calculating average monthly gains from pre- and post-test data, the survey report determined:

> The average of the reported monthly gains are consistently near 1.1 month's gain for each month in Title I. . . . In terms of the unofficial standard of success, which is a month's gain for a month in the program, Title I must be judged a significant success.[5]

A February 1980 report from the Department of Education to Congress summarizes the reading achievement data from 23 states (representing about 14 percent of the Title I reading students) that had voluntarily used new standardized reporting procedures. Again, these data show a pattern of student improvement in reading and mathematics exceeding that expected in the absence of Title I services. The report also points out that these data should be interpreted cautiously since they were collected from different years and different sources for Title I/non-Title I comparisons, the reporting methods were new, and the sample was incomplete.[6] Nevertheless, these preliminary state survey data suggest that new standardized reporting procedures are beginning to pay off by providing comparable achievement data across states which closely correspond to national study findings.

One such analysis, the "Study of Compensatory Reading Programs" gathered reading achievement data for children in grades 2, 4, and 6 served by Title I and other compensatory education programs during the 1972-73 school year.

The study employed six analytic techniques, five of which indicated that compensatory education students tend to catch up with non-compensatory education students when they received additional basic skills instruction. The sixth analytic method showed that compensatory education students made similar achievement gains to the gains of non-compensatory students.[7]

The most comprehensive federal study of Title I's achievement impacts is the Sustaining Effects Study. The recently released Interim Report of this study summarizes data collected in 250 public elementary schools in grades 1 through 6 during the 1976-77 school year and documents that:

- Title I is effective in improving the reading achievement of students in the first, second, and third grades;
- Title I is effective in improving the math performance of students in all elementary grades.[8]

The Sustaining Effects Study is the first large-scale study of Title I's impact on improving basic skills for the disadvantaged over more than one school year. When completed, the study will report growth over a three-year period for students receiving different types of Title I services over different time periods and the pattern of student performance after Title I services end for them. The Interim Report, which discusses the preliminary findings over a two year period, found that students who lose their Title I services because they "graduate" from Title I programs continue to perform at a relatively higher level than would be expected had they not received compensatory education services.[9]

Finally, the National Assessment of Educational Progress reports in 1981 that disadvantaged students' reading scores have increased rather dramatically over the last ten years. This study, sponsored by the National Institute of Education, first surveyed a nationally respresentative sample of elementary and secondary students in 1970, and repeated the reading skills survey in 1975 and again in 1980. Overall, the analysis concludes that elementary school students are reading better today than were elementary school children in 1970 and that junior and senior high school students are generally reading as well as their 1970 counterparts. However, those groups which traditionally scored below the national level showed the most impressive gains. Black elementary school students closed the gap between themselves and other elementary students by 6.0 percentage points. Although still scoring about 11 percentage points below the national average, black 13-year-olds narrowed the gap by 3.4 percentage points.

The National Assessment also asked a panel of reading experts to identify a number of specific activities that may have contributed to such gains. The panel of teachers, teacher trainers, and researchers cited federal aid for reading instruction in elementary schools as one of the primary factors.[10] Congressman Carl Perkins, chairman of the House Education and Labor Committee commented:

> I am extremely encouraged by the results of this third reading assessment, in particular the significant gains for nine-year-olds from rural and disadvantaged urban areas. To me this data strongly suggest that our Federal education programs, especially Title I, which is focused on elementary students from disadvantaged backgrounds, are working well.[11]

However, the success of Title I in increasing achievement as measured by test scores for participating students reflects only one of the several program objectives which have evolved gradually over time.

The Evolving Objectives of Title I

When Title I was enacted in 1965, its architects and supporters had a variety of expectations for the program. Some saw Title I as the first step toward federally-financed general aid for American schools. Others wanted and hoped for more. Some wanted to equalize per pupil expenditures across states as well as within school districts. Others were searching for a way to reform the nation's schools. And still others sought to help disadvantaged children escape the cycle of poverty.[12]

Since 1965, the original legislation has been expanded and refined through seven major revisions or reauthorizations. The last reauthorization in 1978 extended the program until 1983 (P.L. 95-561). The initial goals of the program have become considerably more defined through the debates accompanying these proceedings, the revisions themselves, and official legislative reports.

In conducting a compensatory education study in 1977, NIE identified three "clearly discernible" purposes of Title I from the legislation and other formal Congressional statements:

- to provide supplementary funds to school districts and schools in relation to their numbers of low-income children;
- to target specially-designed services to the lowest achieving students in these schools; and,
- ultimately, to contribute to achievement goals for students who would otherwise be low achievers.[13]

The multiple and evolving goals of Title I require that the program's impact be assessed in the context of its other major purposes.

Providing Supplementary Funds for School Districts and Schools in Low-Income Areas

Prior to the passage of Title I, there was almost no special funding for low-achieving students in poor schools. In fact, schools at that time with high numbers or percentages of students from poor families had lower per pupil expenditures, fewer and less qualified teachers and other professional staff, and fewer textbooks and other instructional materials. Both within and across school districts, children in poor schools were not receiving services comparable to students in wealthier attendance areas.[14]

Title I has not "solved" these fundamental educational inequities. It appears, however, that the program is far more effective in closing the funding gap between rich and poor school districts than other state and Federal programs. An NIE analysis, Title I Funds Allocation: The Current Formula, reported in 1977 that:

> Title I is markedly more redistributive than other state and Federal aid programs. . . . A recent study of aid programs in education, welfare, and other areas suggests that Title I might be the most redistributive of all Federal domestic programs providing funds to jurisdictions. . . . Only food stamp programs came close to equaling this apparent redistributive effect [of Title I].[15]

Evidence also suggests that Title I has been influential in raising state and local awareness of the need for and benefits of providing additional funds for basic skills instruction to educationally deprived children. For example, prior to 1965, only three states had small pilot compensatory education programs.[16] Since then, several states have begun or expanded their own programs for the disadvantaged. In 1976 sixteen states allocated approximately

$364 million for educationally disadvantaged or poor children, increasing the level of support for compensatory education by 20 percent above Title I funding.[17] From extensive interviews, NIE reports that:

> The coordinators of state compensatory programs agreed that Title I was necessary for the success of their own efforts. Title I established the principle of special assistance to disadvantaged children and created a model that others followed. Without it, they argued, few States would have initiated, or would continue, funding for this special purpose.[18]

Title I, then, has been effective not only in providing extra funds to poor school districts and schools, but also in serving as a model for state programs for low-achieving or poor students.

Improved Targeting of Specially-Designed Services to Low-Achieving Children

Congress has long recognized that Title I funds generally are not sufficient to serve all educationally deprived children in a school district. The Title I law stipulates, therefore, that projects be "of sufficient size, scope, and quality" to ensure that there is a reasonable chance for the projects to be successful.[19]

Over time, Title I has been increasingly successful at concentrating funds rather than spreading its limited resources as general aid. The cross-time data in Table I demonstrate this trend. Row I shows that approximately 5.5 million students met Title I's eligibility criteria for poverty in 1966; yet more than 8.2 million students actually participated in the program (Row II). This is almost one-and-a-half times the number of formula-eligible children and strongly suggests the general aid nature of Title I programs at that time (Row III). Indeed, studies of Title I's early years (especially between

Table I: Targeting Figures for Title I From 1966 to 1978[a]

	1966	1970	1974	1978
I. Children counted for LEA Entitlements (in millions)[b]	5,531	6,952	6,247	9,045
II. Participating	8,235	7,525	6,100	5,155
III. Percent Participating of Counted	149	108	98	57
IV. Per-Pupil Expenditure (unadjusted)	$116.46	$151.98	$247.75	$378.52
V. Per-Pupil Expenditure (adjusted for inflation)	$119.81	$139.82	$167.73	$193.71
VI. Total Title I Appropriation (in millions)	$1,193	$1,339	$1,653	$2,247
VII. Total Title I Appropriation Adjusted for inflation (in millions)	$1,217	$1,151	$1,232	$1,162

[a] Figures derived from tables provided by Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education.

[b] Figures for Rows I and II include only "educationally disadvantaged" children, but do not include handicapped, juvenile delinquents, migrants, or children in agencies for the neglected.

[c] Adjusted figures are derived from the Bureau of Labor Statistics "Consumer Price Index for All Urban Consumers U.S. City Average" with 1967 as base year.

SOURCE: Kirst, Michael and Richard Jung. "The Utility of a Longitudinal Approach in Assessing Implementation: A Thirteen Year View of Title I, ESEA" Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 2 (September-October 1980), p. 23.

1966 and 1970) document that many school districts were using Title I funds for general aid rather than for specially targeted programs for disadvantaged children.[20] In contrast, in 1978, while about 9 million students were counted in the Title I eligibility formula (Row I), only 5.1 million actually participated in the program (Row II) or about two-thirds of the formula-eligible students (Row III), indicating improved concentrating of limited Title I funds.

The result of this improved concentration of funds is illustrated in Rows IV and V of Table I. Even allowing for the effects of inflation, Title I per pupil expenditures increased by over 60 percent during this period. An inspection of Row VII reveals that during the same time per-pupil expenditures were increasing, the total appropriation for Title I dollars adjusted for inflation actually declined by 5 percent. It appears, therefore, that the larger per-pupil expenditures were due to improved concentration of funds rather than additional appropriations.

Two other recent studies of Title I participants have found that, in terms of percentages, children with the lowest achievement scores in poor schools are the primary recipients of Title I services.[21] These services include extra hours of instruction in reading and math, smaller classes, more individual attention, specially designed materials, and teachers who have more inservice and college training in teaching reading and math.

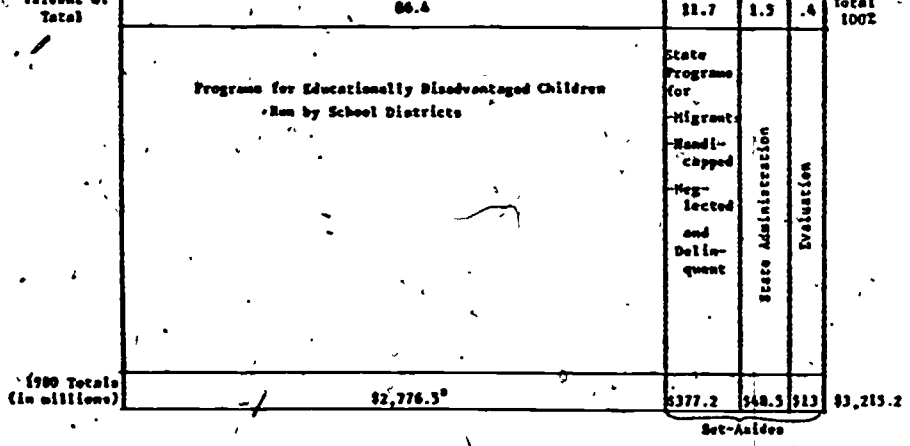
In sum, Title I makes a difference. Over time, the program has been increasingly successful in targeting special services to low-achieving students. A growing body of studies show that Title I students can make better than month-by-month gains in reading and mathematics and that these gains often significantly exceed those of other needy students not served by the program.

WHAT DO TITLE I DOLLARS BUY?

In enacting Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Congress recognized that children from low-income families have special educational needs and that school districts with concentrations of low-income families lacked the resources "to support adequate educational programs" to address these special needs. Congress, therefore, declared "it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance . . . to local educational agencies serving areas with concentrations of children from low income families to expand and improve their educational programs" to meet "the special educational needs of educationally deprived children." Congress later added programs to serve the children of certain migrant parents, neglected or delinquent children, and handicapped children in state operated institutions, and Indian children.

To carry out Congressional policy, local school district and state educational departments design and operate programs funded under Title I to address the special needs of these disadvantaged children.

FIGURE 1: The 1980 Title I Dollar — What Does It Buy?



SOURCE: Based on allotment figures for FY 1980 in unpublished tables provided by U. S. Department of Education.

[a] Includes basic and concentration grants.

[b] Subject to adjustments in Migrant Transfer Record System.

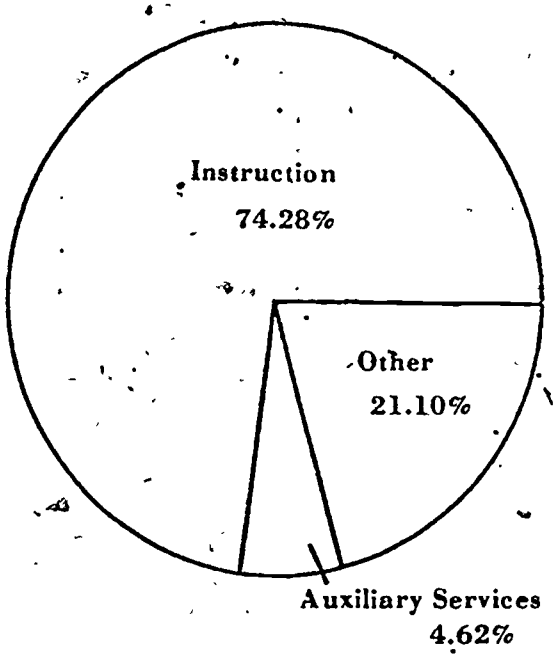
As illustrated in Figure I, over 86 percent of all Title I dollars is used by school districts to provide specially designed supplementary programs for educationally deprived children in poor schools. Just under 12 percent is provided to states for targeted assistance to children of migratory farmers or fishermen, to handicapped children in state agencies, and to neglected or delinquent children. Of the remainder, 1.5 percent is set aside to reimburse states for performing the administrative functions connected with Title I, and .5 percent is reserved to improve local evaluations of Title I and to assess the program's effectiveness.[2]

I. Title I School District Programs

Since school districts have considerable flexibility in how they use their Title I funds, there is no single example of a Title I program. Title I projects differ from district to district as do other educational programs.

School districts determine which schools will receive Title I funds and which students will receive what kind of services based on a local assessment of the specific needs of the children in each school. The law and regulations require that programs be targeted to schools in the poorest neighborhoods, that the students in greatest educational need to be served first and that the services provided with Title I funds be in addition to the regular services provided to students from state and local sources. The law also stipulates that school districts establish advisory councils to encourage parent involvement in the planning, carrying out, and evaluating of Title I projects.

Figure II: What Do Title I Funds Buy at the School District Level?



SOURCE: NIE, Compensatory Education Services. 1977. p. 19

Although each school district's Title I program is unique, some national patterns exist.. Figure II illustrates that school districts use Title I funds primarily for direct instruction for participating students, spending, on average, three quarters of their Title I allotment on these classroom services. This instruction is most frequently in remedial reading and mathematics for elementary school students farthest behind. Another one-fifth of these Title I funds pay for other expenses directly related to classroom services; those expenses include salaries for support personnel, fringe benefits, equipment, building maintenance and capital outlays..

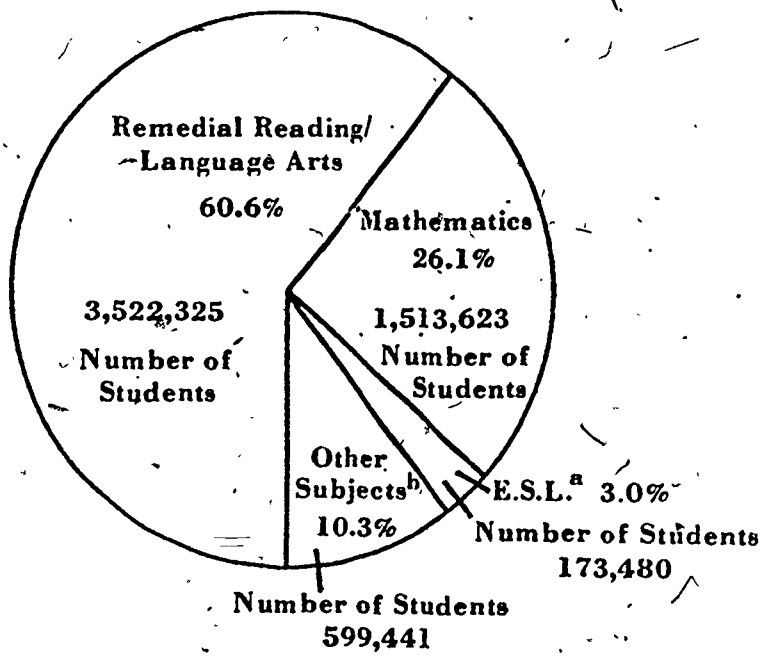
Less than 5 percent of the total school district Title I budget is used to fund auxiliary services such as parent involvement activities, libraries, health and nutritional services, and counseling. With the exception of expenditures for parent involvement activities, including parent advisory councils, the

proportion of Title I monies spent on auxiliary services had declined by 20 percent from 1973 to 1978. Library services and guidance programs have been the first to be dropped or reduced.[3]

Since there are insufficient Title I funds to serve all eligible schools and students or provide compensatory instruction in every subject area and grade level, school districts must often select the subject areas and grade levels in which they will use their Title I funds.

Remedial reading and basic mathematics are the subject areas most frequently supported with Title I funds as Figure III demonstrates. Over 86 percent of Title I compensatory services are in those areas; remedial reading/language arts alone accounts for almost two-thirds of the Title I instructional programs. In 1977 the National Institute of Education reported that 95 percent of all

Figure III: Compensatory Instruction Received by Title I Students by Subject 1978-79



SOURCE: Figures derived from unpublished table "FY 1978 Number of Participants Who Received Instructional and Service Activities in Title I Programs: LEA Program Participants from Low-Income Areas", U.S. Department of Education

[a] E.S.L. means "English as Second Language"

[b] i.e., pre-school readiness, science, etc.

Title I districts provide supplementary reading/language arts as part of their compensatory education offerings.[4] Other instructional areas funded in whole or in part by Title I include pre-school readiness programs, social studies/cultural awareness, science, vocational skills, services for handicapped children, and English as a second language (ESL) instruction.

Of the approximately 5.2 million students served in Title I programs in 1979, almost three-quarters were in grades 1-6 while a fifth were in grades 7-12, and less than 7 percent attended pre-K or kindergarten programs.[5]

Quality of Instructional Services in Title I School District Programs

While school districts design a variety of programs with Title I funds, overall, services received by Title I students differ in important ways from those received by non-compensatory students in the same school. On average, Title I services involve smaller classes, more hours of instruction in reading and math, special teachers and aides, and more varied instructional approaches and materials.

Class Size

The Sustaining Effects Study sponsored by the Department of Education found that while Title I students receive their instruction in classes smaller than ones for regular students, the major difference is that Title I students are taught in small group settings by special teachers and aides. The NIE Compensatory Education Study reported that the average class size for compensatory instruction is 9 students for remedial reading and 12 students for math. These class sizes are significantly smaller than an average homeroom size of 27 students in the Title I schools studied.[6]

Instructional Time

Even though the number of hours in a school day is fixed, Title I students receive considerably more hours of instruction, on the average, in the basic skills areas of reading and math than do regular students. These comparisons, however, seem to fluctuate according to grade level and subject area. For example, Title I and non-Title I students in first and second grades receive approximately the same amount of reading instruction. Beginning in the third grade and continuing through the sixth grade, Title I students have considerably more hours of reading instruction than do non-Title I students. On the other hand, compensatory education students receive much more instruction in mathematics in all of the first six grades. Overall, regular students receive about 4.8 hours of math instruction per week while compensatory students receive 5.8 hours per week or about 20 percent more.[7]

Content and Method of Instruction

According to teacher survey data, Title I students generally receive different and more varied content in their special instruction than they do in their regular classroom instruction. Especially in reading, Title I students are exposed to more basic or remedial content of instruction than are regular students. Although there are considerable differences across grades and programs, Title I students in grades 1-6, for example, more frequently practice writing letters or groups of letters, learn sight words, and read orally than do regular students. These differences in content and teaching methods become more pronounced in later grades.

Also, Title I teachers and aides more often attempt to individualize the type and content of instruction for their students than do regular teachers,

And, Title I teachers more frequently design their curriculum on the basis of objective needs assessment data such as test scores rather than a standard, approved curriculum.

Instructional approaches, of course, vary widely in both regular and Title I classrooms. Nonetheless, in general, Title I students receive more instruction from teachers and aides who use a wider variety of instructional materials including individual viewing equipment, study carrels, learning centers, and special reading machines.[8]

Location of Instruction

Most students receive their compensatory instruction outside the regular classroom.[9] Thus, there is apparently a wide-spread but erroneous belief that the Title I law or regulations require pull-out programs -- removing students from their regular classrooms for a part of the school day to obtain additional remedial instruction.

However, Title I services can and are given in regular classrooms, in small groups within a classroom, and in learning centers within the regular class, as well as in summer school, after school and in weekend programs. For example:

- In the Personalized Instruction Program in Westminster, Colorado, specialists work with regular classroom teachers and aides in the classroom to create instructional activities individually tailored to each child's learning style and interests. These individualized activities are especially designed to reinforce the classroom teacher's language arts curriculum.

- The Reading English Rotation Project in Thomson, Georgia relies on team teaching and a rotating classroom approach. Students are divided into small, flexible groups which move among the various learning stations within the classroom.

- Teachers with Title I students in Warren, Michigan work with reading specialists and the principal within the classroom to develop a step-by-step program for selected students. The program, A Chance for Every Child, provides the student instruction at his/her individual level with high interest materials. The teacher retains primary responsibility for putting the plan into action using materials developed by the specialists.[10]

Based on research which found that both approaches can be equally effective, Congress, in reauthorizing Title I in 1978, "emphasize[d] that Title I should not be considered to encourage or require any particular instructional strategy" and directed the Department of Education to "develop regulations which inform program administrators how to design 'in-class' as well as 'pull-out' programs for Title I." [11]

II. Title I State Agency Set-Aside Programs

In addition to funding the supplemental services for low-achieving students in local school districts, almost 12 percent of the Title I funds are spent on three other programs operated by state educational agencies.

Title I Programs for Migratory Children

In school year 1980, the federal government made grants totaling $209.6 million to state education departments to meet the special educational needs of children whose parents are migratory agricultural workers or migratory fishermen. With these funds and federal technical assistance, each participating state department (1) establishes or improves projects which serve migrant children, either directly or through local school districts, and (2) coordinates its programs with those in other states and arranges for the computerized transferral of school records for migratory students.

By 1980 the Title I Migrant Program offered educational and related services to over 520,000 migrant students in about 16,000 schools in 47 states and Puerto Rico. The largest of these grants went to Texas ($63 million), California ($54 million), Florida ($17 million), and Washington ($9 million).[12]

Migrant projects differ from state to state and district to district, just as the school district programs for educationally disadvantaged children do. However, most include remedial reading and writing in English and the students' home language.[13]

A major success of this program has been the development of a nationwide computerized communication system which permits rapid transmission of student background and achievement data. This Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS) allows schools receiving migrant children to more quickly and accurately find or establish proper educational programs for these students. A Coordinated Skills Information System (SIS) is now being added to MSRTS. Information about the reading and math skills which students have mastered are available to help teachers design appropriate educational programs.

Very few children of migrant workers graduate from high school. It is estimated that even in the early 1970's, 9 out of every 10 migrant children did not attend high school and only 3 out of 10 of those who did, graduated.[14] The MSRTS as well as the other special services of the Migrant program are designed to overcome obstacles contributing to this low high school completion rate. In addition, the Washington-Texas Secondary Credit Exchange project, funded by the Migrant program, is a successful pilot program which permits the transfer of credit for courses taken in one state to meet the graduation requirements in another state.

Since society has long overlooked the special needs of migratory workers and their families, drawing migrant children into the school system is itself

a goal of the program. In 1978, the Department of Education began a major "child find" campaign to identify all eligible migrant children. The initial success of these efforts is suggested by the growth of this program from 121 projects in 1967 serving about 43,000 students to 3,000 project sites in 1979 serving approximately 522,000 students. The migrant child search, however, is far from complete; it was estimated in 1978 that approximately 500,000 children remained unserved.[15]

Title I Programs for Handicapped Children

In 1980 approximately 225,500 handicapped children in 3,900 state schools and 3,100 local educational agencies received services funded by this Title I program. The primary emphasis of this program is to provide special services to (1) handicapped students in full-time residential institutions supported with state funds, (2) handicapped students who are enrolled in a regular school but require additional assistance from itinerant specialists, and (3) handicapped children confined to their home because of the severity of their handicap.

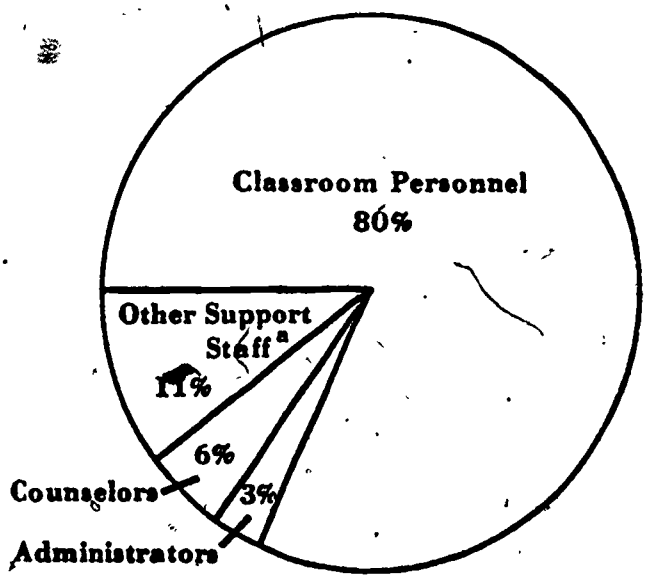
Because these funds are used in a number of ways to supplement other state and federal resources for the handicapped, it is difficult to isolate and generalize about the services handicapped students receive under this one program. However, Title I generally funds (in whole or in part): speech, audiology, and psychological services; physical and occupational therapy; and counseling and medical services for diagnostic or evaluation purposes.

Title I Programs for Neglected or Delinquent Children?

The addition of this program to Title I in 1966 (P.L. 89-750) represented the first federal effort to improve educational experiences of children in institutions for neglected or delinquent youth or in adult correctional facilities. In 1980, funding for the Title I Neglected and Delinquent Program was $33.1 million.

Services funded by this program vary considerably from site to site depending on how a facility organizes its regular educational programs. Most minimum security facilities, where students can move from class to class, provide services in the same way regular schools do -- in pull-out or in-class programs emphasizing basic reading and math skills. Other facilities hold Title I classes in one or two rooms with tight security. As Figure IV illustrates, approximately 80 percent of all Title I funds for neglected or delinquent children are spent on classroom personnel, primarily teachers and aides. Another 11 percent cover expenditures for other support staff such as teacher resource specialists, community/school liaisons, and evaluation and other technical assistance staff, while local administrative costs account for approximately 3 percent of the total allotment.

Figure IV: What Title I Funds for Neglected and Delinquent Children Buy



[a] i.e., teacher resource specialists, community/school liaisons, evaluation specialists.

SOURCE: System Development Corporation. "National Evaluation of Title I Progress for Neglected or Delinquent Youth in State Institutions," Interim Report for Contract 300-76-0093 with U.S. Office of Education(Santa Monica, Calif., 1977).

WHO PARTICIPATES IN TITLE I SCHOOL DISTRICT PROGRAMS?

Title I is truly national in scope. Over 87 percent of the approximately 16,000 local school districts, nationwide, participate in the program. More than 4.9 million public school children and 185,140 non-public school children, or approximately 5.2 million, received Title I services in local school districts during school year 1979-80.[1] About 73 percent (or 3.8 million) of these children attended grades 1-6, representing almost 16 percent of the public and non-public school enrollment in these grades.

School districts employed an equivalent of 241,827 full-time teachers, aides, administrators, and other professional and support staff in Title I school district projects in fiscal year 1979.[2] The nation's six largest school districts use Title I dollars to fund about 5 percent of their teaching staff and over 40 percent of their educational aides. Almost 700,000 parents of Title I students serve on advisory councils and participate in other program activities.[3] This section describes some of the characteristics of these participants in Title I school district projects.

I. Title I Students

There are not enough Title I funds to serve all the children performing below grade level in the country's schools. Thus, Congress decided to concentrate these limited resources on educationally deprived children attending the poorest schools. In general, only those schools in which the concentration of poor children is as large as the district's average are eligible for Title I projects. Usually, the poorest schools must be served first. However, to give districts flexibility to meet local circumstances, the law allows the

use of other criteria for selecting schools under certain circumstances. For example, a school district may choose to maintain a Title I project for two years after a school loses its eligibility according to strict poverty rankings. The law also permits the use of a variety of poverty standards to rank schools, including Census data, free lunch or breakfast counts, AFDC records, school surveys, or housing and employment statistics.

Once a school district selects its target schools, a pool of eligible children "having the greatest need" for remedial help are identified at each target school. In general, the students performing most poorly in school must be served first. Schools determine poor performance on the basis of standardized achievement scores, teacher judgments, or some combination of methods. In order to strengthen the program's continuity, the law allows school districts to continue services to children no longer in greatest need, but who are still educationally deprived. Title I gives school districts flexibility in other respects; it permits the districts to keep children in the program who are transferred to an ineligible school or to skip the lowest achieving students if they are receiving similar services from other state and local programs.

The most recent and comprehensive study of who participates in Title I school district programs reports that "[i]t is clear in terms of percentages, that poor children and educationally needy children are the principal recipients of Title I."[4] However, largely because of limited funding and flexible school/student selection procedures, almost half of the low achieving students in

grades 1-6 -- or almost 3 million students,-- do not receive any compensatory education services. In junior and senior high schools even fewer educationally deprived students receive the services of Title I. The National Institute of Education's Compensatory Education Study reported in 1977 that in Title I districts with both elementary and secondary schools, only 1 percent of the secondary school students received Title I-funded services.[5]

Table II: Percentage of Children Who Receive Title I and Other Compensatory Education Services by Family Income and Student Achievement Levels (Grades 2-6)

	Poor/Low Achiever	Non-Poor Low Achiever	Poor Regular Achiever	Non-Poor/ Regular Achiever
Title I,[a] School District Programs	40%	26	22	8
Other Compensatory Services	14	16	8	9
No Compensatory Education	47	58	70	83
TOTAL	101%[b]	100	100	100%

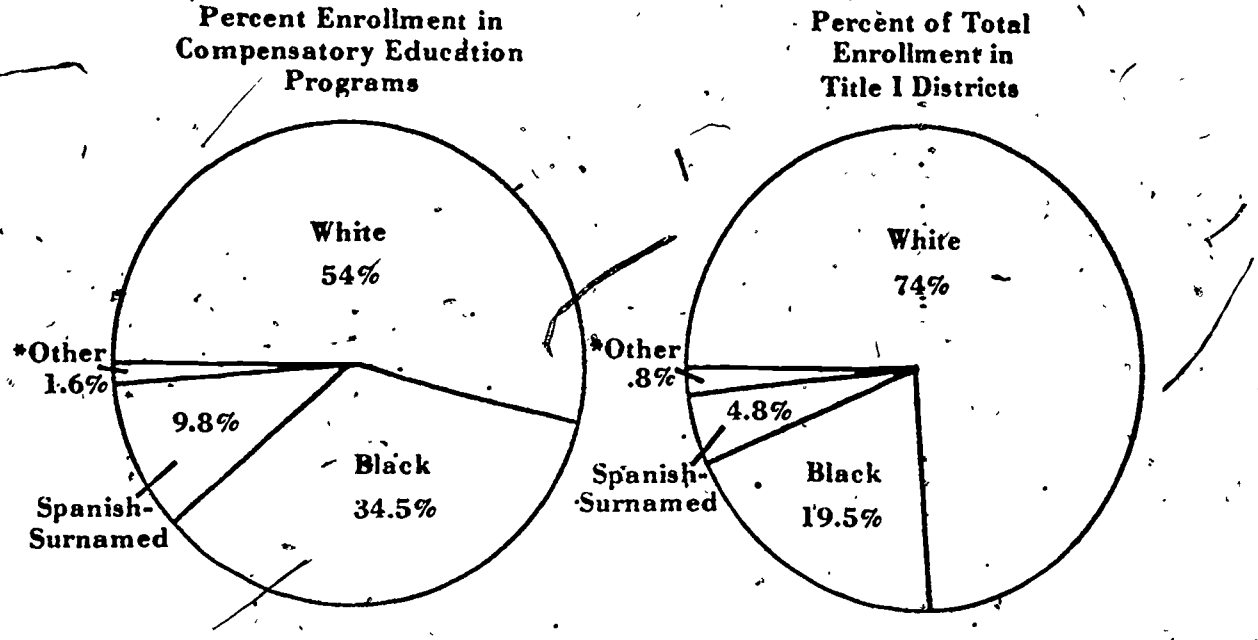
[a] Some Title I students also receive compensatory services from other federal, state, and local sources.
[b] Does not total to 100% due to rounding error.

SOURCE: Adapted from The Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report, 1980, p. 66: Table III-14.

An inspection of Table II shows that 40 percent of the children who are both poor and low achievers and 26 percent of the non-poor low achievers receive Title I services.[6] Another 30 percent of these students are enrolled in compensatory programs funded from other federal, state, and local sources.

A large percentage of low achievers, both poor and non-poor receive no compensatory services. The data also indicate that some regular achievers are receiving Title I services, but this may be due to differences in how the study defined "regular achievers" and how districts actually identify participating students. The flexibility of the law's school/student selection requirements may also account for the presence of some of the "regular achievers." However, it also appears that some school districts are actually serving some ineligible students. Nonetheless, the percentages reported in this table show that low achievers are the primary recipients of Title I services and that Title I is much more targeted on these children than other compensatory education programs.

Figure V: A Comparison of the Racial/Ethnic Composition of Compensatory Education Programs in Title I Districts to District Averages



*Other, i.e., American Indians, Asian, Pacific Islander.

SOURCE: Adapted from figures in NIE, Compensatory Education Services, 1977, p. 14: Table 2 "Racial/Ethnic Composition of Title I Districts."

The most recent data available comparing the racial/ethnic background of compensatory education students, primarily Title I students, with the average racial composition of Title I school districts are presented in Figure V. These figures show that the concentration of minority students in compensatory programs in Title I districts is substantially higher than that in the districts as a whole: 34 percent of the compensatory education students are black, compared with 19 percent of the total enrollment; 10 percent are Spanish surnamed, compared with 5 percent of total enrollment; and 54 percent are white, compared with 75 percent of total enrollment.

Table III reports the most recent available data (FY 1979) on the age, sex, and language background of Title I participants in grades 1-6.

Table III: Characteristics of Title I Participants: Age, Sex, Language Background Percentages (Grades 1-6 only)

Age	Percentage
5 - 6 years	12
7	17
8	18
9	17
10	17
11	14
12	4
	100 %
Sex	
Female	44
Male	56
	100 %
Language Background	
English spoken at home	84
Spanish spoken at home	12
Other language spoken at home	4
	100 %

Source: ED, Annual Evaluation Report on Education Programs, 1980, p. 14.

Title I in Non-Public Schools

In fiscal year 1980 an estimated 191,000 private school students participated in Title I school district programs. This represents about 4 percent of the over 5 million students enrolled in private schools.[7] Although non-public schools cannot receive Title I funds directly, eligible students attending non-public schools and living in Title I project areas must receive services comparable to those eligible public school students receive. The most frequently used methods for serving these students include mobile educational units and equipment, dual enrollment, and the use of employees paid by public schools with Title I funds who work in non-public schools attended by eligible students.

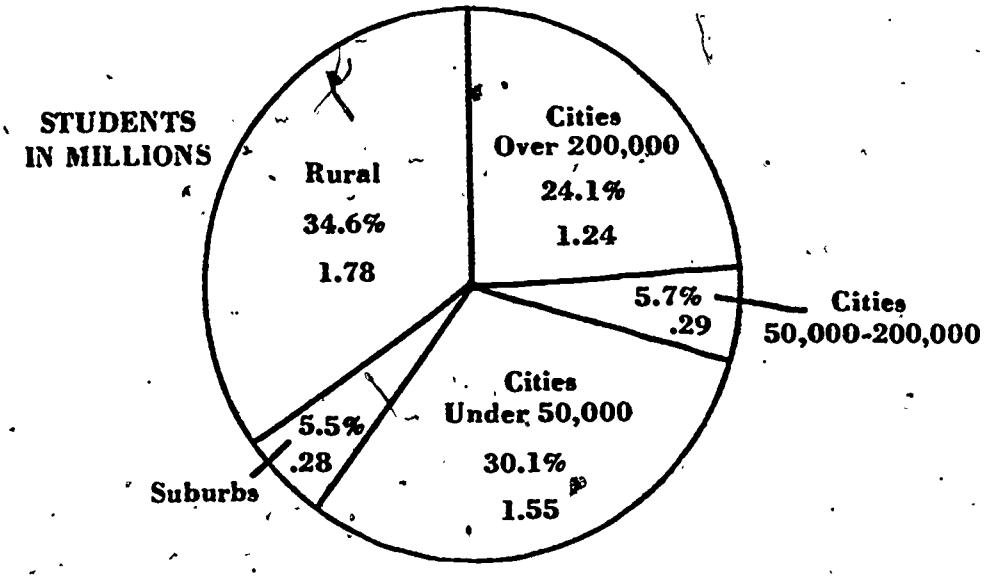
In states where local districts substantially fail to provide Title I services to eligible non-public school children or when state statute prevents school districts from providing such services, the U.S. Secretary of Education may invoke what is called the by-pass provision. That is, the Department of Education may contract with an independent agency to serve eligible students in non-public schools and may pay for these services with part of the state and school districts' Title I allotment.

Until recently, basic descriptive data on the participation rates of and services to eligible non-public school students have been limited. For example, prior to 1978, Title I school district grantees were not required to report separately: (1) benefits provided to non-public and public school students, or (2) the effectiveness of Title I for both types of students. Without such data it is impossible to determine if non-public school children are receiving equitable services.

Urban/Rural Participation in Title I School District Programs

Rural areas rank highest in terms of the number of Title I students served. Figure VI illustrates that there are approximately 1.78 million Title I students attending rural schools. Cities under 500,000 rank second with approximately 1.55 million Title I students. The smallest number of Title I students are enrolled in suburban schools.

Figure VI: Percentage and Estimated Number of Students Receiving Title I School District Services by Urbanicity, FY 1979[8]



Almost 13 percent (or 650,994) of students in Title I school district programs are concentrated in 6 of the country's largest districts listed in Table IV.[9]

Table IV: Title I Participation in the Nation's Six Largest School Districts (1980-81 School Year)

City	ENROLLMENT		NO. OF SCHOOLS		TEACHERS (FTE)		AIDES (FTE)	
	District	Title I	District	Title I	District	Title I	District	Title I
New York City	945,116	202,057	939	563	53,305	3,105	11,244	3,945
Los Angeles	538,596	221,936	666	227	20,552[a]	1,075[a]	--	1,250[a]
Chicago	458,497	64,147	626	300	24,562	1,157	--	1,265
Philadelphia	228,971	92,867	512	224	12,331	569	2,532	1,258
Detroit	216,373	41,534	366	209	8,300[a]	441	2,005[a]	1,583
Dade County (Miami)	232,951	28,453	342	103	11,602	199	1,279	167
TOTALS	2,620,504	650,994[b]	3,451	1,626	130,652	6,546		9,468

[a] Estimates

[b] Only three of the districts were able to report public and non-public school Title I students separately. In these three school districts, Title I public school students represent 26 percent of the total public school enrollments in their districts. On the other hand, Title I students (both public and private) in the six largest school districts represent 24 percent of the total public school enrollment in their districts.

SOURCE: Telephone interviews with school district personnel, April 1981.

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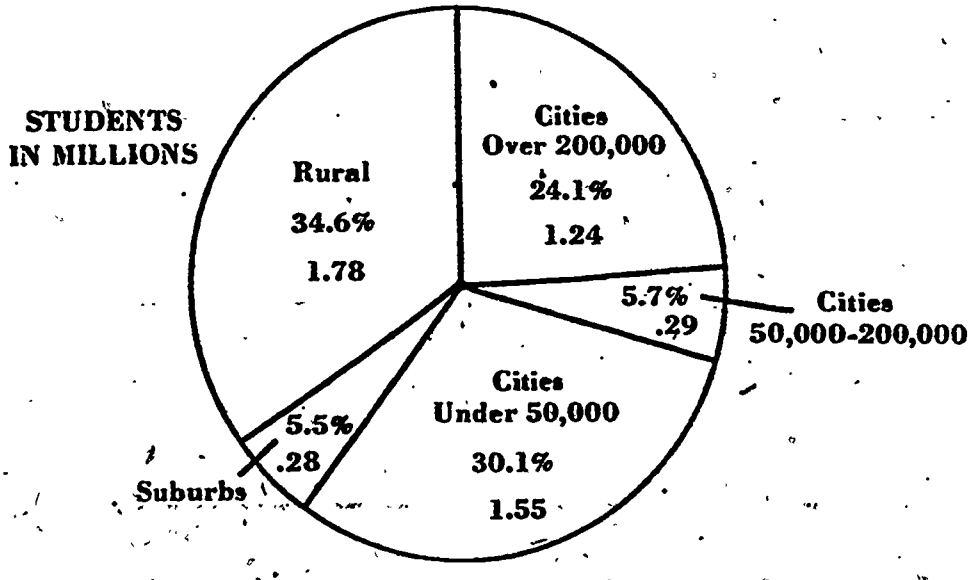

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SOURCE: Telephone interviews with school district personnel, April 1981.

II. Title I School District Staff

During the 1975-76 school year, approximately 111,000 full-time equivalent teachers provided compensatory education instruction in Title I districts. Largely because of higher educational costs, the number of full-time equivalent teachers paid with Title I funds dropped by more than 13,000 or 12.8 percent from 1975 to 1979.

In 1979, Title I paid the salaries of more educational aides than teachers; of the staff members assigned to Title I programs, 97,772 were teachers and 104,286 were educational aides.[10] The data reported by the 6 largest school districts reflect a similar pattern in school year 1980-81. These districts hired the equivalent of approximately 6,546 teachers and 9,468 instructional aides with Title I funds. The 4 districts reporting comparative staffing figures for Table IV, pay for over 40 percent of their instructional aides with Title I funds.

Educational aides generally provide extra attention to students either individually or in small groups. Teachers report that these aides provide individual instruction to students in 75 percent of the compensatory math classes; in 58 percent of the compensatory language arts classes; and in 42 percent of the compensatory reading classes. Students who obtain their compensatory reading instruction from an aide receive on average one hour more of reading instruction a week than do students taught by reading specialists.[11]

Title I teachers are usually highly qualified. Sixty-seven percent have graduate training beyond a bachelor's degree, and 62 percent specialize in one area.[12] As Table V illustrates, Title I teachers tend to have more specialized inservice training and more courses in instructional techniques than do regular teachers in Title I schools. Both groups have similar amounts of college training, but Title I teachers tend to have less teaching experience than regular teachers.

Table V: Comparing Title I and Non-Title I Teachers: Average Training and Experience*

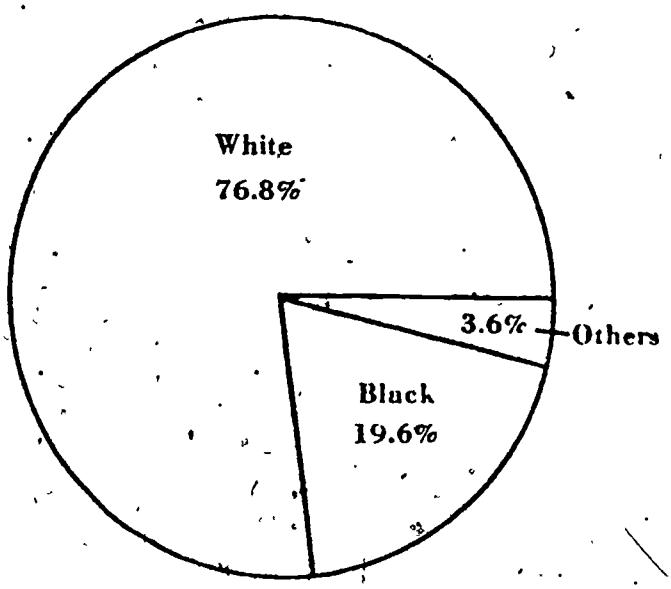
	TITLE I		NON-TITLE I	
	Reading	Mathematics	Reading	Mathematics
Hours of Inservice Training	14.3	8.2	10.9	6.9
Number of College Courses in Specialty Area	1.9	.9	1.2	.6
Highest Degree Level	B.A. plus Graduate Hours	B.A. plus Graduate Hours	B.A. plus Graduate Hours	B.A. plus Graduate Hours
Number of Years Teacher Training	10.3	9.3	11.9	11.9

*In Title I Schools

SOURCE: Adapted from The Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report, 1980., p. 96: Table IV-2 "Average Experience and Training of Teachers"

Figure VII displays the most recent available data on the ethnic distribution of compensatory education teachers. Although this distribution is not representative of the ethnic distribution of compensatory education students, it does approximate that of the total enrollment of Title I districts.[13]

Figure VII: Racial/Ethnic Distribution of Compensatory Education Teachers



SOURCE: Adapted from ME. Compensatory Education Services. 1977. p. 27: Table 9.

III. Parent Involvement in Title I School District Programs

Title I has led the way in recognizing the value of involving parents in the decision-making and the instructional aspects of their children's education. Each school district receiving Title I funds must establish a

district advisory council and an advisory council at each Title I school. In districts with small Title I projects only a district advisory council is required.[14] A majority of the members on these councils must be parents of Title I children. Their functions are to advise the school officials on how to plan, carry out, and evaluate Title I projects.

Between the school years 1977-78 and 1979-80, the number of parents on Title I parent advisory councils increased by 28 percent from 207,345 to 265,755. The number of Title I parents who participated in other Title I activities such as home tutoring, working as in-class aides, and designing and evaluating program plans increased even more dramatically by 66 percent -- from 258,763 to 431,166 from 1977 to 1980.[15]

Congress has long realized that active Title I parents are one of the crucial factors for improving the effectiveness of Title I programs. Thus, parents of Title I children are as integral a part of the program as teachers, aides, administrators, and students.

TITLE I, TODAY AND BEYOND: IMPORTANT POLICY QUESTIONS

The major purpose of this report is to address three questions about Title I today. This section, on the other hand, identifies what the Council sees as important policy questions which need to be considered in order to continue improving services for educationally disadvantaged children in the 1980s and beyond.

1. The federal government, especially over the last 15 years, has assumed an active role in targeting supplemental services to traditionally underserved students, including poor children, ethnic minorities, migrants, Indians, students with limited English proficiency, handicapped children, and certain neglected or delinquent children. As Title I and other federal education programs have developed, the federal government has relied increasingly on extensive and intricate regulations to ensure that these students receive equitable services. On the other hand, local school officials, faced with a growing number of ever more complex regulations, have voiced strident opposition to what they perceive as federal intrusion in education. One of the key policy questions facing educational policymakers in the 1980's is: How can the federal government best accomplish its equity goals without creating undue burdens on local school districts?

2. Federal education programs have evolved in a patchwork fashion in response to particular demands rather than as a result of an overall plan. Until recently each program had its own set of rules, regulations, and guidelines. Each program assumed that the students it served were distinct from children receiving other forms of categorical assistance. In reality, many children are eligible for more than one categorical program. Serious consideration must be given to such questions as: How can schools best serve students who are eligible for more than one categorical program? How can parents best advise school officials in schools and school districts that receive funds from several federal and state programs? How can wider use of the school-wide project concept in the 1978 revision of Title I be fostered?

3. Relatedly, the federal, and in most instances, state administration of Title I is separate from the administration of other federally-funded programs for handicapped children, for bilingual education, and for other civil rights programs and mandates. However, at the local level these programs are highly interdependent. Title I policy, therefore, must be decided in light of its relation to other federal and state categorical programs. Policy questions in need of further research are: What is the cumulative impact of the confluence of state and federal categorical programs on school principals and school district administrators? And, to what degree do school officials use Title I funds to accomplish other program requirements or civil rights mandates?

4. Title I serves very few secondary schools, especially high schools. This is at least partially due to limited Title I funding. There is, however, little systematic information on such questions as: What are barriers to Title I programs in secondary schools? How can these barriers be reduced or eliminated? Are there some particularly effective approaches to compensatory instruction at the secondary level?

GLOSSARY

COMMONLY USED ABBREVIATIONS

AFDC	Aid to Families with Dependent Children
ED	United States Department of Education
ESEA	Elementary and Secondary Education Act
ESL	English as a Second Language
FTE	Full Time Equivalent
FY	Fiscal Year
JDRP	Joint Dissemination and Review Panel
LEA	Local Education Agency
MSRTS	Migrant Student Record Transfer System
NIE	National Institute of Education
N & D	Neglected or Delinquent
OCE	Office of Compensatory Education
PAC	Parent Advisory Council
SEA	State Education Agency
TACs	Technical Assistance Centers
TIERS	Title I Evaluation and Reporting System

A SUMMARY OF TITLE I PROGRAM REQUIREMENTS [1]

Title I is a categorical program which provides monies to school districts to meet the special educational needs of educationally disadvantaged children in poor schools. It is not intended to provide general funding to local school districts. Because Title I has never been fully funded, school districts generally must select the poorest schools in the districts as Title I schools and choose students farthest behind their peers in these schools as Title I students. To make sure that Title I is not used as general aid and to help ensure that school districts design quality projects, the program includes a number of program requirements. Each of these requirements are based on the program's "Declaration of Policy." (See back cover). The requirements are summarized below.

Funds Allocation Requirements

An interrelated set of requirements concerned with (1) the selection of schools and students who receive Title I funds or (2) with the use of Title I funds so that they provide special services for educationally deprived children.

Comparability generally requires that the level of local services in every Title I school be roughly equal to the average level in non-Title I schools. These requirements are designed to ensure that Federal assistance is not used to support a level of services already available in non-Title I schools in the district. It is generally measured in terms of two ratios: pupil to staff and expenditures per pupil for instructional salaries.

Eligibility criteria set standards for which school districts are eligible to receive Title I assistance, define eligible schools as those having high concentrations of children from low-income families, and identify the class of potential recipients as children who are educationally deprived.

Equitably provided regulations require that Title I children in Title I schools receive their fair share of specific services in comparison to children in non-Title I schools. These regulations are particularly useful when districts are introducing a new, locally provided service to some but not all children. If a district implements a limited new program to teach English as a second language, the equitably provided rule stipulates that Title I children be involved in the new program in relation to their proportion of the total number of children in the district.

Excess cost requirement clarifies the supplanting provisions by stipulating that Title I funds can pay only for the excess costs of Title I programs and projects. If, for example, a district is spending $1,000 per pupil, and the local Title I program is designed to provide the same program at a more intensive level, Title I may pay only for the costs of the program that are in excess of $1,000 per pupil. Therefore, the supplement-not-supplant and excess cost provisions are closely related. The supplanting provisions prevent local school districts from penalizing children in Title I programs when allocating state and local funds. The excess cost provision requires that Title I funds pay only the costs of services beyond normal instructional expenditures.

General aid provisions give broad direction to school districts requiring them to serve only "educationally deprived" children with Title I funds and not the student body at large.

Maintenance of effort provisions require that a district's funding from state and local sources does not decrease. Without such provisions, states or districts could substitute Title I dollars for local and state funds. Thus, the requirement is designed to ensure that Title I grantees do not shift ongoing financial responsibility for basic education programs to the federal government.

Supplement-Not-Supplant requirements are intended to ensure that Title I funds are added to, and not used to replace, state and local funds. Children in Title I programs must receive the level of state and local funds they would have received if Title I did not exist.

Targeting standards determine which of the eligible areas and children will in fact be served.

Program Development Requirements

Program development requirements establish the procedures that school districts must follow in designing and implementing Title I programs. These six major requirements are meant to ensure that the services provided are related to the needs of the children to be served and that they are carefully planned, implemented, and evaluated.

The complaint resolution requirements are intended to provide parents and other interested individuals procedural safeguards for resolving their complaints about Title I projects. The 1978 law stipulates that school districts, state departments, and the Department of Education develop procedures for investigating and resolving complaints.

The concentration requirement is intended to ensure that Title I funds provide services of sufficient size, scope, and quality to give reasonable promise of success. This requirement takes on added importance since Title I typically is not fully funded.

The coordination requirement is intended to prevent Title I from duplicating benefits provided to the target population by ensuring that Title I services are planned in conjunction with other federal and state agency programs.

The needs assessment requirement is the first step in the program development process and involves identifying educationally disadvantaged children and specifying their needs. This requirement is intended to ensure that all educationally disadvantaged children residing in low-income areas are identified.

The parent involvement requirement prescribes the nature and extent of parental involvement in the development and operation of Title I programs.

The program design regulation requires a formal plan establishing objectives for the Title I program and the specification of activities and services to accomplish the desired ends, based on the results of the needs assessment.

The program evaluation requirement provides that the effects of the Title I program be assessed. The results of these assessments should be used by school districts in the design of future Title I programs and must be reported to the state education agencies.

OTHER FREQUENTLY USED TERMS

Under the by-pass provision, the U.S. Secretary of Education withholds funds from any applicant, usually a public school, and arranges to provide Title I services directly to private school students.

Categorical grants are to be used for specially defined activities, certain categories of recipients, or legislatively established purposes.

Compensatory education - educational or support services intended to upgrade or compensate for skill deficiencies of children doing poorly in schools.

Educationally-deprived children - children whose educational attainment is below the level that is appropriate for children of their age.

Pull-out programs - programs in which students receive their compensatory instruction outside the regular classroom.

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

APPENDIX A: A COMPARISON OF TITLE I EXPENDITURES AND ENROLLMENTS BY STATE

EXPENDITURES				ENROLLMENT		
Total 1977 Expenditures (in Thousands)	1977 Title I Allotments[a]	Title I's Percent of Total	State	Total Public[b] Elementary/ Secondary Enrollment Fall, 1978	Elementary/ Secondary[c] Title I Students 1978	Title I's Percent of Total
869,768	46,856,196	5.4	Alabama	761,566	132,856	17.4
281,317	6,414,381	2.8	Alaska	90,728	4,361	4.8
735,562	20,785,846	2.8	Arizona	509,830	62,354	12.2
466,185	29,388,487	6.3	Arkansas	456,698	76,080	16.7
7,509,475	171,556,617	2.3	California	4,187,967	568,271	13.6
871,358	18,864,321	2.2	Colorado	558,235	30,467	5.5
1,017,775	19,873,823	1.9	Connecticut	593,757	56,068	9.4
213,513	5,989,339	2.8	Delaware	111,034	10,316	9.3
259,240	12,451,797	4.8	D.C.	113,858	17,428	15.3
2,018,723	81,023,365	4.0	Florida	1,513,819	156,540	10.3
1,300,517	51,701,581	3.9	Georgia	1,093,256	142,505	
293,654	5,960,644	2.0	Hawaii	170,761	11,887	6.9
220,694	6,916,580	3.1	Idaho	203,022	14,989	7.4
3,508,470	101,549,806	2.9	Illinois	2,100,157	161,590	7.7
1,435,803	27,114,681	1.9	Indiana	1,113,331	116,111	10.4
952,610	16,595,598	1.7	Iowa	568,340	48,127	8.5
639,317	15,377,971	2.4	Kansas	433,547	28,350	6.5
719,821	38,187,889	5.3	Kentucky	692,999	112,790	16.3
1,006,845	56,061,676	5.7	Louisiana	816,669	155,811	19.1
294,991	8,662,288	2.9	Maine	240,016	33,032	13.8
1,436,175	34,183,719	2.4	Maryland	809,933	78,500	9.7
2,170,829	42,268,394	1.9	Massachusetts	1,081,464	59,621	5.5
3,380,879	90,041,996	4.1	Michigan	1,911,345	146,273	7.7
1,470,991	31,899,426	2.7	Minnesota	807,716	66,231	8.2
536,849	46,115,961	8.9	Mississippi	493,710	100,945	20.4
1,187,463	34,678,447	3.0	Missouri	900,002	91,291	10.1
276,664	7,440,778	2.7	Montana	164,325	11,881	7.2
476,120	10,024,081	2.1	Nebraska	297,796	30,636	10.3
188,334	2,827,541	1.5	Nevada	146,281	5,360	3.7
226,714	3,715,312	1.6	New Hampshire	172,389	8,000	4.6
2,753,830	58,033,106	2.1	New Jersey	1,337,327	97,354	7.3
368,023	18,951,500	5.1	New Mexico	279,249	27,133	9.7
7,074,875	204,068,799	2.9	New York	3,093,885	352,944	11.4
1,373,365	59,582,110	4.3	N. Carolina	1,152,810	139,106	11.9
180,193	5,954,059	3.3	N. Dakota	122,021	13,669	11.2
2,952,327	59,937,461	2.0	Ohio	2,102,440	126,216	6.0
737,118	22,643,692	3.1	Oklahoma	588,870	89,890	15.3
819,785	20,939,846	2.6	Oregon	471,374	34,930	7.4
3,708,810	94,121,451	2.5	Pennsylvania	2,046,736	272,381	13.3
281,889	7,328,661	2.6	Rhode Island	160,656	17,351	10.1
682,387	36,992,607	5.4	S. Carolina	624,931	113,002	18.1
188,066	6,409,994	3.4	S. Dakota	138,228	15,884	11.5
986,698	43,132,889	4.4	Tennessee	873,035	100,158	11.5
3,512,137	147,992,810	4.2	Texas	2,867,254	437,455	15.3
366,494	6,993,369	1.9	Utah	326,025	19,184	5.9
149,017	4,843,103	3.2	Vermont	101,292	10,713	10.6
1,467,142	44,446,810	3.0	Virginia	1,055,238	104,073	9.9
1,213,890	27,271,157	2.2	Washington	769,246	56,984	7.8
501,084	18,946,931	3.8	West Virginia	395,722	43,537	11.0
1,409,191	32,782,836	2.3	Wisconsin	886,419	63,090	7.1
149,880	3,252,910	2.1	Wyoming	94,328	4,794	5.1
			American Samoa	NA	2,302	
			Guam	NA	1,075	
			Puerto Rico	721,419	233,921	32.4
			Trust Territory	NA	7,987	
			Virgin Islands	23,138	1,128	4.5
66,815,837	1,969,172,380		TOTAL	42,611,000	4,955,283	
1,310,114	38,611,223		AVERAGE	803,981	88,487	

[a] SOURCE: Unpublished U. S. Department of Education tables.

[b] SOURCE: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics, Statistics of Public Elementary and Secondary Day Schools, Fall 1978, 1979.

[c] SOURCE: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, unpublished tabulations: includes children living in low-income areas and/or local institutions for neglected and delinquent children.

* estimated.

APPENDIX B: A SAMPLER OF "EXEMPLARY" TITLE I-FUNDED PROJECTS

Educational Programs That Work, (Fall, 1980), prepared for ED's National Diffusion Network, lists and describes 140 "exemplary" projects. Fifty-three of these were developed with Title I funds. Among other requirements to attain "exemplary" status, each project must demonstrate to ED's Joint Dissemination and Review Panel (JDRP) its effectiveness with objective evidence. Space only permits a brief description of a handful of these projects. Copies of this catalog can be purchased for $5.50 (prepaid) from: Order Department, Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1855 Folsom Street, San Francisco, CA 94103.

IRIT: Intensive Reading Instructional Teams - Hartford, Connecticut

The IRIT program in Hartford, Connecticut is a highly-focused laboratory project for third and fourth grade students with reading problems. The program places emphasis on three areas: encoding/decoding, individualized reading, and vocabulary/comprehension. Students receive 3 hours of intensive instruction in these skills in the morning and return to the classroom teacher in the afternoon for instruction in other basic subjects. Test results indicate that students enrolled in the program show a seven-month gain for every ten weeks of the program.

CLASSROOM INTERVENTION: Individualized Basic Skill Reading Program - Seattle, Washington

This program demonstrates that even in the inner city, Title I programs can achieve outstanding results. Classroom Intervention uses a system of continuous feedback and reinforcement, multiple basal materials, and, through the effective use of teachers and aides, provides individualized attention to students. It also offers a resource room for severely disadvantaged readers. Because of these built-in success factors, students have more than doubled their average reading gains.

Hawaii Basic Skills Remediation Project - Hilo, Hawaii

Parental involvement is key to the success of the Hawaii Basic Skills Remediation Project and has resulted in behavioral as well as academic improvement of students in grades 3 through 8. Along with aiding teachers in the selection of students for the program, parents work with their children in the evening, offer encouragement for good work, and sign all homework assignments. Within the classroom, students receive small prizes as incentives for good work and attendance. The program has almost doubled students' reading skills and math achievement scores.

Pre-Algebra Development Centers - Chicago, Illinois

This eight-week summer mathematics program for pre-high school students concentrates on five areas: ratios and proportions, fractions, decimals, percents, and metric education. It employs mathematic laboratory and regular classroom instruction, individualized diagnosis and remediation, coupled with reading in mathematics. Longitudinal evidence shows that 95 percent of the participants pass algebra with a high degree of success and 85 percent take additional math courses beyond algebra.

NOTES

Preface

1. P.L. 95-561, Section 196, 1978 (See inside back cover for text of this provision).

Introduction

1. Based on most recent estimates for school year 1976-77 as reported in the Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report (Santa Monica, California: System Development Corporation, 1980), p. 10 and pp. 85-87.

Are Title I, LEA Programs Effective?

1. See for example, Gene Glass, Education of the Disadvantaged: An Evaluation Report for Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act for Fiscal Year 1969; D. Hawkridge, et. al., "A Study of Selected Exemplary Programs for the Education of Disadvantaged Children," (Palo Alto, Calif.: American Institutes for Research, 1968), prepared for U.S. Office of Education, mimeo; Picariello, Harry, et. al., "Evaluation of Title I" (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Program Planning and Evaluation, 1969), mimeo; E. J. Mosbaek, et. al., "Analysis of Compensatory Education in Five School Districts: Summary; TEMPO, the General Electric Company, n.d.

2. National Institute of Education, The Effects of Services on Student Development (Washington, D.C., 1977), p. 19.

3. "A Title I Researcher Talks About Re-examining Federal Education Programs," Education Times, December 9, 1980, p. 2.

4. See p. 13-6 of Seventh Education for complete listing of Title I-funded exemplary projects.

5. Patterns in ESEA Title I Reading Achievement Report (Menlo Park, Calif., 1976), Report No. EPRC 4537-12, p. iii.

6. U.S. Department of Education, "Annual Evaluation Report on Education Programs" (Washington, D.C., February 1980), p. 27.

7. Donald Trisman et. al., Final Report on the Study of Compensatory Reading Programs (Princeton, N.J., Educational Testing Service, 1976), prepared for U.S. Office of Education, Executive Summary, p. 3.

8. The Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report (Santa Monica, Calif.,: System Development Corporation, 1980), p.2.

9. The Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report, p. 2 and pp. 149-61.

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10. National Assessment of Educational Progress, Three National Assessments of Reading: Changes in Performance, 1970-80 (Denver, Col.: Education Commission of the States, April 1981), Report No. 11-R-01.

11. "Reading Skills Up at Age 9; Warning Signs for Older Students," NAEP Bulletin, April 29, 1981.

12. See for example: Stephen Bailey and Edith Mosher, ESEA: The Office of Education Administers a Law (Syracuse University Press, 1968); Jerome Murphy, "Title I of ESEA: The Politics of Implementing Federal Education Reform;" Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 41, No. 1, February 1971, pp. 35-63; Floyd Stoner, "The Implementation of Ambiguous Legislative Language: Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act," unpublished doctoral dissertation (Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1976).

13. Adapted from National Institute of Education, Administration of Compensatory Education (Washington, D.C. 1977), p. xii.

14. See for example: Stephen Barro, "Federal Education Goals and Policy Instruments: An Assessment of the 'Strings' Attached Categorical Grants in Education" in the Federal Interest in Financing Schooling, Michael Timpane (editor), (Cambridge, Mass.: Ballinger, 1979), p. 237 and fn. 3; A. Mundell, Resource Distribution Inside School Districts (Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, 1975); J. Owen, "The Distribution of Educational Resources in Large American Cities," Journal of Human Resources, Vol. 7, 1972, pp. 171-190.

15. Title I Funds Allocation: The Current Formula, pp. 93-94, emphasis added.

16. Jerome Murphy, "Title I of ESEA: The Politics of Implementing Federal Education Reform," Harvard Educational Review, vol. 41, No. 1, February 1971, p. 38.

17. Administration of Compensatory Education, p. 57.

18. Administration of Compensatory Education, p. 73, emphasis added; see also Stephen Barro, pp. 236-240.

19. Section 124(d), P.L. 95-561, 20 USC 2734.

20. Ruby Martin and Phyllis McClure, Title I, ESEA: Is It Helping Poor Children? (Washington, D.C.: The NAACP Legal Defense and Education Fund, 1970); SRI International: Harold Winslow with Thomas C. Thomas and Ann Heisberger, Trends in Management of ESEA Title I: A Perspective from Compliance Reviews (Menlo Park, Calif.: April, 1979); Michael Wargo, et. al., ESEA Title I, A Reanalysis and Synthesis of the Evidence, (Palo Alto, Calif.: American Institutes for Research, March, 1972), pp. 144-164.

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21. Vincent Breglio, et. al., Report #2: Students' Economic and Educational Status and Selection for Compensatory Education (Santa Ana, Calif.: Decima Research, 1978), prepared for Office of Planning, Budgeting and Evaluation, U.S. Office of Education, pp. iv-v; see fn. 7.

What Do Title I Dollars Buy?

1. Section 101 of P.L. 89-10 as amended by P.L. 95-561, 1978, 20 USC 2701. For Indian children, Title I school district funds are transferred to the Secretary of the Interior for payments to local educational agencies (P.L. 95-561, Section 111(d), 1978).

2. In 1980, although the legislation set a ceiling of .5 percent for evaluation efforts, .4 percent was actually allocated for these activities.

3. NIE Compensatory Education Services, p. 20.

4. Two other data sources reveal very similar patterns in the instructional areas served by compensatory education programs, including Title I: NIE, Compensatory Education Services, 1977, pp. 19-22; Ming-Mei Wang, et. al., "Report #5: The Nature and Recipients of Compensatory Education" (Santa Monica, Calif.: System Development Corporation, 1978), pp. 157-189. Also, the number of students receiving instructional services in different subject areas should be interpreted mindful that students receiving compensatory education services often receive instruction in more than one subject area; for instance, reading and mathematics. In fact, NIE reported in 1977 that approximately 45 percent of all compensatory education students, including those in Title I programs receive such services in more than one subject area. (Compensatory Education Services, p. 21.)

5. "Children Living in Low Income Areas and/or Institutional (Local) for Neglected and Delinquent Children," U.S. Department of Education, unpublished table.

6. See, NIE Compensatory Education Services, 1977, pp. vi-vii and 22-30 and The Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report. (Santa Monica, Calif.: System Development Corporation, 1980), pp. 1-2 and 81-119.

7. The Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report, pp. 81 and 87-92.

8. The Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report, pp. 108-118.

9. Compensatory Education Services, pp. 30-34.

10. See National Diffusion Network, Educational Programs That Work, Seventh Edition, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, Fall 1980), pp. 9-47, 9-55, and 9-99.

11. 95th Congress, 2nd Session, House Report No. 1737 (Report of the Committee on Education and Labor, on the Education Amendments of 1978, H.R. 15, pp. 26-27; 95th Congress, 2nd Session, Senate Report No. 856 (Report of the Committee on Human Resources, on the Education Amendments of 1978: Report Accompanying S. 1753, p. 14.

NOTES cont'd

12. As of 1980, there were no Title I-funded migrant programs in Hawaii, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, or the territories. "Annual Evaluation Report on Education Programs: Title I, ESEA, Migrant Education Program," U.S. Department of Education Report to Congress, November 1980.

13. 1980 Annual Report: U.S. Department of Education, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office), p. 23.

14. "Title I Migrant Education Program," Education Briefing Paper (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, August 1978), p. 1.

15. "Title I Migrant Education Program," p. 2.

Who Participates in Title I, LEA Programs?

1. National Center for Education Statistics, The Conditions of Education: 1980 Edition (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1980), pp. 60-61; U.S. Department of Education, "FY 79 Number of Children Who Participated in Title I Programs by Grades," unpublished table.

2. U.S. Department of Education, "FY 79 Number (FTE) of Staff Members Assigned to Title I Programs for Which Salary Payments are Made From Title I, LEA Programs for Children in Low-Income Areas and/or Children in Local Institutions," unpublished table.

3. U.S. Department of Education, "FY 70 Number of Parents (of Title I Participants) Who Participated in District and School Advisory Committees and in Title I Program Activities," unpublished table.

4. The Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report, 1980, p. 1.

5. National Institute of Education, Compensatory Education Services, 1977, pp. v-vi.

6. As reported by the Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report, 1980, pp. 7-8, using the Orshansky index of poverty prescribed by Title I law. The Congressional Research Service reports that estimates of the number of children who apparently need compensatory instruction but who do not receive it range from one-third to 50 percent in "Compensatory Education: Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act," Archived Brief #1B77107 (Washington, D.C.: Congressional Research Services, July 1980), p. 4.

7. In preparing this factbook, a member of the NACEDC staff interviewed the then Assistant Secretary in the Office of Non-Public Education (ONPE), Al Senske. He felt that the 4 percent participation figure was probably more accurate than the previously-released figure of 5 percent (See NACEDC, 1980, p. 10), but indicated that "solid" evidence of private school participation in federally funded education programs will not be available until 1982, when NCES Fast Response Survey data are expected to be reported. He reported, further, that there is presently detailed participation data for states operating under the by-pass provision, but that there is little reason to believe that these figures are representative of non-public school student participation nationwide.

NOTES Cont'd

8. Percentages were derived from figures in The Sustaining Effects Study: An Interim Report, 1980, Table III-4, "Percentage of Students Receiving Various CE Services by Family Economic Status and Urbanism," 1980, p. 52; actual numbers were then derived for each category of urbanicity using FY 79 student participation data reported by U.S. Department of Education, See fn. 1.

9. The data reported in this table were collected from telephone interviews with school officials (including federal program and/or Title I coordinators, business managers, or public relations staff) in April 1981.

10. See fn. 2.

11. Compensatory Education Services, 1977, p. 25.

12. Compensatory Education Services, 1977, p. vii.

13. Compensatory Education Services, 1977, p. 27.

14. The present interim final regulations for Title I (1/19/81) do not require school advisory councils if no more than one full-time equivalent staff member is paid with Title I funds and if no more than 40 students receive Title I services (Section 201.155(c)).

15. U.S. Department of Education, unpublished tables: "1977 Parents Who Participate in District and School Advisory Committees and Program Activities [for Title I, ESEA]" and "FY 79 Number of Parents (of Title I Participants) Who Participated in District and School Advisory Committees and in Title I Program Activities."

Glossary

1. For a more complete description of and rationale for Title I's program requirements, see: "The Title I Legal Framework" in Who Benefits from Federal Education Dollars?, edited by James Vanecko and Nancy Ames (Cambridge, Mass.: ABT Books, 1980), pp. 27-49; NIE, Administration of Compensatory Education (Washington, D.C., 1977), pp. 7-22. Most definitions used in this Glossary adapted from NIE study.

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TITLE I—FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE TO MEET SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF CHILDREN

"DECLARATION OF POLICY

"SEC. 101. In recognition of the special educational needs of children of low-income families and the impact that concentrations of low-income families have on the ability of local educational agencies to support adequate educational programs, the Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance (as set forth in the following parts of this title) to local educational agencies serving areas with concentrations of children from low-income families to expand and improve their educational programs by various means (including preschool programs) which contribute particularly to meeting the special educational needs of educationally deprived children. Further, in recognition of the special educational needs of children of certain migrant parents, of Indian children and of handicapped, neglected, and delinquent children, the Congress hereby declares it to be the policy of the United States to provide financial assistance (as set forth in the following parts of this title) to help meet the special educational needs of such children.

TITLE I—AMENDMENT TO TITLE I OF THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION ACT OF 1965

SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS AND PROJECTS FOR EDUCATIONALLY DEPRIVED CHILDREN

SEC. 101. (a) Title I of the Act entitled "An Act to strengthen and improve educational quality and educational opportunities in the Nation's elementary and secondary schools", approved April 11, 1965, as amended (Public Law 89-10, also known as the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965), is amended to read as follows:

NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL

SEC. 196. (a) COUNCIL ESTABLISHED.—There shall be a National Advisory Council on the Education of Disadvantaged Children (hereinafter in this section referred to as the 'National Council') consisting of fifteen members appointed by the President, without regard to the provisions of title 5, United States Code, governing appointment in the competitive service, for terms of three years, except that (1) in the case of initial members, five shall be appointed for terms of one year each and five shall be appointed for terms of two years each, and (2) appointments to fill vacancies shall be only for such terms as remain unexpired. The National Council shall meet at the call of the Chairman.

"(b) FUNCTIONS.—The National Council shall review and evaluate the administration and operation of this title, including its effectiveness in improving the educational attainment of educationally deprived children, including the effectiveness of programs to meet their occupational and career needs, and make recommendations for the improvement of this title and its administration and operations. These recommendations shall take into consideration experience gained under this and other Federal educational programs for disadvantaged children and, to the extent appropriate, experience gained under other public and private educational programs for disadvantaged children.

"(c) REPORTS.—The National Council shall make such reports of its activities, findings, and recommendations (including recommendations for changes in the provisions of this title) as it may deem appropriate and shall make an annual report to the President and the Congress not later than March 31 of each calendar year. Such annual report shall include a report specifically on which of the various compensatory education programs funded in whole or in part under the provisions of this title, and of other public and private educational programs for educationally deprived children, hold the highest promise for raising the educational attainment of these educationally deprived children. The President is requested to transmit to the Congress such comments and recommendations as he may have with respect to such report. Subject to section 448(b) of the General Educational Provisions Act, the National Council shall continue to exist until October 1, 1984.