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A wide range of facts, figures, and background information about the operation of schools in the United States is collected in this reference work. Material on various topics is presented in the form of essays, lists, statistical tables, charts, and brief descriptive articles. Among the topics addressed are efforts toward educational reform, current issues and trends in education, the character and history of American education, enrollment trends, teacher characteristics and employment trends, microcomputer use, educational finance, and the status of education in each of the states. Other topics are major national educational organizations, periodicals, and significant individuals; important federal agencies and programs; other national programs; and recent court decisions affecting school law. Additional topics include television, libraries, public relations, significant dates, and even jokes and quotes with educational themes. (PGD)
Facts and Figures
About Our Nation's
System of Education
THE EDUCATION ALMANAC
1985-1986

Facts and Figures About Our Nation's System of Education

Prepared and Published by National Association of Elementary School Principals
This is the second edition of *The Education Almanac*, planned as a continually revised and renewed reference tool that brings together a wide range of facts, figures, and background information about the operation of America’s schools.

The editors are grateful for the numerous valuable suggestions and comments generated by the initial (1984) edition. More are warmly invited, particularly in regard to information that might be included in future editions.

All such suggestions will be carefully studied. Staff limitations make it impossible, however, to guarantee a response to such comments or to questions about the contents.
AN AMERICAN SELECTION
OF
Lessons in Reading and Speaking,
CALCULATED
TO IMPROVE the MINDS and REFINING
the TASTE of YOUTH.

AND ALSO,
To instruct them in the Geograhy, History,
and Politics of the United States.

TO WHICH ARE PREFIXED,
Rules in Elocution, and Directions for expressing
the principal Passions of the Mind.

BRING
The THIRD PART of a Grammatical
Institute of the English Language.

BY NOAH WEBSTER, Jun. Esquire.
Author of "Dissertations on the English Lan-
guage," "Collection of Essays and Fugitive
Writings," &c.

Thomas and Andrews's THIRD EDITION.
With many corrections and improvements, by the
Author.

"Begin with the Infant in his Cradle: Let the first Word be
life be WASHINGTON."—MIRABEAU.
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Foreword

School Reform: Missing the Boat

by Samuel G. Sava
Executive Director, NAESP

The first of the various task force reports on education—that of the National Commission on Excellence in Education—appeared in April 1983. While it is too early to render a verdict on the reforms engendered by those reports, it is not premature to comment on their recommendations in light of other research.

Among the findings of the reform commissions were these: the proportion of American high school students taking a vocational or college preparatory program dropped from 88 percent in 1964 to 58 percent in 1979; the rest take a “general” program, which the National Commission characterized as “a cafeteria-style curriculum in which the appetizers and desserts easily be mistaken for the course.” Students in England, Germany, Japan, and other industrialized nations attend school from 220 to 240 days a year, compared to 180 days for American students. Foreign students are required to take courses in advanced mathematics, biology, chemistry, physics, and geography, and to devote three times as many class hours to these subjects as even the most science-oriented students in the U.S. In 1980, only eight American states required schools to offer foreign language instruction, 35 required only one year of math or science, and in 13 states, 50 percent or more of the credits required for a high school diploma could be chosen by the student.

These findings led to a broad array of proposed reforms: tougher curricula, with fewer electives; a longer school day and school year; higher admissions standards among
teacher-education institutions, and a reduction in pedagogical courses in favor of substantive courses in other disciplines; and better management of the school day to reduce time spent on discipline and classroom routines, and to maximize “time on task.”

Though the panels differed in the emphasis assigned each item, their recommendations were markedly similar in one respect: virtually all focused on the high schools.

Certainly we must do the best we can, within the relatively brief period left to them, to strengthen the academic and vocational preparation of our older students. Yet the near-total focus on secondary schooling, and the near-total disregard of elementary schooling, flies in the face of human nature, common sense, educational research, and educational experience.

**Human nature**: By the time youngsters enter high school, they have had at least eight years of formal education, have compiled patterns of success, failure, or average performance in school, and have developed strong likes and dislikes for certain subjects. Their learning personalities have been powerfully shaped by their previous experience in school. Though pressure from adults in such forms as higher expectations and more homework may produce temporary change, it is absurd to expect that teenagers accustomed to the comparatively relaxed pace of American schools will suddenly be transformed into avid students, flogging themselves into a patriotic zeal to bail out the economy by ering their peers in other countries who have been attending school 240 days a year from the age of 5.

As one principal expressed the matter, “The kids who will do the extra homework don't need it, and the ones who need it won't do it.” Age 15 is late to hope for even modest change in a human's attitude toward school, let alone radical change.

**Common sense**: As might be expected of adults concerned about the nation's ambiguous economic fortunes, the members of the reform panels laid heavy stress on disciplines readily convertible into industrial advantage, that is, higher math, the sciences, computer literacy, and foreign languages. Yet the building blocks of math and science are laid in the primary grades; youngsters who have failed to master long division or the multiplication tables cannot do well at algebra or calculus. According to the National Science Foundation, students who have formed a dislike for math or science in the early grades are unlikely to do well in these subjects later on—and they form their attitudes “as early as the third grade.”

Foreign languages are most easily and quickly learned in the early years; as someone has pointed out, “We all learned a foreign language by the time we were three—the language our parents spoke.” And computers, which are only inanimate slaves designed to chop the simplest command into dozens or hundreds of “yes” or “no” bits according to instructions programmed for them by a human being, presuppose a literate operator. Turning the computer
into a tool rather than a diversion requires the ability to read, write, and think—each of which, unless it is conferred at the elementary school level, is rarely conferred at all.

**Educational research:** In the early 1960s, research by a variety of cognitive psychologists—scholars and practitioners inquiring into the sequential development of the human intellect—gave rise to such statements as this, by John Fischer, former President of Columbia Teachers College:

*There is substantial evidence that the level of intellectual capability young people will achieve at 17 is already half-determined by the age of four, and that another 30 percent is predictable at seven years. This is no ground for believing that a child's academic fate is sealed by his seventh birthday, but it means that a community that seriously wants to improve its children's opportunities will start them to school early.*

The specific percentages of cognitive development cited by Dr. Fischer have since been disputed, but the basic idea—that a disproportionate amount of intellectual development takes place in the early years—has not been challenged.

Indeed, this insight of 20 years ago is given fresh support by Harold W. Stevenson of the University of Michigan, who—with American, Chinese, and Japanese colleagues—studied 5,000 first and fifth graders in those three nations and found that American youngsters lag detectably behind their Asian peers as early as the fourth month of the first grade. "It would appear, therefore, that our national problem lies not only in American schools, but also in American homes," Stevenson concluded in a 1983 report. "When differences in achievement arise so early in the child's formal education, more must be involved than inadequate educational practices in the first grade."

Stevenson began his report, provocatively enough, by referring to the reform commissions and their concentration "on the nation's secondary schools, a questionable emphasis... . Improving secondary education is an important goal, but efforts concentrated on secondary school students may come too late in their academic careers to be effective."

**Experience:** Finally, the focus of our reform efforts on high schools contradicts our experience—once we have been sufficiently patient to ascertain what that experience is, rather than hoping for some "quick fix" to produce persuasive results within a year or two:

* The Perry Preschool Program, conducted in Ypsilanti, Michigan, in the early 1960s, worked for five years with disadvantaged, black, below average (IQs between 70 and 85) children. Early IQ gains of 12 points, which elated the program designers, disappeared by the second grade. Nevertheless, by tracking these youngsters until they were 19, the Perry researchers discovered that 67 percent of them had graduated from high school, compared to 47 percent of their classmates who had not participated in the program; 58 percent were employed, compared to 32 percent
of non-program classmates, and only 17 percent were on welfare, as opposed to 37 percent of their non-program classmates. On other measures, the Preschool students at age 19 had markedly lower frequencies of arrests or pregnancies, better behavioral records while in school, and had been held back in school much less often than their classmates.

- Bobby J. Woodruff's examination (for the Appalachia Educational Laboratory and the Tennessee State Department of Education) of the 1979-80 scores of all 64,000 eighth-grade students in Tennessee indicated that the two-thirds who had attended kindergarten in 1971-72 clearly exceeded their classmates in scholastic performance. This finding is particularly remarkable in that it included such a large number of students, across all socioeconomic levels, and from such a wide range of kindergarten programs. Moreover, Woodruff found, students with kindergarten backgrounds had been held back from advancing to the next grade much less often—saving Tennessee taxpayers $2.5 million annually.

There may be those who will continue to insist that the salvation of American education lies in improving our high schools. If they should prevail, the educational reform movement will continue to miss the boat. Our youngsters are as capable as those of any other nation; it is not the difficulty of secondary-level studies that lowers their achievement and hampers their transition into productive adulthood. It is, rather, their earliest experiences with the most humble learning tasks. Those experiences shape our children's response to everything that follows.

Genuine educational reform must begin early in childhood.
The education issues that made headlines in 1983 and 1984 are likely to make them again in 1985 and 1986, and some may pick up steam rather than fizzle out. As for the issues related to school reform, the focus has shifted from national studies to state and local action. There remains, to be sure, a considerable question as to how much school reform will stay in the limelight.

The education establishment is not designed for rapid change. The huge size of the enterprise together with its conservative nature tends to make education immune to convulsive upheaval. Nonetheless, public opinion—driven by such new influences as governors and the business community—may have created irresistible pressures for change.

In the following list, the issues that probably will generate the most friction, and the biggest headlines, are listed first. But that's just a function of how the tea leaves fall. Supposedly minor issues have been known to come back to haunt school planners.

**Merit pay for teachers:** This idea has been kicking around for years, but in 1984 many of the nation's governors made it a central issue in their dealings with state legislatures, to the tune of a background chorus of approval and support by President Reagan and former Education Secretary Terrel Bell.

The secretary stumped almost incessantly for some form of merit pay in speeches around the country, his favorite being the master teacher plan, which would give teachers additional responsibilities...
NEWSIEST ISSUES

along with higher pay. "Until we do this," he said, "we will continue to lose our best talent after a few years of teaching." President Reagan publicly blamed "some of the heaviest hitters in the national education lobby" for delays in state action, a barb aimed at the National Education Association. Albert Shanker of the rival American Federation of Teachers presumably scored points when he declared that "Some of the more recent proposals allowing advancement of teachers to master teacher-type career roles involving extra pay warrant consideration." This won praise from the Administration and some sectors of the education community, and may have forced the NEA to moderate its stand.

It has pretty much been left to the governors, however, to lead the way. Thus Tennessee Governor Lamar Alexander, after failing in 1983, convinced his legislature to install a master-teacher program in 1984.

California, Florida, Idaho, Illinois, and Utah soon followed suit with master-teacher or career-ladder plans. Many other states—at least 24 according to the National Center for Education Statistics—have begun considering them and almost certainly will take some sort of action during 1985 and 1986. The Southern Governors' Association has made the issue a top priority in that area of the nation.

Bell also sought to clear up confusion between "the old-fashioned merit pay concept" and his master-teacher/career-ladder proposals. Under the former, a principal or other superior assigns a presumably objective rating of quality to each teacher's performance. Under Bell's plan, teachers would be reviewed by their peers, a system he says is "eminently more attainable."

Meanwhile, the push for some form of incentive pay seems to have unearthed another problem: The poor quality of most evaluation systems, a situation that led analyst Arthur Wise of the Rand Corporation to object to "reforms that assume that there is already in place an adequate evaluation system." Incentive pay based on inadequate evaluations, he pointed out, won't be accepted by teachers.

Tuition tax credits: This proposal met defeat in the Senate in 1983, but continued backing from the Reagan Administration and religious lobbyists ensures a second chance in 1985 and 1986 and possibly throughout the Reagan administration. Nonetheless, opposition from a unified public education lobby together with heavy budget pressures will assure any new proposal an uphill struggle.

Shortly after the 1983 bill's Senate defeat, Department of Education Deputy Undersecretary Gary Bauer vowed that the Administration "would continue to strongly push" for tax credits. This included recruiting Edward Anthony, a tax credit lobbyist for the U.S. Catholic Conference, for the Department's legislative staff. The principal sponsors, Senators Daniel Patrick Moynihan (D-NY) and Robert Packwood (R-OR), are continuing their fight for passage; equally firm are such opponents as Senators Ernest Hollings (D-SC), Lowell Weicker (R-CT), and David Boren (D-OK).
Moynihan and others seem to be placing their hopes chiefly on the matter of "fairness," arguing that parents who send their children to private schools are paying twice—in tuition and in local property taxes. The Administration may well follow suit, in effect abandoning the contention that competition between public and private schools will help both improve.

Opponents will doubtless say something like this: "At a time of proposals for severe cuts in the federal budget, affecting crucially important programs, it would be unthinkable for the Congress to consider proposals that could cost more than $2.3 billion initially and added amounts thereafter. Georgia State Superintendent of Schools Charles McDaniel told a House subcommittee that the plan would result in the federal government paying up to $560 per student in private schools and just $145 per student in public schools and asked, "Is this the proper federal role in education?"

Opponents have mustered potent counterarguments to the claims of supporters. Those who tout the fairness issue should realize that state and local taxes are paid to ensure an educated populace, they say, not for the schooling of a taxpayer's child. And to the contention that private schools relieve public education of some of its teaching load, opponents note that private schools usually "cream" the ablest—and cheapest to teach—and seldom take those with learning problems.

School prayer: The debate on prayer in public schools will doubtless continue to involve the President, the Congress, the U.S. Supreme Court, and state governments, but not necessarily the nation's educators.

Each year there are predictions that the Supreme Court will make a final judgment on the matter, and conceivably it may actually do so in 1985 or 1986.

The kind of case that might lead to such a resolution is typified by Wallace v. Jaffree, brought by an agnostic parent who challenged Alabama's voluntary school prayer law. Lower courts held the law to be unconstitutional, but on appeal the high court accepted the case for argument. Having done so there is always the chance that the court will overturn the rulings of the lower courts and make a definitive ruling.

In any event the case capsulizes the basic issues involved.

Ishmael Jaffree sued the state over teacher-led prayers, and the legislature responded with a law sanctioning those prayers. It even established a state prayer. That measure was quickly stricken by the courts, but a companion bill providing for a moment of silence for silent prayer or meditation at the start of the school day is still on the books. A Department of Justice brief contends that "moment-of-silence statutes are libertarian in the precise spirit of the Bill of Rights: they accommodate those who believe that prayer should be an integral part of life's activities..." A federal appeals court ruled, however, "that the state cannot participate in the advancement of religious activities through any guise, including teacher-led meditation. It is not the..."
activity itself that concerns us; it is the purpose of the activity."

The U.S. Supreme Court affirmed that ruling but nevertheless agreed to hear further argument in connection with the Alabama "silent prayer" statute. Some 21 other states have similar laws on the books.

In its deliberations the court presumably would consider the three-part test developed under *Lemon v. Kurtzman* in 1971. To be ruled constitutional, this test held, a law must (1) have a secular purpose; (2) have a principal effect that neither advances nor inhibits religion; and (3) not lead to excessive government entanglement with religion. Some constitutional scholars have suggested that this standard itself may be on the way out and may be replaced by the current Supreme Court or by a court made even more conservative by future appointments by President Reagan.

**Latchkey children:** One-fifth of all school-age children now live in single-parent homes, up from 12 percent in 1970. Six million children between 6 and 13 care for themselves after school, and 60 percent of all women with children are in the workforce. Educators increasingly feel that an extra effort is called for in dealing with such students. The federal government has evinced interest in getting into the act, through a program to promote after-school child care; it apparently has settled the question of who should provide after-school care by stipulating this as a school responsibility.

The problem of latchkey children transcends educational attainment. Senator Christopher Dodd (D-CT) recently pointed out before the Senate Children's Caucus the significant risk for children left home unattended. One-sixth of all fires in Newark, N.J., are started by children at home alone, he noted, adding that "Children between the ages of 6 and 16 were the victims of over 15 million injuries in this country."

These pressures and some deft politicking led Congress to add a new section to the Head Start statute that could provide up to $20 million in state grants to improve child care. The program would support "school-age child care services before and after school in public or private school facilities or in community centers in communities where school facilities are not available." It also would support state and local resource and referral activities. The legislation got its start in Congress as a separate School Facilities Child Care Act, sponsored by Representative Patricia Schroeder (D-CO). Her bill would have supported grants and assessment at the federal level rather than grants to states.

Margaret Heckler, secretary of the Department of Health and Human Services, added an economic incentive to providing quality child care. "Availability of adequate day care is an essential element if welfare mothers or others with young children are to work," she said. The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights has pointed out that lack of child care also prevents low-income women from participating in subsidized education and training programs.
Asbestos: This issue is likely to grow in significance because the public is becoming increasingly aware of asbestos hazards—an awareness fed by press coverage, the widespread concern about environmental matters, and the Environmental Protection Agency's newly aggressive enforcement policies. Many educators complain that this aggressiveness is not accompanied by help in dealing with this perplexing problem.

EPA stepped up enforcement in 1984, fining several districts for failing to inspect buildings appropriately and notify faculty and parents. EPA cited an additional 200 districts without fining them.

But in seeking solutions to the problem the states appear to have been bequeathed the lead. The Reagan Administration has opposed federal funding to help schools remove asbestos, although Congress recently approved $50 million to help the nation's neediest schools. EPA opposed this program and does not plan to ask for any funds at all in 1985 and perhaps 1986. EPA official Edward Klein explained that the agency does not want schools "to sit around and wait for the money." All sides agree that the $50 million is far short of what is needed to solve the problem, whose total cost is estimated at $1.4 billion.

New Jersey is enacting an ambitious school-aid program, paired with tough standards for inspections and contractors. The state also has set an extremely low air-level limit for airborne asbestos fibers. Maryland has a program that requires contractor training and licensing, which one contractor has had a remarkable impact on the quality of work done in the state. Other states seem certain to continue this trend.

Meanwhile, unions continue to pressure EPA and individual states to step up abatement efforts. The Service Employees International Union, which represents various nonprofessional school employees, has sued EPA over its failure to address the problem. Similarly, New Jersey teachers sued the state over failure to clean up schools.

The national effort to clean up asbestos in schools—and in other public buildings—remains a patchwork of conscientious efforts and horror stories. Experts report that some contractors still back their trucks to school windows and throw asbestos out as if it was ordinary plaster. The pressure to cut costs—and laws requiring schools to take low bids from contractors—cause contractors to cut corners, often with disastrous results.

But schools are making progress, at least, on the legal front. A bankruptcy court in New York is accepting property damage claims from school districts against the Manville Corporation. Some say that firm declared bankruptcy in order to avoid asbestos liability, though the outcome of this maneuver is not clear. A federal judge in Philadelphia, in a separate lawsuit, certified all public and private schools in the country as parties to a class-action suit against 56 asbestos companies. The action covers only property damage, and districts that seek large awards or punitive damages may opt out and pursue their own lawsuits. In Lexington County, South Carolina, U.S. Gypsum settled out of court for
$675,000, almost twice what the district spent to remove its asbestos.

**Teacher training:** With the nationwide push to improve teaching, teacher training institutions are falling under increasingly closer scrutiny.

Schools of education face two immediate challenges: to upgrade the quality of all teachers and to provide a better supply in shortage areas such as mathematics, science, and foreign languages.

The quality issue has been addressed to at least some extent by state boards of education and by legislatures. Illinois created a board to monitor its 64 teacher-training institutions, resulting in the decertification of four of those institutions and disapproval of more than 300 separate programs. That same state board also recommended more and earlier field training for prospective teachers.

A teacher shortage problem led some states—New Jersey was one—to enact alternate certification procedures, permitting those without the usual background of education coursework to enter the classroom. Though these systems usually are touted as short-term or emergency solutions, the very existence of such a trend would seem to some to indicate a continuing erosion of support for educational pedagogy.

Conservative observers view such trends with skepticism. Chester Finn of Vanderbilt University notes, "The educational enterprise, like most others, is driven by institutional and organizational vested interests, many of which are seriously threatened by the changes the ‘excellence movement’ is promoting. The colleges of education, for example, have clear and strong interests in continuing to be the primary route into the teaching occupation.”

The movement to downgrade teacher education has raised a backlash among some educators. David Berliner, a professor at the University of Arizona, argues that, “for the first time, teacher education has a scientific foundation. But now that we are capable of monumental reform in teacher education—reform guided by research—we hear only calls for the reduction or total elimination of teacher preparation programs.”

Berliner notes the exceedingly complex task facing a teacher—up to 1,500 transactions per day and 10 significant decisions each hour—and insists that teachers need more pedagogical training, not less. He paints a picture of a field on the verge of major breakthroughs.

This issue may gain visibility if the focus on reform in coming years shifts from elementary and secondary schools to higher education. The public will continue to demand better schools and with them better teachers. The critical question would appear to be whether the reform from within that Berliner envisions will take place before public dissatisfaction forces a major shakeup of the institutions from without.

**Special education:** The terrain of special education is shifting. The initial thrust of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act enacted in 1975, was to get orthopedically impaired students and the educable mentally...
retarded into regular classrooms as much as possible. But in recent years almost all of the growth in the special population has come from learning-disabled students.

Total handicapped enrollment increased from 3.7 million in 1977 to 4.2 million in 1983, but analysts note that this total would have declined if the LD group hadn't grown from 796,000 to 1,741,000. As a percentage of total school enrollment, the LD group grew during that period from 1.8 percent of all students to 4.4 percent.

Moreover, said Joseph Ballard of the Council for Exceptional Children, these are the students most likely to be "mainstreamed" into regular classes. That's why the CEC advocates a "strong movement... to develop collaborative models with general education." Special educators and classroom teachers "have got to get to know each other," Ballard said, because an increasing proportion of special education students will find their way to regular classrooms.

Parents whose children struggle in school are turning to special education in increasing numbers to get help for their children. The LD label is imprecise and has been used to describe conditions ranging from severe dyslexia to moderate reading or mathematical difficulties.

In the past many LD students weren't even identified, much less given special services. Where are they today? Martin Gerry, a lawyer who specializes in issues involving the handicapped, finds them in prisons and juvenile detention facilities. "A very high percentage of those kids are classic LD kids," he said, perhaps as high as 45 percent, and adds that a large number of the functional illiterates in adult prisons also show signs of learning disabilities.

"If a kid really needs services, he gets them," said Stan Dublinske of the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association. "It's the peripheral ones they're having a hard time justifying." Dublinske sees a disturbing trend in which "some districts are setting tighter eligibility standards," a move that could eliminate services to some LD students. Public Law 94-142 permits states to set their own standards, and federal officials "haven't done a good job of defining who is or isn't handicapped."

The problems for school officials are varied. First, they are confronted with the isolated case of a severely handicapped student. "It's not that the average cost is high," Gerry points out. "But for a few kids, the cost is very high."

Local educators also may lack the resources or expertise to address the subtle problems of the LD student. How much counseling is justified? Is psychological testing a related service under the law? How much parent training is necessary—or practical.

Nationally, both Dublinske and Ballard complain, there is little information on how LD students are being served and in what types of educational settings. "We constantly hear about the fact that related services are very costly," said Dublinske, "but unfortunately, there's no reliable data."
The "Excellence" Movement

The continuing production of reports dealing with educational excellence has predictably produced a bonanza of rhetoric, but that is not all. It has also touched off a wave of genuine reform in the states and local school districts that seems destined to shape American education for the remainder of the current decade. More than 200 state commissions dealing with excellence in general, or such facets of it as teacher training and pay, studied and made recommendations in the months following the release of the most influential of the various statements—the Department of Education's A Nation At Risk.

In following up on that report the Department noted such developments as these:

• Stiffer high school graduation requirements in 41 states and the District of Columbia (to take effect over a three-year period).
• A longer school day or school year, or schedule changes that result in reserving a greater part of the school day to teaching and learning—in 24 states and the District of Columbia.
• Stricter controls over teacher certification, recertification, evaluation, and teacher education programs—in 42 states (also over a three-year period).
• Payment of higher salaries to the better teachers—in at least 20 states and the District of Columbia—through master-teacher, merit-pay, or career-ladder plans that affect about 1 million teachers.
• Special loan and scholarship incentives to encourage college students to become math and science teachers—passed by 29 state legislatures.

In several states the reforms were
more than piecemeal. Texas and South Carolina, for example, approved massive reform measures. The South Carolina plan contains more than 60 provisions, ranging from pre-kindergarten programs to requiring training of school administrators.

Reaction to the so-called "excellence movement" has nonetheless included certain reservations. First, many local and state education leaders point out that the reform movement had begun before A Nation At Risk was released and that results of better teaching already had begun to show up in reports from the National Assessment of Educational Progress. This was particularly true, they said, for children considered "hard to teach," such as the disadvantaged and minority student populations.

Student advocacy groups and others are critical of some of the quantitative emphasis in the reforms—more courses, more time in school—as the antithesis of what is needed by such special groups of students as potential dropouts and the non-college-bound. They also have expressed fears that the resources and attention going to educational excellence detract from the unfinished agenda for educational equity.

According to one reviewer of various reactions to the reform efforts, the critics' opinions can be summed up as follows: The reforms in some states are based on unreasonable and unrealistic assumptions about schools, changes are being made without regard to their impact on school curricula or the supply of teachers, and changes could erode the tradition of local control (American School Board Journal, September 1984).

Others called reactions such as these a "backlash" that shows a lack of faith in high-quality teaching and systematic learning (The American Spectator, September 1984).

Many groups presented their own reform suggestions, one being the National Association of Elementary School Principals. Noting that A Nation At Risk tended to slide over the critical K-8 years and that most of the reform proposals are directed at the high school, NAESP developed standards of excellence in seven categories—organization, leadership, curriculum, instruction, training and development, school climate, and evaluation and assessment (see page 203).

According to the National Education Association, the deliberations on reform have too often failed to include teachers. Its Task Force on Educational Excellence called for a restructuring of schooling, with formal education beginning at age 4; off-campus opportunities integrated with classroom learning; and an emphasis on solving problems and thinking critically.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals said real reform must take place at the school level. Among other things it called for limiting stricter high school graduation requirements to college-bound students and not students receiving technical and occupational training. The principals also disapproved of a longer school day or year, urging instead that the current time be used more wisely.

While the early discussion about reforms (particularly by President
Reagan and former Secretary of Education T. H. Bell) emphasized the need for merit pay, there was a turn in direction as the months went by. Plans that once had been labeled "merit pay" began to be discussed rather as career-ladder plans, and the Department of Education talks of "master teacher" programs.

One critic, Joseph Featherstone, an educator and writer now preparing a follow-up book to High School: A Report on Secondary Education in America, suggested three guidelines for the reform movement. It must advocate quality for all, it must use the individual school as the locus of reform, and it must ally with principals and teachers.

At the federal level, the push for educational excellence took the form of awarding performance. Through series of ceremonies, the U.S. Department of Education has recognized outstanding secondary schools, elementary schools, private schools, vocational schools, math and science teachers, and school boards.

Discussions of merit pay and other aspects of the education reform movement will doubtless become less fervent but they will not soon end; indeed, given the far-flung nature of our system of education and its complexities, the debate may become more extensive and more probing. The American people clearly favor constructive change—and as numerous surveys have revealed, they say they are willing to pay the taxes necessary to assure that excellence is achieved.
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What's Right with American Education?

America’s system of education has been receiving more public attention during the last couple of years than it had during the previous decade. Most of it has been critical. While some felt the criticisms were unfairly damaging and a few seemed to feel they heralded the demise of public education, most educators welcomed education’s return to the spotlight. The most important aspect of the criticisms, they said, was the vivid demonstration of how deeply the people care about their schools—the depth of their concern that education in America do its job in our democratic society. Given the message that ours is “A Nation At Risk,” the response was to move promptly toward reform.

That our schools needed strengthening clearly was true—ways will be, for the nation expects a lot from them. Fortunately there is a strong foundation on which to build. Far more is right with American education than is wrong with it, as witness such matters as the following:

The Public Believes Education Is Important

According to the National Opinion Research Center, the public places a higher priority than ever on education today. In 1984, 65 percent of the people surveyed felt we are “spending too little” on education.

While 65 percent think we are spending too little on education, only 61 percent think we are spending too little on the environment, 60 percent on health, 51 percent on solving the problems of big cities, 37 percent on helping
blacks, 25 percent on welfare, 18 percent on the military—armaments and defense, 13 percent on space, and 5 percent on foreign aid. Only solving crime (at 70 percent) and drug addiction (66 percent) outranked education.

There is good news about potential public tax support. In response to a question in the 1983 Gallup Poll, a clear majority of the people—58 percent—said "Yes," they would be willing to pay more taxes to raise education standards.

A recent poll by *Time* magazine in conjunction with the survey firm of Yankelovich, Skelly & White found that "Providing Quality Education" ranked only behind "Reducing the Risk of Nuclear War" and "Providing Jobs for the Unemployed" among a list of 16 urgent national concerns. "Providing Quality Education" outranked such matters as "Keeping Inflation Under Control," "Reducing the Amount of Crime," "Keeping Our Defense Strong," "Protecting the Environment," "Stopping the Spread of Communism," and "Dealing Effectively with the Soviet Union."

Education has the potential of remaining high on the public's list of top priorities. Why? Because education is the primary activity of nearly 61 million Americans. Statistics show that more than one of every four of our 234 million U.S. population are directly involved in the educational process as students, teachers, principals, superintendents, supervisors or other instructional staff members. These figures do not even count the hundreds of thousands of support staff workers who keep our schools operating every day.

Attesting to the value the public sees in getting an education, the Bureau of the Census has found that each succeeding generation has spent more years in school than the one preceding it. The latest figures (for 1979) show that:

- People 25 to 29 years old had an average of 12.9 years of education
- People 45 to 49 years old had an average 12.5 years of education
- People 75 and over had an average of just 8.8 years of education

### Schools Today Serve Everyone

The long-held dream of assuring an appropriate education to every youngster is closer to reality today in the United States than at any time, in any nation, in history. American schools, for example, make special education programs available to virtually every child with a handicap. The latest available figures (1982-83) indicate that 10.7 percent of our overall school population are now involved in special learning programs of some kind, an all-time high. The figure compares with 9.6 percent in 1979-80 and 8.3 percent in 1976-77.

Dramatic evidence of how today's schools are serving everyone is seen in the rapid increases in the enrollment of students in their early years. We see steadily growing enrollments in nursery and kindergarten programs—from 4,279,000 in 1970 to 5,859,000 in
1984 and a projected 6,877,000 by 1990!

In a society that believes it is important to educate all children to the full extent of their ability, our schools' record in enrolling and retaining students clearly adds up to educational success. According to the latest statistics available (for 1982):

- 90 percent of our 5-year-old children were in school (kindergarten).
- 99 percent of those 6 to 13 years old were in school (grades 1-8).
- 94 percent of those 14 to 17 years old were in school (grades 9-12), and
- 30 percent of those 18 to 27 years old were in school (college).

Not only are our schools enrolling more students earlier and keeping them longer, but "lifelong learning" is also becoming a reality today. By 1981, according to the latest figures available, over 21,550,000 people were participating in adult education programs.

As of Fall 1982, the latest available figures, an all-time high of 12,426,000 students were enrolled in colleges and universities.

There is Encouraging News About Our Students

Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) scores have finally reversed a nearly 25-year decline. Since bottoming out in about 1980, scores have been going steadily upward.

Student achievement test scores as measured by the National Assessment of Educational Progress have shown encouraging improvement in recent years in math and reading for students at ages 9 and 13, while scores for 17-year-olds have gone down slightly. A downward trend in science test scores for 9-, 13-, and 17-year-olds has continued, but with increased attention to science lately, authorities expect improvements the next time the tests are given.

In education today we are often concerned about attendance problems. But students today attend school far more regularly than students in previous generations. During the 1869-70 school year, only 59 percent of the students enrolled attended school regularly. Today, not only do we have a higher percentage of students enrolled in schools but over 90 percent of them attend school regularly.

Looking at student attendance facts in another way, in 1869-70 the average length of a school term was 132 days and the typical student attended school only 78 days a year. Today, the average length of the school term is 179 days and the typical student attends school 161 days each year.

Public Attitudes About Schools AreImproving

One of the best measures of public opinion about our schools is the annual Gallup survey of public attitudes toward the public schools. In the 1984 poll, 48 percent of those surveyed gave their local schools an A or B grade, an increase of 11 percentage points over the previous year—and the highest
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16 percentage of As and Bs since 1976.

In the 1984 Gallup Poll of public attitudes toward the public schools, 50 percent of those surveyed rated the teachers in their local public schools A or B compared with 39 percent in 1981.

In the latest Gallup Poll, 47 percent rated their local schools' principals and administrators A or B compared with 36 percent in 1981.

Forty-one percent in the most recent Gallup Poll rated their local school board A or B, the first time that question had been asked.

More and more, Americans are indicating that they would be willing to raise taxes to improve their schools. In the 1984 Gallup Poll, 41 percent said they would vote to raise taxes in situations when schools said they needed much more money—the highest percentage since 1969, when 45 percent said they would raise taxes, and a significant increase from 1981, when only 30 percent said they would support such taxes.

We Can Point to Substantial School Achievements

The United States is now producing an all-time high number of graduates with bachelor's and other advanced degrees. We now confer more than 955,000 bachelor's degrees each year, more than 300,000 master's degrees, and more than 33,000 doctorate degrees.

One of the most impressive achievements of our schools has been the rapidly rising educational level of adults in the United States over the years. In 1910, the typical adult 25 years old or older had 8.1 years of education. By 1950, 40 years later, the typical adult had 9.3 years of education. As of 1982, the typical adult had 12.6 years of education and the level is still rising today.

We tend to think that education has always been much as it is today. But this overlooks many of our most substantial achievements. Educational historian Ralph W. Tyler has estimated that at the time our country's Declaration of Independence was signed in 1776, 85 percent of our population was illiterate. Thanks to our educational system, by 1959 the Bureau of the Census found only 2.2 percent of our population illiterate. By 1969 it was only one percent, and the best estimates are that less than one-half of one percent of our population today can neither read or write.

Concern is often expressed today because something just under 75 percent of our 17-year-olds have graduated from high school. But in fact, this is the highest percentage in our nation's history. In 1869-70, only 2 percent of our 17-year-olds were high school graduates. By 1929-30, that figure had risen only to 29 percent. It's good that we think that every student should graduate from high school and we must keep working to try to achieve that goal, but the fact is that with nearly three-fourths of our young people now graduating from high school, we have already accomplished a great deal.

The longer a student stays in
school, the greater his or her lifetime earnings are likely to be, according to the U.S. Department of Commerce and the Bureau of the Census. As of 1979, a man with less than a high school education could expect to earn $845,000; with a high school education $1,041,000; with one to three years of college $1,155,000; with four years of college $1,392,000; and with five or more years of college $1,553,000.

A woman with less than a high school education could expect to earn $500,000; with a high school education $634,000; with one to three years of college $716,000; with four years of college $846,000; and with five or more years of college $955,000.

The United States is a world leader in the percentage of its population enrolled in school and in the percentage of its Gross National Product spent for education. The latest figures available, for the school year 1980-81, show that worldwide, about 15 percent of the population of any given country is enrolled in school and an average of 5.6 percent of each country's Gross National Product (GNP) is spent for education.

Grouping countries into major areas we find that North America, including the United States, leads the world with 24 percent of its population enrolled in school and 6.5 percent of its GNP spent for education. Here's how we compare with other major areas: Latin America, 24 percent enrolled, 4 percent of GNP; Oceana, 21 percent enrolled, 5.8 percent GNP; Europe, 19 percent enrolled, 5.5 percent GNP; Africa, 17 percent enrolled, 6 percent GNP; Asia, 11 percent enrolled, 5 percent GNP.

United States literacy rates compare very well with other selected countries of the world. The United States along with the USSR, France, Australia, Germany, Japan, the Netherlands, and Poland all report 99 percent or better literacy rates. Here are the figures for other selected countries: United Kingdom, 97 percent; Canada, 93 percent; Argentina, 93 percent; Korea, 90 percent; Spain, 90 percent; Mexico, 74 percent; South Africa, 61 percent; Iran, 47 percent; Nigeria, 38 percent; India, 36 percent; Ethiopia, 5 percent.

A remarkable increase has been achieved in the number of school library books per student over the last 50 years. In 1935, public school libraries averaged 1.1 books per student. That jumped to 2.5 books per student in 1954, to 5.5 in 1961 and then leaped to 12.5 books per student in 1978, the latest available figure.

Education Is a Responsive Social Institution

Education may well be the most responsive social institution in America. The recent flurry of education reports such as A Nation At Risk have already resulted in constructive program changes in about one-third of America's schools as reported by teachers and principals in a recent survey by the Educational Research Service. In another third of our school districts changes are being discussed.

Despite public concerns about discipline in the schools and the stereotype that schools are chaotic and unsafe, a recent survey of
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The expected shortage will require the public and our schools to rethink teacher qualifications and compensation programs.

Also resulting directly from public requests, the number of states requiring competency assessment of teachers has grown from three in 1977 to 22 in 1981 to 30 in 1983.

The Facts Are Impressive

Clearly our schools are far from perfect, but their successes are impressive. No other society has ever set out to educate all its people—regardless of their circumstances or the disadvantages or problems they bring to the classroom.

Achieving the dream of education for all provides a formidable challenge. Perhaps that dream and our stubborn dedication to achieving it best defines the American character.
The most basic, most compelling, most distinctive characteristic of American education is its exemplification of the democratic ideal.

American schools educate all youngsters, irrespective of their background, however disadvantaged they may be, whatever handicaps they may have, whatever their gifts or problems or their plight. In this respect the American system of education is like no other.

It is novel also in the lengths to which it has carried decentralization. In the 1930s, in fact, the “system” actually consisted of 127,000 separate, independent systems. That’s how many local school districts, each with its own school board and decision-making authority, were charged with educating American youth. As people increasingly moved to cities, and as costs steadily rose, consolidations dramatically reduced the number of school districts. Today there are just over 15,000.

However, the United States approach to public education remains unique. Many observers have marveled not only that the system works so well but that it manages to work at all.

The world’s nations have developed three basic administrative styles in providing free public education for their people:

1. Centralized authority vested in the national government,
2. Joint national-local control whereby the central government enacts school laws and disburses funds but leaves administration to localities, and
3. Decentralized control under which most of the authority is held by political units below the national level.
Centralized Systems
National control is to be found in democratic and authoritarian states alike, but for different reasons. Sweden and Denmark have egalitarian schools, centrally controlled to assure that every student has an equal opportunity to advance solely on merit. France has a central system in order to equalize the quality of education nationwide. Italy stresses vocational and religious training, controlling the curriculum in private as well as public schools. Belgium, the Netherlands, Greece, and most Middle Eastern nations use the centralized approach because they are small and it's the most practical and economical way. In Latin America, the centralized schooling authority deals with illiteracy, the isolation of communities in rugged terrain, inadequate funding, and political instability.

The Soviet Union controls schools from Moscow to assure that no religious or non-Marxist doctrine is taught and to accommodate multiethnic populations in its far-flung republics by providing instruction in more than 100 languages as well as Russian. Major decisions affecting education are made not by the government but by the Communist Party. Like the Soviet Union, China prohibits private schools and colleges; it relies on public education to produce good citizens and train specialists in fields that advance the central government's economic and cultural goals.

Decentralized Systems
State and local control is usually found in countries where public schooling began at the grass roots level and political unity was fostered by a confederation of sovereign states.

Following World War II, West Germany delegated education authority to its 11 states, including West Berlin, States exercise close supervision of local schools, though financing is shared with local districts, which have full responsibility for maintaining physical plants and providing for student health and welfare.

India's 1947 Constitution, adopted at independence from Great Britain, charged the federal government with providing public education to children up to age 14. However, New Delhi has lacked the funds to provide a national system, and responsibility has been assumed by the states. They in turn confront the task of educating a population speaking 12 major languages and 200 dialects. India has 300 million illiterate citizens.

Public education in Canada is a joint function of the ten provinces and local districts. The Dominion government retains authority to
overrule any provincial school law. It also guarantees the education rights of minorities and operates the schools in the Yukon and Northwest Territories and those for Indians and Eskimos.

Australia's 1900 Constitution delegated school responsibility to the six states, each of which has a ministry of education and requires marked conformity of curriculum and procedures in all schools within its jurisdiction. Since 1968, the Commonwealth government has operated the schools in the Capital and Northwest Territories.

The American System
As a decentralized enterprise, public education in the United States is an anomaly. The U.S. Constitution, unlike those of many nations, made no mention of education in setting forth the functions of the federal government. Thus, under the Tenth Amendment, Article X, education was one of many functions left by default to states. But public schools from colonial days onward were founded and supported largely by local initiative.

States through the years have continued to give local residents a major voice in school operations, along with a major responsibility for supporting them, primarily through local property taxes. Towns and cities well into the 20th century provided nearly all-school funding. As recently as 1920, local taxes provided 83.2 percent of public elementary and secondary school expenditures, with states picking up 16.5 percent, the federal government a miniscule 0.3 percent. After World War II, both state and federal support for public education began to increase dramatically. By the early 1980s, the state share was up to more than 47 percent, the federal share to 9 percent, with localities paying 44 percent. The state and federal shares are somewhat lower for education as a whole, including colleges and universities.

Nevertheless, states vary in the degree of responsibility delegated to local authorities, though no state board of education has the authority of state ministries in other countries. Massachusetts, for instance, delegates nearly all authority. New York, in contrast, has considerable control over education standards through state examinations for all students, and Delaware also tends toward centralization.

State financial support for schools also varies. Some states have less vigorous economies than others and thus lower tax revenues to help support public schools. For example, New York in 1981-82 was able to spend $4,280 per pupil, while Mississippi spent only $1,706.

The Federal Role
While not constitutionally mandated, federal support for schools has been public policy since the republic's founding. The Founding Fathers recognized that struggling young states and territories lacked the resources to provide the quality education for all children demanded by a democratic society.

Congress in the Ordinances of 1785 and 1787 set aside land for schools in the Northwest Territory. In 1862, with the Civil War dividing the nation, Congress nevertheless looked to the future by providing public lands that states could use or
sell to support land-grant colleges. These colleges offered research and training in new agricultural practices to help the nation's agrarian economy prosper.

Federal aid to improve the school curriculum began in 1917 with programs to upgrade high school vocational training. In the late 1960s President Lyndon Johnson's Great Society programs opened the flood gates of federal aid to education. Today well over a hundred federal programs channel billions of dollars into schools for remedial and enrichment activities focused on disadvantaged, handicapped, Indian, non-English-speaking, and other children with special needs.

Congress has also enacted laws prohibiting discrimination in schools and other federally assisted institutions on the basis of race, sex, national origin, or handicap. School districts found to be discriminating against students risk losing federal aid.
Public education began in New England less than a generation after the Pilgrims landed on Plymouth Rock in 1620. The Pilgrims viewed education as an instrument of their strong Puritan faith to save the immortal souls of children.

In three centuries, long since severed from religious aims and influence, public education in the United States has evolved as the free world's largest and most democratic social institution.

Employing 2.4 million teachers and 300,000 administrators and other professional staff in 1984-85, public schools spend $134.5 billion annually to educate some 39 million children. Another 5 million children attend private schools. These students have backgrounds and interests as diverse as America's multiethnic population; and they include youngers whose learning potential can be impeded by physical or mental handicaps or propelled by exceptional intellectual gifts. America's schools serve all.

Public education has been largely responsible for the intellectual and technical training that enables Americans to enjoy the world's highest standard of living.

New England Pioneers Public Education

America's public school and college systems are the direct outgrowth of citizen commitment to education that surfaced in New England almost as soon as the initial needs of food and shelter had been met. The Boston Latin School (1635) was created by local initiative as British America's first tax-supported school, offering boys seven years of instruction in Latin and Greek. It
remained for the Massachusetts Bay Colony to establish the principle, unique among English-speaking people, that the state could require towns to build and maintain schools at public expense. A 1642 law made parents and masters of young apprentices responsible for an education sufficient to enable children to understand the tenets of Puritanism and colonial law. Finding that some parents and masters were unwilling or too unskilled to take on this task, the colony in 1647 ordered towns of 50 households to hire a teacher to instruct pupils in reading the scriptures and thus be able to thwart "Ye old deluder Satan." Towns of 100 households were required to establish a school so that youth might be "fitted for the university," either in England or at Harvard College (1636), then America's only institution of higher education.

Other New England colonies passed similar laws. Religious and classical instruction dominated to the end of the 17th century, teachers being selected not for their pedagogical skills but for the firmness of their Puritan faith.

The middle colonies assumed no responsibility for education, leaving various religious sects to develop whatever schooling was offered. That policy impeded development of free public schools for generations, from New York to Delaware.

A similar hands-off attitude prevailed among government leaders in the southern colonies, where wealthy plantation owners hired tutors or had their children educated in England, though some effort was made to teach poor and homeless children as a form of charity.

By the mid-1700s, a growing mercantile society disavowed classical grammar schools and demanded a more practical education for boys. The result was the private tuition-charging academy. As a founder of the Philadelphia Academy (1751), Benjamin Franklin expressed the new concern for practicality, asking: "While they (students) are reading natural history, might not a little gardening, grafting, inoculating, etc., be taught and practiced?"

**National Support for Schools**

After the Revolution, the new national government under the Articles of Confederation made a precedent-setting commitment to public education. Congress, in the 1785 Ordinance setting forth governance procedures for the public domains beyond the Alleghenies, set aside land in each township for a public school. The Northwest Ordinance (1787) reaffirmed federal support, directing that "schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged" in the vast territory that subsequently formed the Ohio Valley and Great Lakes states.

When the Constitution replaced the Articles of Confederation in 1789, it made no mention of education as a federal charge, by inference leaving the schooling of the population to states and, through delegation by the states, to localities. Thus, the United States departed from the European systems of nationally controlled public schools. Local control of public schools still sets us apart from most other nations.
Common School Movement
From the 1820s onward, as immigrants from Europe increased the population and the young republic grew and prospered, a society long dominated by landed gentry and prosperous merchants became a society concerned with the rights of the common man. Pressure built for common schools to replace the costly private academies and provide a free, nonsectarian education for rich and poor alike. The common school movement was nonetheless opposed by many who still favored a religious orientation and feared the rise in taxes that free schools would surely bring.

Common schools found a persuasive champion in Horace Mann, a lawyer and member of the Massachusetts legislature who in 1837 became the first secretary of the Commonwealth's state board of education. In his 11-year tenure, he pushed for reforms that increased state and local support for schools, brought better pay and higher professional standards for teachers, introduced compulsory school attendance, unified curriculums and textbooks among schools, and created the precedent and foundation for statewide school systems. Henry Barnard, later the first U.S. Commissioner of Education, worked concurrently to institute similar reforms in Connecticut. By 1848, when Mann left the Massachusetts state board, 24 of the 30 states in the Union had named chief school officers as a prelude to establishing statewide public school systems. Emma Willard founded the Troy (N.Y.) Female Seminary, the first women's college.

The Boston high school offered three years of free instruction in English, mathematics, navigation, history, logic, civics, and other subjects—for boys only. Boston's effort to establish a high school for girls failed to gain public support.

Other New England towns soon had high schools, but it was again Massachusetts that tried to legislate progress statewide. Although its 1827 law mandating public high schools was ignored by most communities for many years, it spurred other states to pass similar laws. In the 1874 Kalamazoo Decision, the Michigan Supreme Court upheld the community's right to tax residents for the support of high schools, declaring them a logical bridge between the common school and the state university.

German immigrants, fleeing the 1848 revolution in their homeland, founded the first U.S. kindergartens based on the technique of Friedrich Froebel, the movement's founder. German was the language of instruction. Elizabeth Palmer Peabody established the first kindergarten for English-speaking children in Boston in 1860. Its success stimulated the national kindergarten movement. In 1873, St. Louis became the first city to add kindergartens to its public school system. By the century's end, kindergartens were an integral part of public education in many communities.

State-supported colleges, beginning in 1795 with the University of North Carolina, were...
augmented by federal support for a special kind of college under the First Morrill Act (1862). Sponsored by Justin Morrill of Vermont, the law gave public lands to states to use or sell for the establishment of colleges devoted to research and training in modern agricultural methods and mechanical arts. Morrill sponsored a second act in 1890 to provide annual support for these land-grant colleges. Almost a century later, in 1983, there were 72 land-grant colleges receiving federal support.

Serving the Immigrant Tide
America's role as the "melting pot" reached a peak between 1880 and World War I as 20 million people fled hunger and political oppression in Europe to start over in the New World. The task of Americanizing them fell to the schools. Public education gave them proficiency in using English, job skills, and the citizenship training necessary to compete in an increasingly industrialized society. Congress assisted by providing high school vocational training under the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. The new citizens provided labor for factories, mines, and railroad construction as the nation pursued its Manifest Destiny—the belief that the United States had an obligation to expand its territory and economic base.

Dewey's Revolution
Meanwhile, John Dewey was revolutionizing pedagogy. The greatest educational philosopher of the 20th century, he sought to end the routine drill and rote memorization that had dominated education from the start. In lectures and writing—first at the University of Chicago and later at Columbia University—he held that education must build on children's interests and abilities and offer a flexible classroom environment where they could do their own thinking and where the teacher would be able to be guide and helper rather than taskmaster. Education, he said, should foster all the facets of the child's growth. Virtually all subsequent innovations in teaching are refinements of Dewey's ideas.

Increasing Federal Aid
Just as public schools were the ladder of opportunity for immigrants at the turn of the century, the Servicemen's Readjustment Act (G.I. Bill) enacted by Congress in 1944 gave two million World War II veterans the funds to go to college or get technical training, enabling many to enter America's professional and entrepreneurial middle class. Counting similar benefits for veterans of the wars in Korea and Vietnam, 27 million ex-servicemen and women received college or technical training at federal expense.

The quality of American education was seriously questioned in 1957 when the Soviets launched Sputnik, the first earth-orbiting satellite. How, Americans asked, could such a remarkable breakthrough have been possible by another nation when the United States was supposed to be the world's scientific and technological leader? The public outcry led Congress in 1958 to pass the National Defense Education Act. The act funded a crash program to give students intensive preparation...
in mathematics, physical science, and certain infrequently taught foreign languages. Both the public furor and support for the program dwindled after the United States landed the first man on the moon in 1969, and school achievement in these areas similarly suffered a long-lasting setback.

Serving the Most Needy
Addressing an inequity dating back to Reconstruction, the U.S. Supreme Court in *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) found inherently unequal the separate school systems operated for black and white children in many states. Ordering desegregation, the Court held that dual schools violated the rights of blacks to equal protection under the Constitution's Fourteenth Amendment. Massive southern resistance to school desegregation resulted. In 1957, Governor Orval Faubus used the Arkansas national guard to deny admittance of blacks to Little Rock's Central High School.

Most southern school districts in the ensuing quarter century achieved greater school integration than many larger cities in other parts of the nation where *de facto* segregation (based on economic conditions rather than law or social prejudice) was the rule. Southern school districts did this by closing many small rural schools and busing children to larger, integrated schools, often some distance from their homes. Nevertheless, busing to achieve desegregation remains an issue.

The struggle for school integration raised larger questions about the obligation of government to provide special assistance for children from low-income families who were achieving below national norms. As part of his Great Society program, President Lyndon Johnson supported major new education initiatives. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 was watershed legislation. It acknowledged a federal responsibility to help states and communities provide catch-up programs for children in poor neighborhoods. Title I of the act (now called Chapter I) provided up to $3 billion annually to serve more than 5 million children. The Head Start program, authorized by the Economic Opportunity Act, also was launched in the mid-1960s to serve low-income preschool children.

Congress in the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 provided equal rights protections for handicapped individuals, including school children. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, known as Public Law 94-142, spelled out the educational entitlements of these children. It directed all school systems receiving federal aid to locate, test, and evaluate handicapped children and educate them in the least restrictive environment, preferably in a regular classroom with nonhandicapped pupils. By the end of the 1970s, public schools had located and enrolled four million disabled children.

Bilingual education became an issue in the mid-1970s as thousands of Mexican, Southeast Asian, and other non-English-speaking children flooded the nation's classrooms. In *Lau v. Nichols*, a case argued on behalf of Oriental children in California, the Supreme
Court ruled that school districts must provide appropriate programs to help these children take full advantage of their schooling. The Carter Administration proposed regulations requiring schools to begin educating the children in their native language until they achieved English proficiency. The Reagan Administration withdrew the proposed regulations in 1981.

Crisis in Public Confidence
Confidence in public schools fell significantly in the 1970s. Lack of discipline topped the list of public concerns through the decade. Polls showed that discipline, drug use, poor curriculums, and integration (including busing) continued to be major concerns into the 1980s. More subtle challenges included declining enrollments, tighter financing, and a rising demand for services to special students.

Drop-offs in student achievement scores in reading, writing, and mathematics contributed to the public's view that schools rated only a "C" grade on quality of performance. Parents demanded and got greater school emphasis on basic skills. By 1980 reading and writing scores of 9-year-olds had climbed somewhat, though high school students failed to gain. Other research in 1982 showed that minority students' scores in math were rising at a faster rate than test scores of their white counterparts, narrowing a long-standing gap between black-white achievement.

Nevertheless, public concern about the general quality of education American students were receiving continued to grow. With the onset of the 1980s it became clear that the nation needed a thorough reassessment of its educational system, especially at the elementary and secondary levels. Finding reasons for the persistent decline in academic standards and student achievement was not at issue. Rather, the challenge was to determine how to get the country's schools and colleges back on track, to return to the academic rigor that had marked education's earlier years. At the same time, updated curriculums and teaching approaches were needed to prepare students to live and work in a society where the computer, information processing, and a service-oriented economy were rapidly replacing traditional industries.

In 1983 the various imperatives for improvement formed a critical mass that resulted in an explosion of reports on the theme expressed by the National Commission on Excellence in Education, formed by Secretary of Education Terrel H. Bell. Its report (titled *A Nation At Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*) was soon followed by several others of similarly impressive stature—notably the report of a Task Force on Education for Economic Growth formed by the Education Commission of the States (*Action for Excellence*), and that of the Twentieth Century Fund (*Making the Grade*).

Education Responds
Public debate sparked by these various statements projected education into the national limelight to a degree reminiscent of the days of Sputnik. Education became a major political issue, at the state and national levels alike.
By 1984, only a year after the national debate began, the Reagan Administration announced that a tidal wave of reform was underway. Many reforms, as the Administration readily conceded, had been initiated some years earlier by state legislatures, local governments, and teacher training institutions already concerned about the decline in academic rigor and student achievement.

Perhaps the Administration's most important contribution was to provide a national scoreboard, to count and publicize the efforts of individual states, communities, and schools of education. The cumulative effect was indeed impressive, as the Department of Education reported early in 1984 in The Nation Responds: Recent Efforts to Improve Education.

As the 1984-85 school year began, Secretary Bell reported that 41 states and the District of Columbia have raised their high school graduation requirements in the last three years. Their schools serve 35 million of the 39 million children enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools nationwide. Moreover, states that set graduation requirements for their schools now require an average of 19.3 Carnegie Units compared with 17.3 in 1980.

Secretary Bell also announced that 24 states and the District of Columbia have recently lengthened the school day or year or made schedule changes that devote more of the standard school day to teaching rather than to field trips and similar activities. This means some 30 million students spend more time actively engaged in the learning process.

In addition, 29 states employing almost two-thirds of the nation's teachers now require competency tests as well as regular certification for new teachers entering the classroom. Since 1981, 42 states have raised teacher certification requirements, added courses for recertification, begun teacher evaluations and internships for new teachers, and improved programs in colleges of education for teacher trainees.

Higher pay for better teachers was high on the list of reforms recommended in most of the 1983 studies detailing education's many weaknesses. Most states are trying hard to address the issue. About 1 million of the 2.1 million public elementary and secondary school teachers work in states that have enacted or allowed local school districts to adopt master teacher programs, merit pay, or career ladder plans. However, not all these plans were slated to go into effect in the 1984-85 school year.

Finally, Secretary Bell reported that 29 states now offer college students special loan and scholarship incentives to become teachers of science and mathematics. He cited the need for 15,000 more high school science and mathematics teachers just to meet the higher state course requirements for graduation added in the past year. Federal aid was added in 1984 when Congress passed the Science and Mathematics Teacher Development Act. The act provides a modest pool of federal money—$50 million a year for five years—to help states increase scholarship incentives to prospective high school science and mathematics teachers.
Public Confidence Grows
All this activity appears to have penetrated the public consciousness. The sixteenth annual *Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools*, released by Phi Delta Kappa in September 1984, shows that Americans now have more confidence in public education than at any time since 1976. The poll found that 42 percent of its respondents graded their local public schools "A" or "B." This was a 35 percent increase in the number of people awarding such high grades compared with 1983. (See page 126.)

Aside from the Gallup Poll findings, there are other encouraging indicators of growing public confidence in education. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers reports 70,000 new members in the last year after a 20-year membership decline. The Education Commission of the States counts 275 state-level task forces working to improve education. In addition to thousands of partnerships between school districts and local businesses, the Council on Financial Aid to Education points to impressive contributions at the national level by individual corporations and entire industries.

For example, the publishing industry has made a $3 million commitment to improve literacy. A major oil company has contributed $6.7 million for films and related materials to improve mathematics instruction. A number of computer firms have donated computers to schools, one firm alone giving $12 million in computers to schools in cities.

Federal Aid Lags
However, the spirit of generally constructive change that swept the nation during 1983 and 1984 was mixed with some cold realities. The Reagan Administration proposed reductions or no funding increases in many program areas, from compensatory education for disadvantaged children to special education for handicapped children, as part of an overall domestic program reduction to help pay for large increases in defense spending.

Congress, however, elected not to reduce but to increase total spending for education. In fiscal 1982, the Administration requested $13.1 billion for Department of Education programs; Congress approved $14.2 billion. In fiscal 1983, the Administration asked for a major cut, to $10.3 billion; Congress voted $15.1 billion.

The trend continued in 1984 and 1985, with Congress increasing the President's budget request in both years. For fiscal 1985, the Administration asked for $15.5 billion. The House and Senate passed appropriation bills in excess of $17 billion.

Nonetheless, federal aid failed to keep pace either with inflation, even at its reduced level, or the need for federal assistance to fund the reforms called for by the National Commission on Excellence in Education and other study groups. At $15.4 billion, the federal education budget for 1984 was just $600 million more than that in 1981 when the Reagan Administration took office.

Thus, with sharp disagreement marking the federal stance in education, and with the challenges emerging from the various studies,
American education at the mid-1980s remains in the state of ferment that has marked its evolution from the nation's earliest days.

Still, education remains a powerful force for enlightenment and progress, and a huge one. The national investment in our educational institutions, from kindergarten through graduate school, amounts in 1985 to $240 billion, a 6 percent increase over 1984. As in past years, federal funds pay only 8 percent of the total bill. States pay 40 percent, local school districts pay 24 percent. The remainder comes from private gifts and endowments, tuition, and other sources, particularly at the college level.

Education occupies the full-time attention of 25 percent of the total population, including 44 million students and 2.4 million teachers, counting private as well as public schools. Three-fourths of all students will receive high school diplomas, as compared with only half of the school-aged children who did so 20 years ago. Similarly, three times as many will attend college.

Even with its problems, education remains our strongest and most important public institution.
The federal government has been collecting national information bearing on education for nearly 150 years now, beginning in 1840, when the Bureau of the Census started tracking illiteracy rates.

The chief effort was not launched, however, until 1870. That is the year in which the Congress created a Department of Education (which a few later became a Bureau and then an Office and in 1980 a Department again). Although the present Department of Education has Cabinet rank, the tiny original existed only to collect, evaluate, and disseminate information concerning the condition of public and private education in the United States.

The present Department continues to carry out that mission, through its National Center for Education Statistics, NCES assembles data from state agencies, such entities as the National Assessment of Educational Progress, its own surveys, and other federal agencies.

Besides Census, the other federal agencies that gather facts about education most prominently include the National Science Foundation, the Interior Department's Bureau of Indian Affairs, the Department of Agriculture, the Labor Department's Bureau of Labor Statistics, and the Department of Defense.

Next to the Department of Education the most turned-to source of education statistics is the Census Bureau, and this section of the 1984-85 Almanac begins with the latest Census data and regarding enrollments—from pre-kindergarten through college.

Then turning back to the
Department of Education, a second section features a group of tables and charts adapted from NCES's most recent assessment of The Condition of Education. With a focus on elementary and secondary education, the charts and tables deal primarily with current and future school enrollments and availability of classroom teachers, plus some interesting miscellaneous matters.

Taken in the aggregate the information contained in this section underscores the importance that Americans place on education. In a nation of some 236 million people, education is the primary activity of one out of every four persons—as students, teachers, administrators, or other staff members.

According to the Department of Education's annual forecast, expenditures by public and private schools and colleges for 1984-85 will reach a record high of some $240 billion. Of this total an estimated $144.5 billion is going for public elementary and secondary education, with public school expenditures translating into $3,400 per pupil.

Both in expenditures and in numbers of people involved, as learner or as teacher, education clearly is one of the nation's largest enterprises.

The following data, presented both in narrative and tabular form, cast further light on the operation of that enterprise.

### Analysis

Enrollment trends—nursery school... kindergarten... elementary school... high school... college

### Tables and Charts

**Table 1.**—Trends in School Enrollment, 1970-1992

**Chart 1.**—School Enrollment Trends to 1992

**Table 2.**—School Enrollment, 1970 and 1982

**Table 3.**—Racial/Ethnic Distribution of Enrollment and Change From 1970 to 1980

**Table 4.**—Trends in Preprimary Enrollment, 1970 to 1992

**Table 5.**—Young People Served in Educational Programs for the Handicapped, 1976-77 to 1982-83

**Table 6.**—Trends in Estimated Demand and Supply of Classroom Teachers to 1992
The latest available figures show that as of October 1983, some 57,745,000 persons aged 3 to 34 were enrolled in schools ranging from nursery and kindergarten to college. Despite the large size of the enrolled population, total attendance has decreased by 3.2 million students since 1975 (one of the years of highest enrollments).

Current population projections by the Census Bureau do not foresee much additional shrinkage in the near future in the 5-to-17 age cohort's size, and in fact, anticipate slow growth beginning in the next two to three years. Nevertheless, even under these assumptions, it is not expected that the 5-to-17 age category will return to its 1975 size any time in the next 50 years.

Enrollment numbers at different levels of schooling were distributed in the following way: 2.3 million nursery schoolers, 3.4 million kindergarten students, 27.2 million children in elementary school, 14.0 million persons in high school, and 10.8 million college students. Comparison of these figures with the previous year's indicates increases at the nursery and kindergarten levels and decreases at all other levels, although none of these year-to-year changes were statistically significant.

Nursery School Enrollments
With nursery school enrollment at 2.3 million persons the size of this category has now increased by 75 percent in the past 10 years. This increase is principally due to an increase in rates of nursery school attendance. In 1973, 17.7 percent of children 3 to 4 years old were enrolled in nursery school; by the fall of 1983, this figure had risen to 30.9 percent.

While over 70 percent of white nursery-school students were in private schools, only a third of black nursery schoolers were, indicating that cost and public availability may be serious limiting factors in usage of this still-growing type of schooling.

Increases in the number of kindergarten students are not as substantial as those at the nursery school level. Roughly 3.4 million children were enrolled in kindergarten in October 1983, compared with 3.1 million in 1973. Unlike nursery school, enrollment rates for children of kindergarten age (and elementary and high school ages) have been relatively high for at least the last 10 years. (That is, generally 90 percent or more of the eligible population is enrolled in school.)

Elementary School Enrollments
With 27.2 million students, elementary school enrollments are approaching the point at which they will stop decreasing and begin rising. Elementary school students decreased numerically by over 4.2 million in the past 10 years, even though the rates of enrollment remained essentially the same. Shrinking cohort size has been the main force in enrollment declines at the elementary school level. Declines in both white and black enrollments have been substantial, and only an increase of over a half-million elementary school
36 students of other races (principally Asian because of increased immigration) kept this decrease from approaching 5 million students. Based on the age structure of children 5 years and younger, increases in the numbers of elementary school students are still at least three years away.

High School Enrollments
High school enrollments of 14 million persons also represented a large drop from the level in 1973, when 15.3 million students attended high school. This decline is even more severe when one considers that in 1977 there were 15.8 million high school students. Despite this overall fall in the number of high school students, enrollments in private high schools in 1983 were about the same as they were in 1973. Whites accounted for 81.5 percent of all high school students and 89.2 percent of all private high schoolers in 1983. In comparison, nearly 95 percent of all private high school students in 1973 were white, perhaps indicating that private high schools have become slightly more accessible to nonwhite students over time.

By 1990, the 14-to-17 age group is projected to shrink in size by about 1.5 million persons from the 1983 estimate. At prevailing enrollment rates this implies a loss between 1983 and 1990 of well over one million high school students.

College Enrollments
There were 10.8 million persons ages 14 to 34 enrolled in college in October 1983. This figure, while not significantly different from the estimated 10.9 million persons in October 1982, was substantially larger than the 8.2 million students enrolled in 1973. The increase in the enrolled population is a product of many different factors, the principal one being the size of the 18-to-21 age group. Individuals of these ages are commonly referred to as the “traditional” college-age population, and in 1983 about 34 percent of all civilian persons of these ages were, in fact, enrolled in college.

Increases in college enrollment have occurred in part because of rising participation rates of women. An estimated 28.2 percent of all women 18 to 21 years old were in college in 1973; by 1983 this figure had risen to 34.5 percent.

Increases were apparent not only at traditional college ages, but at other ages as well. The attendance rate for women 22 to 34 years old rose from 5.8 to 8.9 percent in the 1973-83 period. The combined effect of higher rates and larger cohort size yielded an additional 1.2 million women students aged 22 to 34, and over 40 percent of the total increase in college students ages 18-34 that occurred during the 10-year period.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Enrollment</th>
<th>Public School Enrollment</th>
<th>Private School Enrollment</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preprimary to 8th Grade</td>
<td>9th to 12th Grade</td>
<td>Preprimary to 8th Grade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>36,629</td>
<td>14,643</td>
<td>32,577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>36,165</td>
<td>15,116</td>
<td>32,265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>35,531</td>
<td>15,213</td>
<td>31,831</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>35,053</td>
<td>15,377</td>
<td>31,353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>34,621</td>
<td>15,432</td>
<td>30,921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>34,187</td>
<td>15,604</td>
<td>30,487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>33,831</td>
<td>15,653</td>
<td>30,006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>33,133</td>
<td>15,583</td>
<td>29,336</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>32,060</td>
<td>15,576</td>
<td>28,328</td>
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<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>31,631</td>
<td>15,014</td>
<td>27,931</td>
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<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>31,297</td>
<td>14,652</td>
<td>27,674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>30,945</td>
<td>14,255</td>
<td>27,245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>30,843</td>
<td>13,901</td>
<td>27,143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Projected</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>30,610</td>
<td>13,621</td>
<td>26,910</td>
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<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>30,246</td>
<td>13,679</td>
<td>26,646</td>
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<td>1985</td>
<td>30,236</td>
<td>13,741</td>
<td>26,636</td>
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<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>30,587</td>
<td>13,588</td>
<td>26,887</td>
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<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>30,993</td>
<td>13,180</td>
<td>27,293</td>
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<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>31,583</td>
<td>12,761</td>
<td>27,783</td>
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<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>32,209</td>
<td>12,435</td>
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<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>32,925</td>
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<td>1991</td>
<td>33,457</td>
<td>12,184</td>
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<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>34,125</td>
<td>12,253</td>
<td>30,025</td>
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**NOTE:** Details may not add to totals because of rounding.

Enrollment at the elementary level is projected to increase, while in the upper grades it is expected to continue declining into 1990.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Total Enrollment Fall 1970</th>
<th>Total Enrollment Fall 1982</th>
<th>Percent Change</th>
<th>Total Enrollment Fall 1970</th>
<th>Total Enrollment Fall 1982</th>
<th>Percent Change</th>
<th>Total Enrollment Fall 1970</th>
<th>Total Enrollment Fall 1982</th>
<th>Percent Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
### VITAL STATISTICS

#### Table 3. Racial/Ethnic Distribution of Enrollment and Change From 1970 to 1980

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>White Non-Hispanic</th>
<th>Black Non-Hispanic</th>
<th>American Indian/Alaskan Native</th>
<th>Asian or Pacific Islander</th>
<th>Percent Minority in 1970</th>
<th>Change from 1970 to 1980, in Percentage Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>73.3</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
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<td>Alabama</td>
<td>66.4</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>33.1</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>66.3</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arizona</td>
<td>66.1</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>76.5</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>77.9</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>1.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>83.0</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.2</td>
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<td>Delaware</td>
<td>71.2</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>1.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>District of Columbia</td>
<td>96.4</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.0</td>
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<td>Florida</td>
<td>67.8</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>1.7</td>
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<td>Georgia</td>
<td>65.7</td>
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<td>33.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
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<td>8.5</td>
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<td>20.9</td>
<td>6.1</td>
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<td>Iowa</td>
<td>95.9</td>
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<td>Kansas</td>
<td>87.3</td>
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<td>1.1</td>
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<td>Louisiana</td>
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<td>43.4</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maine</td>
<td>99.1</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>66.5</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.8</td>
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<td>10.7</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
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<td>Michigan</td>
<td>78.7</td>
<td>21.3</td>
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<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Minnesota</td>
<td>94.1</td>
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<td>2.1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
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<td>1.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mississippi</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td>51.6</td>
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Table 4.—Trends in Preprimary Enrollment, 1970 to 1992

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<td>4 Years</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Old</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>1975</td>
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<tr>
<td>1976</td>
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<td>1977</td>
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<td>1980</td>
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<td>1982</td>
<td>3,476</td>
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<td>1992</td>
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NOTES:
1. Includes prekindergarten and kindergarten enrollments in regular public schools and enrollments in independently operated public and private nursery schools and kindergartens.
2. Details may not add to totals because of rounding.

### Table 5. — Young People Served in Educational Programs for the Handicapped, 1976-77 to 1982-83

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<td>1,131</td>
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<td>786</td>
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<td>75</td>
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#### Percentage Distribution of Persons Served

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<td>1.8</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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#### As Percent of Total Enrollment

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<td>.85</td>
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*Not available.  
—Not applicable.

**NOTE**: Child counts are based on reports from the 50 States and District of Columbia only (i.e., figures from U.S. territories are not included). Percentages of total enrollment are based on the total annual enrollment of U.S. public schools, preprimary through 12th grade. Details may not add to totals because of rounding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Estimated Teacher Demand</th>
<th>Demand for Additional Teachers</th>
<th>Estimated Supply of New Teacher Graduates</th>
<th>Supply as Percent of Demand</th>
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**Projected**

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<th>Estimated Supply of New Teacher Graduates</th>
<th>Supply as Percent of Demand</th>
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<td>1988-92</td>
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Chart 2.—Estimated Teacher Supply and Demand to 1992

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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>800</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE. The current imbalance between the need for additional teachers and the supply of new teacher graduates is projected to continue through 1992, with most of that demand coming from elementary schools.
Table 7.—Trends In Number of Preprimary to 12th Grade Teachers, 1970 to 1992

(In Thousands)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Teachers</th>
<th>Public School Teachers</th>
<th>Private School Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>Secondary Elementary</td>
<td>Elementary Secondary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970</td>
<td>1,281</td>
<td>1,007</td>
<td>1,128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>1,263</td>
<td>1,030</td>
<td>1,111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972</td>
<td>1,294</td>
<td>1,040</td>
<td>1,140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973</td>
<td>1,306</td>
<td>1,063</td>
<td>1,149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974</td>
<td>1,331</td>
<td>1,079</td>
<td>1,167</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>1,352</td>
<td>1,099</td>
<td>1,180</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976</td>
<td>1,349</td>
<td>1,105</td>
<td>1,166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>1,375</td>
<td>1,113</td>
<td>1,185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978</td>
<td>1,375</td>
<td>1,103</td>
<td>1,190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979</td>
<td>1,378</td>
<td>1,081</td>
<td>1,190</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>1,365</td>
<td>1,074</td>
<td>1,177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>1,349</td>
<td>1,054</td>
<td>1,155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1982</td>
<td>1,362</td>
<td>1,039</td>
<td>1,165</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Projected

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Total Teachers</th>
<th>Public School Teachers</th>
<th>Private School Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1983</td>
<td>1,362</td>
<td>1,042</td>
<td>1,163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>1,358</td>
<td>1,043</td>
<td>1,162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>1,371</td>
<td>1,042</td>
<td>1,174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1986</td>
<td>1,403</td>
<td>1,035</td>
<td>1,198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1987</td>
<td>1,433</td>
<td>1,019</td>
<td>1,227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1988</td>
<td>1,472</td>
<td>996</td>
<td>1,258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>1,510</td>
<td>983</td>
<td>1,288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>1,550</td>
<td>977</td>
<td>1,321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>1,584</td>
<td>985</td>
<td>1,353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>1,618</td>
<td>1,006</td>
<td>1,379</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Details may not add to totals because of rounding.

Chart 3.—Trends in Number of Elementary, Secondary Teachers to 1992

The number of public and private elementary school teachers is projected to increase slightly, while the number of secondary school teachers is expected to decline.
Chart 4. — Classroom Teachers Per 1,000 Students, 1970-1992

NOTE: The ratio of teachers to students is projected to rise somewhat in public and private schools at both elementary and secondary levels.
Table 8.—Number of Classroom Teachers by State, 1970 and 1981

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Fall 1970</th>
<th>Fall 1981</th>
<th>Percent Change</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>2,055,218</td>
<td>2,116,664</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>33,026</td>
<td>34,224</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alaska</td>
<td>3,821</td>
<td>5,665</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arizona</td>
<td>18,772</td>
<td>25,601</td>
<td>38.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>21,122</td>
<td>23,497</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>195,000</td>
<td>170,007</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>23,617</td>
<td>29,119</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>31,323</td>
<td>33,723</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>6,034</td>
<td>5,331</td>
<td>11.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>District of Columbia</td>
<td>7,486</td>
<td>5,132</td>
<td>31.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>62,419</td>
<td>74,872</td>
<td>20.0</td>
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<td>Georgia</td>
<td>44,007</td>
<td>55,217</td>
<td>27.7</td>
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<tr>
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<td>7,985</td>
<td>7,165</td>
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<tr>
<td>Idaho</td>
<td>8,047</td>
<td>9,796</td>
<td>21.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Illinois</td>
<td>111,827</td>
<td>103,793</td>
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<tr>
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<td>50,421</td>
<td>51,303</td>
<td>1.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Iowa</td>
<td>32,659</td>
<td>31,244</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kansas</td>
<td>25,884</td>
<td>26,179</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>30,180</td>
<td>31,566</td>
<td>4.9</td>
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<td>36,469</td>
<td>39,967</td>
<td>9.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maine</td>
<td>11,170</td>
<td>10,736</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>40,810</td>
<td>39,120</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts</td>
<td>55,300</td>
<td>62,227</td>
<td>12.5</td>
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<tr>
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<td>93,000</td>
<td>76,768</td>
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<td>43,809</td>
<td>42,836</td>
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<td>22,533</td>
<td>24,430</td>
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<tr>
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<td>48,286</td>
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<td>17,410</td>
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<td>4,967</td>
<td>7,180</td>
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<td>7,441</td>
<td>9,729</td>
<td>30.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>New Jersey</td>
<td>72,140</td>
<td>75,231</td>
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<td>11,620</td>
<td>14,296</td>
<td>23.0</td>
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<td>New York</td>
<td>177,066</td>
<td>157,201</td>
<td>11.2</td>
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<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>49,565</td>
<td>55,833</td>
<td>12.6</td>
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<td>7,659</td>
<td>6,955</td>
<td>8.7</td>
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<td>Ohio</td>
<td>104,680</td>
<td>96,449</td>
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<td>Oklahoma</td>
<td>28,184</td>
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<td>21,641</td>
<td>22,480</td>
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<td>Pennsylvania</td>
<td>106,465</td>
<td>108,221</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rhode Island</td>
<td>8,988</td>
<td>8,895</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Carolina</td>
<td>28,578</td>
<td>32,007</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Dakota</td>
<td>8,698</td>
<td>7,964</td>
<td>8.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tennessee</td>
<td>35,450</td>
<td>40,875</td>
<td>15.3</td>
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<td>Texas</td>
<td>129,440</td>
<td>159,640</td>
<td>23.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Utah</td>
<td>11,350</td>
<td>12,983</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vermont</td>
<td>5,750</td>
<td>5,103</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
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<td>Virginia</td>
<td>47,903</td>
<td>55,471</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>33,380</td>
<td>34,576</td>
<td>3.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>West Virginia</td>
<td>18,582</td>
<td>21,870</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wisconsin</td>
<td>44,460</td>
<td>46,652</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyoming</td>
<td>4,566</td>
<td>6,634</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Estimated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of Classroom Teachers, in Thousands</th>
<th>Average Annual Salary</th>
<th>Total, in Billions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Current Dollars</td>
<td>Constant (1981-82) Dollars*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71</td>
<td>2,055</td>
<td>$9,269</td>
<td>$21,966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971-72</td>
<td>2,063</td>
<td>9,705</td>
<td>22,197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972-73</td>
<td>2,103</td>
<td>10,176</td>
<td>22,372</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1973-74</td>
<td>2,133</td>
<td>10,778</td>
<td>21,770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1974-75</td>
<td>2,166</td>
<td>11,690</td>
<td>21,242</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-76</td>
<td>2,196</td>
<td>12,591</td>
<td>21,363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1976-77</td>
<td>2,186</td>
<td>13,352</td>
<td>21,414</td>
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<td>1977-78</td>
<td>2,209</td>
<td>14,207</td>
<td>21,350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1978-79</td>
<td>2,207</td>
<td>15,022</td>
<td>20,637</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1979-80</td>
<td>2,183</td>
<td>15,951</td>
<td>19,339</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td>2,162</td>
<td>17,601</td>
<td>19,127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-82</td>
<td>2,117</td>
<td>19,157</td>
<td>19,157</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Adjusted for inflation, using the Consumer Price Index.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupational Group</th>
<th>1982</th>
<th>Low Trend</th>
<th>Moderate Trend</th>
<th>High Trend</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All occupations</td>
<td>101,510</td>
<td>124,846</td>
<td>127,110</td>
<td>129,902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White-collar workers</td>
<td>52,132</td>
<td>65,621</td>
<td>66,756</td>
<td>68,241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional and technical workers</td>
<td>16,584</td>
<td>21,545</td>
<td>22,775</td>
<td>23,225</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers and administrators</td>
<td>9,532</td>
<td>12,008</td>
<td>12,212</td>
<td>12,467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales workers</td>
<td>6,967</td>
<td>8,535</td>
<td>8,771</td>
<td>8,911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical workers</td>
<td>19,049</td>
<td>23,533</td>
<td>23,998</td>
<td>29,538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue-collar workers</td>
<td>30,447</td>
<td>36,404</td>
<td>37,240</td>
<td>38,123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft and related workers</td>
<td>11,591</td>
<td>14,476</td>
<td>14,769</td>
<td>15,099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operatives</td>
<td>12,995</td>
<td>15,044</td>
<td>15,419</td>
<td>15,809</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laborers, except farm</td>
<td>5,861</td>
<td>6,884</td>
<td>7,052</td>
<td>7,215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service workers</td>
<td>16,241</td>
<td>20,416</td>
<td>20,706</td>
<td>21,113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farm workers</td>
<td>2,691</td>
<td>2,404</td>
<td>2,407</td>
<td>2,424</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percent Change in Employment, 1982 to 1995

| All occupations                           | 23    | 25     | 28    |
| White-collar workers                      | 26    | 28     | 31    |
| Professional and technical workers        | 30    | 31     | 35    |
| Managers and administrators               | 26    | 28     | 31    |
| Sales workers                             | 23    | 26     | 28    |
| Clerical workers                          | 24    | 26     | 29    |
| Blue-collar workers                       | 20    | 22     | 25    |
| Craft and related workers                 | 25    | 27     | 30    |
| Operatives                                | 16    | 19     | 22    |
| Laborers, except farm                     | 17    | 20     | 23    |
| Service workers                           | 26    | 27     | 30    |
| Farm workers                              | -11   | -11    | -10   |

NOTE: Details may not add to totals because of rounding.

Chart 5. — Classroom Use of Microcomputers

Percent of Schools Using Microcomputers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>1982</th>
<th>1983</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior high</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Time-Per-User During an Average Week

NOTE: Between 1982 and 1983 the percentage of schools using microcomputers tripled at the elementary school level, more than doubled at the junior high level, and increased by 61 percent at the senior high level.
### Table 11.—States Using Minimum-Competency Testing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>States Using Minimum Competency Testing</th>
<th>Government Setting Standards</th>
<th>Grade Levels Assessed</th>
<th>Expected Uses</th>
<th>First Graduating Class Assessed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alabama</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>3,6,9+</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arizona</td>
<td>State/local</td>
<td>8,12</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arkansas</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>3,4,6,8</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>State/local</td>
<td>4-11,16 yr. old +</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>9,12</td>
<td></td>
<td>Local option</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Connecticut</td>
<td>State/local</td>
<td>3,5,7,9</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delaware</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>State/local</td>
<td>3,5,8,11</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>4,8,10+</td>
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<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>9-12</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idaho</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>9-12</td>
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<td>Local option</td>
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<tr>
<td>Illinois</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>Local option</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indiana</td>
<td>State/local</td>
<td>3,6,8,10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kansas</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>2-4,6,8,9,11,12</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<tr>
<td>Kentucky</td>
<td>State/local</td>
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<td>Louisiana</td>
<td>State</td>
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<td>X</td>
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<td>Maine</td>
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<td>Maryland</td>
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<tr>
<td>Massachusetts</td>
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<td>Michigan</td>
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<td>Missouri</td>
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*Current legislation (1983) calls for the state to develop a minimum course of studies, criteria for high school graduation standards, and guidelines for grade-to-grade promotion.*

SUDFFI. Education Commission of the States, Department of Research and Information, unpublished tabulations (November 1983)
Chart 6.—States with Minimum-Competency Testing for High School Graduation

NOTE: In 1983, 22 States used minimum competency testing for high school graduation; another 18 States used it for other purposes.
### Table 12.—Federal, State, and Local Revenues for Public Education: 1974-75 to 1981-82

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#### Percentage Distribution

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ALABAMA


Education history—First constitution (1819) echoed the wording of the U.S. Congress in its 1787 Northwest Ordinance: "Schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." The state's public school system was established in 1854. The Civil War and Reconstruction slowed school growth and educational standards suffered. The county high school system was created in 1907. A 1919 state education survey resulted in laws governing the state's basic school code. Like most southern states, Alabama long had separate schools for blacks and whites. The U.S. Supreme Court ruled segregation unconstitutional in 1954; Alabama began its desegregation effort in 1963.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—129 school districts with 681 elementary schools, 130 middle, 85 junior high, 405 senior high (grades 10-12), and 94 vocational-technical schools (1983-84).

Student enrollment—708,180 elementary and secondary; 384,528 kindergarten-grade 6; 323,652 grades 7-12 (1983-84).
Per pupil expenditures—$2,102 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—41,000 total instructional; 19,950 elementary teachers, 19,250 secondary teachers, 1,800 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $18,500; elementary teachers, $18,000; secondary teachers, $18,000; elementary principals, $26,233; junior high/middle school principals, $27,607; senior high principals, $31,465 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: A school reform plan is being implemented by the State Board of Education and the legislature, including mandatory kindergarten, more student testing, tougher standards to enter teacher-training programs, and temporary certification of non-education majors. The state board has already increased graduation requirements and created an honors diploma.

ALASKA


Education history—After the United States purchased the land from Russia in 1867, education was provided by various religious bodies. Although public schools were mandated under the 1884 Organic Act, parochial schools continued to play the prime role because of limited public funds. In 1900, Congress passed laws establishing schools for white and mixed-blood children within incorporated towns. When Alaska became a territory in 1912, the federal government assumed responsibility for native education, leaving education of white children to the territorial government. After statehood in 1959, the U.S. Bureau of Indian Affairs continued to operate many schools for natives. In 1976, state control of education was regionalized with regional boards of elected officials. The BIA is scheduled to transfer responsibility for the final ten schools it operates in Alaska to the state after the 1984-85 year.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; kindergarten; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—53 school districts, with 159 elementary schools, 17 junior high, 54 senior high, and 168 schools with kindergarten-grade 12.

Student enrollment—94,767 elementary and secondary; 55,304 kindergarten-grade 6; 39,463 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$6,688 elementary and secondary (1983-84)
### Arizona

**Chief state school officer** — Carolyn Warner, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Education, 1535 West Jefferson, Phoenix 85007. (602) 255-4361.

**Education history** — Only parochial schooling was available before 1863, reflecting the region's strong Catholic influence. Building of an effective education system began under Governor A. P. K. Safford's administration (1869-77). The first public schools opened in Tucson in 1871. In 1885, a uniform course of study was adopted for public schools. In 1899, Northern Arizona Normal School was created at Flagstaff. Manual arts training was added to the curriculum in 1905. In 1907, measures were taken to consolidate schools for more efficient system operations.


**Excellence activities:** In 1984, Alaska increased high school graduation credit requirements to 21, including four years of English, three of social studies, two each of mathematics and science and one of physical education. In addition, all districts are now required to develop a curriculum for each school grade. In 1983, the Public School Foundation Program was temporarily suspended to revamp the program to distribute more equitably the state's wealth among school districts. The Department of Education was expected to submit its new plan to the Governor for consideration by the legislature.

**State mandates** — Compulsory school attendance for students aged 8-16; kindergarten; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

**Number of schools** — 225 school districts with 726 elementary schools, 145 secondary, and 17 other—special education and alternative schools (1982-83).

**Student enrollment** — 545,760 elementary and secondary; 387,175 kindergarten-grade 6; 158,585 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

**Per pupil expenditures** — $2,738 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

**Staff** — 33,251 total instructional; 18,343 elementary teachers, 7,319 secondary teachers, 6,297 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,292 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $23,662; elementary teachers, $21,546; secondary teachers, $21,753; elementary principals,
$35,159; junior high/middle school principals, $37,119; senior high principals $38,925 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: Arizona has for years been making a systematic review of state educational leadership and service—a comprehensive assessment of curriculum, certification of teachers and administrators, testing of pupils and teachers, and staff development for educational personnel. Special projects that have encouraged excellence include recognition programs, career ladders, teacher incentive programs, principal's academy, and vocational-technical education.

ARKANSAS


Education history—Legislation to establish a public school system was enacted in 1843. Public schools received meager support until the agrarian revolt of the early 1900s brought a demand for better schools. Education improvements resulted from laws on school excellence activities (1909), a school equalization fund (1929), and free textbooks (1937). In 1958, a state law permitted closing of any school threatened with forced integration. As a result, all Little Rock schools were closed during the 1958-59 school year. A federal court invalidated the state law and in 1960 voters rejected a state constitutional amendment for local option as regards closing of schools facing integration.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16.

Number of schools—367 school districts with 654 elementary schools, 524 secondary, and 2 alternative schools (Fall 1984).

Student enrollment—456,035 elementary and secondary; 243,601 kindergarten-grade 6; 207,034 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$1,666 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—23,669 total instructional; 11,592 elementary teachers, 12,107 secondary teachers, 1,408 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,354 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $17,503; elementary teachers, $16,436; secondary teachers, $17,396; elementary principals, $21,022; junior high/middle school principals, $27,207; senior high principals, $29,379 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: The State Board of Education adopted new accreditation standards in February 1984 which go into effect in June 1987. These standards increase the number of credits required for high school graduation; require additional courses to be offered by all schools; strengthen the involvement of administrators, teachers, parents, and the community in planning; require students to pass a test before entering the ninth grade; and reduce the size of classes. Also, the state legislature, in a special 1983 session dedicated solely to education, passed an additional one-cent sales tax for education, a new funding formula, and a package of reform legislation covering teacher and administrator testing.

CALIFORNIA


Education history—In the 1700s and early 1800s, Franciscan friars taught farming, weaving, and other crafts to Indians, while most children of early white settlers received private instruction. The first tax-supported school, financed by the city, was founded in San Francisco in 1850. The California Constitution provided for a public school system in 1849; a tax law to support this system passed in 1852. Is were not completely free to all children until 1867. High schools were added in 1856. In 1890, the Union Public High School Act allowed elementary school districts to combine funds to maintain high schools. The state established a tax for high school funding in 1903.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 6-16; kindergarten; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—1,029 school districts with 5,495 elementary schools, 1,263 secondary, and 480 other—elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment—4,089,017 elementary and secondary; 2,813,524 kindergarten-grade 8; 1,275,493 grades 9-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$2,416 elementary and secondary (Fall 1983).

Staff—202,367 total instructional; 106,940 elementary teachers, 68,084 secondary teachers, 12,457 other nonsupervisory instructional, 14,886 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $25,960; elementary teachers, $24,696; secondary teachers, $26,314; elementary principals, $38,476; junior high principals, $40,386; senior high principals, $44,746 (1983-84).

STATE PROFILES

60


Excellence activities: In 1983, the state legislature passed a major school reform bill. Elements of the package included raises for teachers, a longer school day and year, expansion of the teacher-mentor program and increased graduation requirements. A ballot initiative was passed in November creating a state lottery that provides $540 million in school funds.

COLORADO


Education history — In 1859/O. J. Goldrick rented a cabin in Denver to open Colorado’s first school for the children of gold miners. A log house in Boulder became the first formal school structure, in 1860. High schools appeared in the 1870s. An Opportunity School in Denver became nationally famous for the character and scope of its offerings to adults. Since the 1950s the state has been consolidating public schools, and the rural schoolhouse has all but vanished.

State mandates — Compulsory attendance for students aged 7-16, provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their children.

Number of schools — 181 school districts with 785 elementary schools, 71 middle, 152 junior high, and 397 secondary (1982).

Student enrollment — 542,175 elementary and secondary; 319,064 kindergarten-grade 6; 223,111 grades 7-12 (1982-83).


Staff — 32,989 total instructional; 15,287 elementary teachers, 14,160 secondary teachers, 1,920 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,622 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $23,779; elementary teachers, $22,452; secondary teachers, $23,789; elementary principals, $39,600; junior high/middle school principals, $37,642; senior high principals, $40,312 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: Based on reports from task forces established by the State Board of Education following the 1983 publication of the U.S. Department of Education’s A Nation At Risk, the state Department of Education established a new Office of Federal Relations and Instructional Services. To address specific task force recommendations, three
curriculum specialists on loan from school districts—outstanding teachers of English, mathematics and science—are visiting districts, helping with curriculum development and special needs. More of this is scheduled to follow as other task forces submit recommendations.

CONNECTICUT


Education history—The state's first free school was established in 1641 in New Haven. A 1650 law required towns of 50 or more families to establish elementary schools. Towns of 100 or more families were also required to found schools to prepare youth for the university. School orientation was religious, and penalties were imposed on parents who neglected their children's education. In 1795, the state created a school fund financed by the sale of state-owned lands. Henry Barnard, the first chief state school officer, sparked public interest during the 1840s in school reform and improvement. Today the state has a decentralized system of public education, with most decision-making authority vested in local school districts.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 5-16; kindergarten; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children. Minimal competency evaluation and remediation at grade 9. Education evaluation and remedial assistance involves grades 4, 6, and 8. Minimum 900 hours instructional time grades 1-12, 450 hours for kindergarten.

Number of schools—145 school districts with 618 elementary schools, 153 middle and junior high; 141 secondary, and 30 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment—480,492 elementary and secondary; 302,944 kindergarten-grade 8; 158,616 grades 9-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$4,061 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—38,426 total instructional; 18,902 elementary teachers, 13,813 secondary teachers, 3,280 other nonsupervisory instructional, 2,431 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $23,695; elementary teachers, $22,384; secondary teachers, $23,031; elementary principals, $36,700; junior high/middle school principals, $39,413; senior high principals, $41,396 (1983-84).

Excellence activities: The State Board of Education has approved reforms including all-day kindergarten, a loan-incentive program for education majors, tougher teacher-training requirements, increased graduation requirements, and lowering of the compulsory school age to 5. District policies are now required on professional development, homework, attendance, and promotion and retention. The state is considering revision of its certification law, and plans to study teacher salaries, vocational education, adult education, and early childhood education.

DELAWARE

Chief state school officer—William B. Keene, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Public Instruction, P.O. Box 1402-Townsend Building, Dover 19901. (302) 736-4601.

Education history—Earliest schools were run by churches of Dutch and Swedish colonists and then the English. Public education started after the Revolutionary War; public school funding by the state began in 1792. While the legislature established the public educational system in 1829, it remained under local control until the 1920s.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 5-16; kindergarten; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—19 school districts with 118 elementary and middle schools and 46 secondary (1982-83).

Student enrollment—91,406 elementary and secondary; 45,545 kindergarten-grade 6; 45,861 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$4,061 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—6,111 total instructional; 2,451 elementary teachers, 2,985 secondary teachers, 360 other nonsupervisory instructional, 315 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $21,648; elementary teachers, $20,378; secondary teachers, $21,375; elementary principals, $36,028; junior high/middle school principals, $35,812; senior high principals, $38,314 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: The State Board of Education adopted passing scores for new Delaware educators taking the Pre-Professional Skills Test, not required for certification. It also changed standards for high school graduation, doubling mathematics and science requirements beginning with the class of 1987. The legislature raised school funding by 10 percent, with money going to increase teachers' salaries and reduce class sizes in the primary grades. It also required 5-year-olds to attend kindergarten. A governor's task force proposed 75 recommendations for change,
including a 25 percent increase in time spent on core academic subjects. The Department of Public Instruction is seeking to add 30 minutes to the school day and plans to write standards for all courses of study and issue guidelines on how to allocate elementary instructional time.

**DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA**

*Chief state school officer*—Floretta McKenzie, Superintendent of Public Schools, D.C. Public Schools, 415 12th St., N.W., 20004. (202) 724-4222.

**Education history**—D.C. public schools originated with an act passed by the City Council in 1804 "to establish and endow a permanent institution for the education of youth in the city of Washington." The board of trustees created by the act, with Thomas Jefferson as its first president, developed plans for a system of public instruction from the common school level to a college or university. Two elementary schools for boys opened in 1805, followed in 1812 by a school admitting girls as well as boys. Between 1812 and 1838 Congress passed 14 joint resolutions authorizing lotteries for school financing. A true public school system did not develop until after the Civil War, and it was a segregated system. A high school for white girls was established in 1876; a high school for white boys opened the following year. A high school for blacks (the M Street School) opened in 1891. Separate boards for schools serving black and white students were abolished in early 1900s in favor of a single board with both black and white members, and a partial unification of white and black schools occurred. After the 1954 Supreme Court decision holding segregated schools unconstitutional, the District of Columbia moved quickly to comply, becoming the first major city to fully desegregate its school system.

**District mandate**—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16.

**Number of schools**—1 school district with 121 elementary schools, 2 middle, 27 junior high, 15 high and 18 other—special education and alternative schools (Fall 1984).

**Student enrollment**—89,000 elementary and secondary; 45,026 kindergarten-grade 6; 35,931 grades 7-12 (Fall 1984).

**Per pupil expenditures**—$3,565 elementary and secondary (Fall 1983).

**Staff**—5,812 total instructional; 2,454 elementary teachers, 1,766 secondary teachers, 844 other nonsupervisory instructional, 285 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $28,725; elementary teachers, $27,659, secondary teachers, $27,659; elementary principals, $41,577, junior high/middle school principals, $43,320; senior high principals, $43,087 (1984-85).


Excellence activities: Prior to the 1983 publication of the U.S. Department of Education's study of education, A Nation At Risk, the District of Columbia had increased graduation requirements and established a competency-based curriculum. Since then, a task force has recommended development of a teacher incentive program that may include career ladders. The task force's study also recommended school and teacher incentive awards, which were implemented. The system also initiated a secondary school program plan that will be expanded over the next three years.

FLORIDA


Education history—The first schools were begun by Spanish priests in the 1600s. The focus of studies for Spanish and Indian children was on religion and Spanish language. In the mid-1700s, English colonists provided education for children of wealthier families. A formal system of public education was started with the 1862 constitution and was well established by the early 1900s.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; provision for home education by parents who want to educate their own children. New mandates added in 1984 include kindergarten; assessment testing in grades 3, 5, 8 and 10; 22 credits for graduation as of 1984-85; five net hours of instruction each school day; 150 hours of instruction for high schools, 135 of which must be attended for credit; grade-point average of 1.5 required for graduation beginning in 1986-87; same average required to take part in extracurricular activities; student performance standards and curriculum frameworks.

Number of schools—67 school districts with 1,254 elementary schools, 361 middle and junior high, 284 senior high, and 55 combined elementary-secondary schools (1984-85).

Student enrollment—1,492,366 elementary and secondary; 775,570 kindergarten-grade 6; 716,796 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$3,201 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—90,348 total instructional; 46,352 elementary teachers, 36,576 secondary teachers, 7,420 other nonsupervisory instructional, 5,336 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $20,710; elementary teachers, $19,871; secondary teachers, $19,109; elementary principals, $32,283; junior high/middle school principals, $34,476; senior high principals, $37,152 (1983-84).


**Excellence activities:** An educational reform package included special attention to grades 4 and 5 as well as enhancement of learning in grades 6-8 and strengthened mathematics, science, and computer programs. High school graduation and college admissions standards raised, and college students required to pass a test at the end of their sophomore year to be admitted to upper-level study. A beginning teacher program being implemented, and a statewide academy for school managers has developed guidelines for identifying and rewarding outstanding principals. Out-of-school learning activities and academic recognition programs are promoted. Both master-teacher and merit-pay programs reward outstanding teachers, and a merit-school program honors the entire staff at qualified schools.

**GEORGIA**

**Chief state school officer**—Charles McDaniel, Superintendent of Schools, Georgia Department of Education, 2066 Twin Towers East, Atlanta 30334. (404) 656-2800.

**Education history**—Early schooling occurred in cabins built by farmers and known as “old field” schools. Traveling school teachers ran them. Wealthier planters hired private teachers, mostly from New England, for their children. The public schools were established by legislation in 1870 under the leadership of Gustavus J. Orr. He became state commissioner of schools in 1872 and is considered the father of Georgia’s public school system. State supported high schools came into being in 1912.

**State mandates**—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; kindergarten.

**Number of schools**—187 school districts with 1,286 elementary schools, 380 secondary, and 138 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (1982-83).

**Student enrollment**—1,050,900 elementary and secondary; 648,500 kindergarten-grade 6; 402,400 grades 7-12; 18,343 special (1983-84).

**Per pupil expenditures**—$2,309 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

**Staff**—58,840 total instructional; 33,660 elementary teachers, 22,610 secondary teachers, 2,570 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $19,429; elementary teachers, $18,184; secondary teachers, $18,948; elementary principals, $30,568; junior high/middle school principals, $33,023; senior high principals, $33,691 (1983-84).

STATE PROFILES


Excellence activities: Four improvement efforts were adopted by the State Board of Education and are now being implemented statewide: strengthened graduation requirements (from 20 to 21 units and additional required courses in English, mathematics, science, and social studies) effective 1985 for ninth graders; a limit of ten days on the number of days a student may miss school because of school-sanctioned activities; a basic skills promotion test that third graders must pass to be promoted to fourth grade; and a basic curriculum content to be used statewide to establish uniformity and consistency in curriculum offerings at each grade level and course.

HAWAII

Chief state school officer—Francis M. Hatanaka, Acting Superintendent of Education, P.O. Box 2360, Honolulu 96804. (808) 548-6405.

Education history—American missionaries set up Hawaii’s education system in the 1820s. Compulsory school attendance was required as early as 1824. By 1832, there were 900 schools with 53,000 pupils, mostly adults, who comprised 40 percent of the population. Government support of public schools began in 1843. Hawaiian was the language of public instruction until 1854 when English was adopted and American teachers, textbooks, and methods became common. Reflecting centralized control under the native monarchy and later territorial status, public education today is operated entirely by the state rather than through local school districts.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 6-18; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—1 school district with 143 elementary schools, 66 secondary and combined elementary-secondary; 23 other—special education and alternative schools (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment—161,932 elementary and secondary; 86,920 kindergarten-grade 6; 75,012 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—9,231 total instructional; 4,005 elementary teachers, 3,201 secondary teachers, 833 special schools teachers, 360 principals and supervisors (1983-84). Average salary of instructional staff, $25,539; elementary teachers, $25,539; secondary teachers, $25,539; elementary principals, no data; junior high/middle school principals, no data; senior high principals, $34,553 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: The State Department of Education has re-examined its organization, functions, and activities toward upgrading the delivery of services to students and strengthening the overall school system. Concerns now being addressed include school climate, ensuring a safe and secure environment, quality staffing, and strengthening of graduation requirements.

IDAHO

Chief state school officer—Jerry L. Evans, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Education, 650 W. State St., Boise 83720. (208) 334-3300.

Education history—The first schools were created by missionaries for Indian children. For example, missionary Henry Spalding and his wife opened a school at Lapwai Mission in about 1836. Later, homesteaders settling in permanent communities joined together to build schools for their children. The office of territorial superintendent of instruction was created by the legislature in 1864 and a common school system was established. By 1890, Idaho had 400 public schools. In 1913, the legislature established a state board of education to supervise all state public education institutions, elementary through university levels, including vocational and special schools.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children, if approved by the local Board of Trustees.

Number of scho.ls—116 school districts with 348 elementary schools, 207 secondary, and 3 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1984).

Student enrollment—208,365 elementary and secondary; 116,474 kindergarten-grade 6; 91,891 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—11,710 total instructional; 5,285 elementary teachers, 4,884 secondary teachers, 604 other nonsupervisory instructional, 624 principals and supervisors. Estimated average salary of instructional staff, $18,687; elementary teachers, $17,183; secondary teachers, $17,993; elementary principals, $30,141; junior high principals, $30,257; senior high principals, $32,417 (1983-84).

Excellence activities: The State Board of Education adopted a six-period day for all secondary students, beginning in 1985; a mandated core curriculum in which students must obtain a cumulative "C" average for credit; 90 percent attendance in class for credit for all secondary students; district absence and tardy policies for elementary students; and requirements for recertification of teachers. Statewide proficiency testing has been moved from ninth to eighth grade and an eleventh grade testing program has been initiated. Graduation requirements for the class of 1988 were increased in January 1983. In addition, the Idaho School Improvement Act of 1984 provided locally-developed career ladder programs for teachers to meet state guidelines; a $20.3 million appropriation to raise teachers' salaries statewide in the first of a two-year proposal; annual evaluation of teachers; locally-developed discipline codes; and income tax credits for charitable contributions to schools and libraries.

ILLINOIS

Chief state school officer—Donald G. Gill, Superintendent of Education, State Board of Education, 100 N. First St., Springfield 62777. (217) 782-2221.

Education history—As part of the Northwest Territory, Illinois benefited from the federal land set aside for educational purposes by the Ordinances of 1785 and 1787. Free schools supported by sale of these lands and by local taxation were established as early as 1834. An 1855 law providing for a state school tax was the foundation for the present public education system. The state elected its first chief state school officer in 1856. The constitution of 1870 required the legislature to provide a thorough and efficient system of public schools. Consolidation efforts begun early in this century reduced the number of school districts from 12,000 in 1945 to 1,300 in the late 1960s and even fewer today.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—1,010 school districts with 3,319 elementary schools, 725 secondary, and 213 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (1983-84).

Student enrollment—1,853,316 elementary and secondary; 1,271,525 prekindergarten-grade 8; 581,791 grades 9-12 (1983-84).


Staff—112,622 total instructional; 66,374 elementary teachers, 34,682 secondary teachers, 5,335 other nonsupervisory instructional, 6,231 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $24,236; elementary teachers, $22,324; secondary teachers, $25,297; elementary principals, $35,595, junior high/middle school principals, $37,329; senior high
principals, $40,739 (1983-84).

Nickname: “The Prairie State”

Excellence activities: Stricter high school graduation requirements have been implemented; a variety of other proposed reform initiatives are yet to be considered. The State Board of Education has approved a comprehensive set of recommendations calling for major changes in the areas of student learning, school finance, and the quality of educational personnel. The legislature created the Commission for the Improvement of Elementary and Secondary Education to study the issues and make recommendations.

INDIANA


Education history—In 1816, Indiana became the first state to provide in its constitution for a statewide system of free public schools, but the legislature did not authorize taxes to support the schools until 1849. Meanwhile, nearly every township had established log schoolhouses built by parents who paid the salary and 

for teachers. In 1825, an experiment in community living began in New Harmony; educational concepts generated by this colony are still in use today. Chief among them was the novel idea of educating boys and girls together. The first nursery schools also grew out of these experiments. In 1900, educator William Wirt started a school system in Bluffton that combined study, play, and work. Gary adopted the approach in 1906. Many U.S. cities adapted ideas from the system, which came to be known as the “platoon school” or Gary School Plan.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16 years; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—305 school districts with 1,140 elementary schools, 475 secondary, and 343 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment—984,090 elementary and secondary; 515,914 kindergarten-grade 6; 468,176 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$2,730 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—55,961 total instructional; 24,813 elementary teachers, 24,643 secondary teachers, 2,978 other nonsupervisory instructional, 3,527 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $22,459; elementary teachers,
STATE PROFILES

$21,147; secondary teachers, $22,031; elementary principals, $32,048; junior high/middle school principals, $34,953; senior high principals, $38,714 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: Indiana has tightened graduation requirements, including one more year in mathematics, science, and English, required schools to offer computer literacy; increased instructional time in the schools by disallowing non-instructional activities to count toward the minimum instructional school day; established on a statewide basis Project PRIME TIME, which reduces the student/teacher ratio to 18 to 1 in kindergarten through third grade; initiated a statewide student competency testing and remediation program for three grade levels, beginning with third grade students in the spring of 1985; initiated a teacher testing program for new and out-of-state teachers using the National Teacher Examinations; increased funding for gifted and talented, summer school, and adult education programs.

IOWA

Chief state school officer—Robert D. Benton, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Public Instruction, Grimes State Office Bldg., Des Moines 50319. (515) 281-5294.

Education history—The state’s first school opened in 1830 in a log cabin built by Dr. Isaac Galland, a physician who compensated the teacher by allowing him to read his medical books. The territorial legislature created free public (primary) schools in 1839; free public high schools followed in 1911. Iowa built one of the first public schools for the physically handicapped—Davis W. Smouse Opportunity School—in Des Moines in 1931.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—438 school districts with 1,007 elementary schools, 223 junior high, 471 senior high, and 38 special education and alternative schools (1983-84).

Student enrollment—494,966 elementary and secondary; 262,581 kindergarten-grade 6; 232,385 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$2,821 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—30,686 total instructional; 14,264 elementary teachers, 16,422 secondary teachers, 1,669 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,250 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $20,841; elementary teachers, $19,366, secondary teachers, $20,808; elementary principals,
$33,716, junior high/middle school principals, $36,848; senior high principals, $38,104 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: A legislative task force recommended that the State Board of Education adopt new standards by mid-1987 and assume control over any school district that fails to meet them. The standards include full-time contracts for educators, annual training for school board members, a career ladder for teachers, private sector partnerships and more community and parent involvement. A “think-tank” should be formed to help education by conducting research, and curriculum committees should develop model curricula for all grades, the task force said.

KANSAS


Education history—The first schools were established by missionaries in the 1830s for Indian children. In 1855, the first territorial legislature provided for free public schools for white Iren. The office of state superintendent of common schools was created in 1858. The next year free education in public schools was extended to all children, including Indians. In the early 1960s the state adopted a plan to reduce the number of school districts to make better use of facilities and funds. It also launched high school job training programs to prepare students for employment in the state’s major industries.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-15; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—305 school districts with 1,053 elementary schools, 433 secondary, and 12 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment—405,222 elementary and secondary; 217,272 kindergarten-grade 6; 187,950 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$3,190 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—29,437 total instructional; 14,342 elementary teachers, 11,613 secondary teachers, 1,856 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,626 principals and supervisors (1983-84). Average salary of instructional staff, $20,607; elementary teachers, $19,507; secondary teachers, $19,690; elementary principals, $29,953; senior high principals, $33,605; senior high principals, $36,819 (1983-84).
STATE PROFILES


Excellence activities: Teacher candidates must complete a pre-professional basic skills examination. As of July 1985 certified personnel must participate in inservice activities to have their licenses renewed. Starting in 1987, beginning teachers will take part in an internship program. High-achieving students will be offered a chance to participate in the Kansas Honors Academy, a four-week summer residential program in mathematics, science, the humanities, and the arts. Graduation requirements will be increased from 17 to 20 units for the class of 1988, including four units of English, three of social studies, and two each of mathematics and science.

KENTUCKY

Chief state school officer—Alice McDonald, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Education, Capitol Plaza Tower, Frankfort 40601. (502) 564-4770.

Education history—The first school in the Kentucky region was started in 1775 by a pioneer school teacher named Mrs. William Coomes at Harrodsburg, the first permanent settlement. Others followed at McAffe’s Station (1777), Boonesborough (1779), and Lexington (1783). The statewide public school system was established by the legislature in 1883. The legislature of 1908 became known as the “education legislature” because of the many school laws it passed. Among other things, state aid to education was increased and a law providing for teacher training was passed. In 1934, the school system was reorganized by the legislature to improve academic quality and make better use of funds.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; kindergarten.

Number of schools—180 school districts with 1,053 elementary schools, 310 secondary, and 18 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment—547,414 elementary and secondary; 346,599 kindergarten-grade 6; 300,815 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—36,150 total instructional; 20,778 elementary teachers, 11,222 secondary teachers, 2,030 other nonsupervisory instructional, 2,120 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $20,690; elementary teachers, $19,340; secondary teachers, $20,680; elementary principals, $32,329; junior high/middle school principals, $35,596; senior high
principals, $38,099 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: In October 1983, the State Board of Education adopted minimum basic skills for Kentucky schools as a condition of state accreditation. Graduation requirements were increased to 20 units for freshmen entering high school in the fall of 1983, including four years of English, three of mathematics, and two of social studies. A Governor’s Scholars Program enriches instruction in science and technology. Teachers must pass a competency test and serve a one-year internship to be certified. Beginning in 1985, kindergarten is required.

LOUISIANA

Chief state school officer—Thomas Clausen, Superintendent of Education, State Department of Education, P.O. Box 44064, Baton Rouge 70804. (504) 342-3602.

Education history—Louisiana’s first schools were established under French rule in the early 1700s. Ursuline nuns started a school for girls that still exists. The first public school opened in 1772 after the territory’s transfer to Spanish rule, but the rich sent their children to private schools. Progress in public education was substantial after the newly adopted constitution created the office of state superintendent of education in 1845. Alexander Dimitry, first superintendent, created a statewide system of public schools and became known as the father of Louisiana’s elementary education. The state provided financial support for schools in 1898. Catholic schools in New Orleans desegregated in 1962, but public schools resisted desegregation pressures. In 1963-67, all public school systems came under federal court orders to segregate. By 1968, all had substantially complied.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-15; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—66 school districts with 1,036 elementary schools, 241 secondary, and 245 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1980).

Student enrollment—768,450 elementary and secondary; 555,390 kindergarten-grade 6; 213,060 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$2,821 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—42,420 total instructional; 26,510 elementary teachers, 15,110 secondary teachers, 1,890 other nonsupervisory instructional, 2,910 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $20,700; elementary teachers, $18,700; secondary teachers,
$19,615; elementary principals, $29,235; junior high/middle school principals, $31,143; senior high principals, $33,804 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: High school graduates are required to have four units of English, three of mathematics, and two of science and social studies, beginning with the class of 1988. Students in kindergarten-eighth grade began a 30-minute longer school day as of September 1984. The state opened a School for Mathematics, Science and the Arts for eleventh and twelfth graders in September 1983.

MAINE

Chief state school officer—Robert E. Boose, Commissioner, Department of Educational and Cultural Services, State House, Augusta 04333. (207) 289-2321.

Education history—The first school may have been founded by missionaries for Indian children as early as 1696. The first known school for white children was located in York in 1701. The first school building was erected in Berwick in 1719. School funds were provided by the legislature starting in 1828. A law providing for free high schools was enacted in 1873.

The trend away from one-room schools was rapid after 1940. In 1957, the Sinclair Act was passed by the legislature to encourage consolidation of schools operated by districts encompassing two or more towns.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-17; kindergarten; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—178 school districts with 610 elementary schools, 105 secondary, and 41 combined elementary-secondary (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment—209,753 elementary and secondary; 109,752 kindergarten-grade 6; 101,001 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$2,829 elementary, $1,955 secondary (1983-84).

Staff—12,467 total instructional; 7,128 elementary teachers, 5,339 secondary teachers, 133 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,268 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $17,328; elementary teachers, $16,839; secondary teachers, $18,171; elementary principals, $26,601; secondary principals, $28,862; senior high principals, $31,648 (1983-84).

Excellence activities: Improvement of public education in Maine since 1983 includes passage of two pieces of education legislation: A new certification law embracing the master teacher concept, and an education reform act that includes annual $2,000 stipends for teachers who have taught full-time for at least three years and a special commission to study and recommend permanent enhancement of teacher compensation.

MARYLAND


Education history—The colony first provided public education funds in 1694. King William’s School (now St. John’s College in Annapolis) was the first free school, founded as an academy in 1696. In 1826, Maryland established public schools throughout the state. In 1864, the constitution provided for a uniform public school system. The state board of education and office of state superintendent of public instruction were created in 1865. A compulsory school attendance law was passed in 1911.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 6-15; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—24 school districts with 748 elementary schools, 294 secondary, and 189 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment—683,491 elementary and secondary; 335,652 kindergarten-grade 6; 347,839 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—48,591 total instructional; 17,453 elementary teachers, 20,436 secondary teachers, 8,473 other nonsupervisory instructional, 2,229 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $25,091; elementary teachers, $23,052; secondary teachers, $24,471; elementary principals, $34,371; junior high/middle school principals, $33,670; senior high principals, $38,640 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: Scholarships proposed for students who agree to teach in areas of critical shortages. High school graduation requirements have been revised, adding one each of mathematics and fine arts credits. A certificate of
merit is given to students who earn a 2.6 grade point average and take advanced courses. New teachers must pass a test to teach; teachers are considered for tenure after two years and after passing a test.

MASSACHUSETTS

Chief state school officer—John H. Lawson, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, Quincy Center Plaza, 1385 Hancock St., Quincy 02169. (617) 770-7700.

Education history—Boston Latin (1635) was the first public school in the American colonies, established to prepare boys for college. The Massachusetts Act of 1642 required compulsory education of children by parents and masters of young apprentices, though schools were not established. In “Ye Old Deluder Satan” Act of 1647, the colony required towns of 50 or more households to establish schools; towns of 100 or more households were to create Latin grammar schools to prepare boys for university. Education stressed religious training to save young souls. Vocational high schools were founded in 1821. The state board of education was created in 1837 through the persistence of Horace Mann, who became its first secretary. His campaign for school reform and teacher training made him the “Father of the Common School.” The state passed the nation’s first compulsory school attendance law in 1852. A free textbook statute was enacted in 1884.

Excellence activities: The Massachusetts legislature is considering a reform package that
will raise graduation requirements, require two years of mandatory kindergarten and move teachers' salaries to $18,000 a year to start. Teacher competency tests would be instituted, and districts would be required to develop comprehensive curriculum and school plans. The higher education board approved new standards for admission to the state's colleges and universities, including an "eligibility" index based on SAT scores and class rank. A center for teaching and learning and a mathematics/science/technology project will stress teacher training and new technologies.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 6-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Michigan

Chief state school officer—Phillip E. Runkel, Superintendent of Public Education, State Department of Education, P.O. Box 30008, 115 W. Allegan St., Lansing 48909. (517) 373-3354.

Education history—Catholic missionaries as early as the 1600s provided regular schooling and vocational training for Indian and white children. In 1809, the territorial government levied a tax for support of schools, but no attempt was made to enforce the law. In 1827, the Territorial Council passed a statute requiring every township with 50 inhabitants to employ a schoolmaster of "good morals" to teach children to read and write in English and French and learn mathematics, spelling and "decent" behavior. Schools were in session six months a year. When towns reached 200 inhabitants they were to establish higher schools g Latin. When schools were organized in various towns, they were not tax-supported; parents paid for their children's education. Detroit began free schooling in 1842. The statewide system of free public education was initiated in the 1870s. School district consolidations in the 1950s reduced the number of districts from 4,800 to 2,100, a trend that has continued in recent years.

Number of schools—527 school districts with 2,068 elementary schools, 1,174 secondary, and 25 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education and alternative schools.

Student enrollment—1,573,389 elementary and secondary; 802,405 kindergarten-grade 6; 770,984 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—85,369 total instructional; 37,766 elementary teachers, 35,189 secondary teachers, 7,088 other nonsupervisory instructional, 5,326 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $30,374; elementary teachers, $28,650; secondary teachers, $29,140; elementary school principals, $34,288; junior high/middle school principals, $36,850; senior high principals, $39,450 (1983-84).
STATE PROFILES


Excellence activities: In January 1984 the State Board of Education adopted a report, Better Education for Michigan Citizens: A Blueprint for Action. The report contained 15 major recommendations and more than 60 initiatives that the board plans to take during the next five years to improve learning. Among the suggestions for local districts, the governor and legislature were establishing high school graduation requirements, lengthening the school day and year, developing a plan of accreditation of schools, establishing homework and discipline policies and creating certification classification for school administrators. A state-appointed high school commission recommended similar improvements previously. An educational Summit Task Force held regional meetings in fall 1984 to discuss 16 proposals aimed at improving education in 1985.

Education history — The first teachers in Minnesota were missionaries who worked among the Indians. About 1820, the first school for white children was opened at Fort St. Anthony (later Fort Snelling). During the 1830s, the missionaries started many Indian schools. Regular grade schools were established by an act of the territorial legislature in 1849. Where the one-room schoolhouse once prevailed in rural areas, it has disappeared as consolidation efforts have occurred. State support for education always has been generous, and Minnesota has been known to provide up to 60 percent of the annual cost of operating elementary and secondary schools.

State mandates — Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; kindergarten.

Number of schools — 434 school districts with 889 elementary schools, 662 secondary, and 144 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (1983-84).

Student enrollment — 701,180 elementary and secondary, 344,952 kindergarten-grade 6; 356,228 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff — 42,966 total instructional; 18,454 elementary teachers, 20,090 secondary teachers, 2,483 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,939 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff,
$25,400; elementary teachers, $23,660; secondary teachers, $25,150; elementary principals, $38,056; junior high/middle school principals, $41,862; senior high principals, $42,065 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: Outcome-based education is a new project designed to measure what students learn based on their accomplishments rather than on course requirements, time spent in class, and results of tests. This involves school performance and accountability and requires schools to individualize measurement. The state also is implementing a statewide program on integrating technology into the classroom and a school effectiveness project with 26 pilot schools. The latter seeks to identify educational processes that make education successful and to help schools use those processes in the classroom. The State Board of Education also has increased to 31 the number of courses that each high school must offer students; and schools must make available instruction in career education and technology.

MISSISSIPPI

Chief state school officer—Richard A. Boyd, Superintendent of Education, State Department of Education, P.O. Box 771, High St., Jackson 39205. (601) 359-3513.

Education history—The state’s public school system was established by the Mississippi constitution in 1866. A board of education was created and free schooling was initially provided for every child for four months a year. Public schools did not enjoy instant popularity. The Civil War had caused hard times, and people had little money for school taxes. As conditions improved, however, opposition decreased and by the 1890s the system had gained general approval. A textbook commission, later to become the textbook purchasing board, was started in 1904. Agricultural high schools were founded in 1908. School reorganization efforts in the 1960s were geared to academic improvement. Vocational-technical training centers were started at high schools and junior colleges during the same period. Mississippi, which had operated separate schools for blacks and whites, began integration efforts in 1964.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 6-13; kindergarten in 1986; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—154 school districts with 615 elementary schools and 369 secondary (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment—467,744 elementary and secondary; 243,001 kindergarten-grade 6; 224,743
**STATE PROFILES**

**MISSOURI**

*Chief State School Officer*—Arthur L. Mallory, Commissioner of Education, Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, P.O. Box 480, Jefferson State Office Bldg., Jefferson City 65102. (314) 751-4446.

*Education history*—Missouri's first school was a private elementary school established in St. Louis in 1774. In 1821, the state's first constitution provided for establishment of a public education system, but the system was not founded until 1836. In 1873, St. Louis became the first city to make kindergarten a part of the public school system.

*State mandates*—Compulsory school attendance for children aged 7-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

*Number of schools*—546 school districts with 1,391 elementary schools, 704 secondary; 53 state schools for severely handicapped, 58 area vocational-technical schools (1983-84).

*Student enrollment*—795,453 elementary and secondary; 546,155 kindergarten-grade 8; 249,298 grades 9-12 (1983-84).

*Per pupil expenditures*—$2,714 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

*Staff*—54,653 total instructional; 23,368 elementary teachers, 23,390 secondary teachers, 4,401 other nonsupervisory instructional, 3,491 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $16,154; elementary teachers, $15,554; secondary teachers, $16,118; elementary principals, $25,240; junior high/middle school principals, $26,506; senior high principals, $29,311 (1983-84).

Excellence activities: The state has been implementing reforms passed in the Educational Reform Act of 1982. Beginning in 1984-85, a testing program for grades 4, 6, 8 and 11 went into effect, along with a requirement that graduating seniors meet the eleventh-grade level on the test. The legislature approved mandatory kindergarten in 1986, beginning with a pilot program in 1985. Loan programs help teachers retrain in mathematics and science. A governor's task force will recommend curricula for school district adoption by July 1986. Another commission is setting standards and criteria for teacher education programs.

**Grades 7-12 (1983-84).**

*Per pupil expenditures*—$1,962 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

*Staff*—27,960 total instructional; 13,541 elementary teachers, 11,430 secondary teachers, 1,433 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,557 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $16,355; elementary teachers, $15,554; secondary teachers, $16,118; elementary principals, $25,240; junior high/middle school principals, $26,506; senior high principals, $29,311 (1983-84).

principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $18,748; elementary teachers, $19,756; secondary teachers, $29,193; elementary principals, $31,677; junior high/middle school principals, $35,568; senior high principals, $38,188 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: In 1982, voters approved by referendum a one-cent sales tax increase earmarked for education and teachers’ salaries; half the proceeds are used to replace local district property tax revenue. During 1983-84, the State Board of Education increased minimum high school graduation standards and approved a policy requiring students to pass a state-mandated eighth grade competency test to qualify for ninth grade academic credit. New state laws require school districts to develop performance-based teacher evaluation programs and eliminate lifetime certificates for teachers, effective in 1988.

MONTANA

Chief state school officer—Ed Argenbright, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Office of Public Instruction, State Capitol, 59620. (406) 444-3654.

Education history—Montana’s first formal schools were created in the early 1860s by Catholic missionaries or privately subscribed in mining towns like Bannack and Virginia City. In 1865, the first territorial legislature established a public school system. School attendance for children aged 7-16 was required as early as 1893, at which time a state board of education was created. Free high schools were established about 1897. Indians are the state’s largest minority; in 1972, the constitution gave specific recognition to their unique cultural heritage.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16.

Number of schools—551 school districts with 592 elementary schools and 187 secondary (1983-84).


Per pupil expenditures—$2,726 elementary and secondary including special education (1983-84).

Staff—11,204 total instructional; 6,420 elementary teachers, 3,060 secondary teachers, 863 other nonsupervisory instructional, 861 principals and superintendents. Average salary of instructional staff, $21,387; elementary teachers, $20,126; secondary teachers, $21,764; elementary principals, $32,020; junior high/middle school principals, $37,759; senior high principals, $41,117 (1983-84).
STATE PROFILES


Excellence activities: Ideas for improvement were discussed at a series of statewide forums on school reform. High school graduation requirements have been increased to 18 units effective in 1985 and 20 units effective 1986. Teacher testing also is being considered.

NEBRASKA

Chief state school officer—Joseph E. Lutjeharms, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, P.O. Box 94987, 301 Centennial Mall S., Lincoln 68509. (402) 471-2465.

Education history—The Army established the first school in what is today Nebraska during the 1820s near what was to become Fort Calhoun. During the 1830s and 1840s, missionaries of various faiths founded schools across the Nebraska region to teach the Indians. The first Nebraska Territory legislature adopted a free school law in 1855, a year after the territory opened for settlement. The state constitution, adopted in 1875, provides for the present system of public education. In 1891, a compulsory school attendance law was enacted. Support for education in the state is reflected in statistics cating that in 1900 per pupil expenditures were $15.25; by 1978-79 they approached $2,000.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—1,035 school districts with 1,244 elementary schools and 404 secondary (1983-84).

Student enrollment—267,594 elementary and secondary; 141,860 kindergarten-grade 6; 106,036 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$2,927 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—19,302 total instructional; 8,270 elementary teachers, 8,581 secondary teachers, 811 other nonsupervisory instructional, 868 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $20,013; elementary teachers, $17,976; secondary teachers, $19,598; elementary principals, $30,048; junior high/middle school principals, $33,955; senior high principals, $35,312 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: The legislature approved a bill raising
standards for students and teachers and promoting innovation in the classroom. The State Board of Education was given more authority for curriculum standards, and the school year was extended from 175 to 180 days. Two levels of competency tests, before entering teacher-training programs and before certification, are mandated for teachers. A governor's task force recommended doubling state aid, making all districts kindergarten-grade 12 and expanding foreign language instruction. Students wishing to major in mathematics and science teaching can get low-interest college loans.

NEVADA

Chief state school officer—Ted Sanders, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Education, 400 W. King St., Capitol Complex, Carson City 89710. (702) 885-3100.

Education history—Plans for a tax-supported school system were formulated in 1861 when Nevada became a territory. The legislature established the first school districts in 1865, a year after statehood. In thinly populated rural areas where taxpayers had to support schools for a handful of children, the school year lasted only six months. In 1907, Nevada appointed its first state school superintendent. Deputies were placed in charge of five large supervision districts created at the same time. Population growth in the 1940s and financial problems in the 1950s prompted school consolidation measures. In recognition of wide variations in wealth and per pupil costs, the state devised an equalization formula for financial assistance to schools.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-17; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—17 school districts with 195 elementary schools, 74 secondary, and 7 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1980).

Student enrollment—151,200 elementary and secondary; 81,730 kindergarten-grade 6, 69,470 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$2,870 elementary and secondary (1985-84).

Staff—8,289 total instructional; 3,876 elementary teachers, 3,417 secondary teachers, 587 other nonsupervisory instructional, 409 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $24,000; elementary teachers, $22,000; secondary teachers, $23,000; elementary principals, $35,989; junior high/middle school principals, $38,748; senior high principals, $42,828 (1983-84).

Excellence activities: The 1983 legislature appointed a special committee to study education and directed state universities and public high schools to improve instruction in mathematics and other subject areas. The State Board of Education and universities are working on a joint effort on college preparation. Starting with the class of 1986, high school students must have 20 units to graduate, including two in mathematics and an extra unit of English for students who fail proficiency tests.

NEW HAMPSHIRE


Education history—In colonial days, children of settlers attended one-room schoolhouses, some of which still stand. Operations of today's schools are based on laws passed in 1789 and broadly revised in 1919—the year a state board of education was established and given authority to certify teachers, enforce attendance laws, and prescribe school standards. The first public school was founded in 1830. By then a number of private academies, including Philips Exeter (1781), the oldest and best known, had been founded. With the spread of public high schools, some of these private academies went out of existence and others lost their private character by accepting tax support. In many communities, public high schools and elementary schools are operated by regional school districts as efficiency measures.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 6-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—169 school districts with 332 elementary schools and 124 secondary (1983-84).

Student enrollment—156,750 elementary and secondary; 75,120 kindergarten-grade 6; 78,626 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$2,796 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—11,318 total instructional; 5,101 elementary teachers, 4,617 secondary teachers, 900 other nonsupervisory instructional, 700 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $18,030; elementary teachers, $17,357; secondary teachers, $17,394, elementary principals, $29,051; junior high/middle school principals, $31,069; senior high principals, $33,873 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: Beginning with the class of 1988, high school
students will have to complete more courses to graduate—four years of English, two each of mathematics and science, 2.5 of social studies, one year of physical education and other requirements. The State Board of Education is considering teacher competency testing before certification, and curriculum groups are drawing up teaching guidelines in mathematics and science.

NEW JERSEY

**Chief state school officer** — Saul Cooperman, Commissioner of Education, State Department of Education, 225 W. State St., Trenton 08625. (609) 292-4450.

**Education history** — Colonial New Jersey relied on parochial and other private schools. The public school system dates from 1817, when the legislature established a permanent school fund. In 1824, the state began to add part of its tax income to the fund. In 1867, a state board of education was created. That year the state constitution was amended to require the legislature to maintain free public schools for all youth aged 5-18. Industrial and vocational schools were founded in subsequent years, as were special facilities for physically impaired, blind, deaf, and other handicapped youngsters.

**State mandates** — Compulsory school attendance for students aged 6-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

**Number of schools** — 616 schools, 606 secondary, and 15 other.

**Student enrollment** — 1,147,841 elementary and secondary; 725,703 kindergarten-grade 6; 422,138 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

**Per pupil expenditures** — $4,943 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

**Staff** — 88,028 total instructional, 41,884 elementary teachers, 31,378 secondary teachers, 8,823 other nonsupervisory instructional, 5,943 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $24,151; elementary teachers, $22,622; secondary teachers, $23,605; elementary principals, $39,712; junior high/middle school principals, $42,100; senior high principals, $45,224 (1983-84).


**Excellence activities**: The Education Department raised the standards of college teacher preparation courses and as of September 1985 requires that all new teachers hold a bachelor’s degree and take a subject-matter competency examination. Emergency certification has been eliminated as of September 1985; districts may hire people meeting certain qualifications on a provisional basis by offering them one-year, state-approved training programs. A new Academy for the
Advancement of Teaching and Management will train teams of teachers and principals. Starting July 1985, five districts are taking part in a Pilot Master Teaching Program. The Education Department also is implementing a more rigorous ninth grade graduation test, and has introduced graduation standards for students of limited English proficiency. A new statewide program will address the problems of urban schools.

NEW MEXICO


Education history—Spanish priests brought education to New Mexico in the 1600s when they began to teach the Indians. The first formal school was initiated by the Catholic Church at Santa Fe in 1853. The present system of free public education commenced in 1891. In 1973, the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights recommended that the state system address the wishes of Indian parents in providing education for their children. In also responding to the needs of Hispanic youth, the state constitution provides that all pupils be given access to bilingual education. To provide qualified teachers to fulfill this directive, the state education department has established bilingual teacher-training centers.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 6-18; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—88 school districts with 500 elementary schools, 107 secondary, and 12 others—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1980).

Student enrollment—269,949 elementary and secondary; 151,332 kindergarten-grade 6; 116,617 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$2,921 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—17,650 total instructional; 8,120 elementary teachers, 7,410 secondary teachers, 1,220 other nonsupervisory instructional, 900 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $21,700; elementary teachers, $20,360; secondary teachers, $21,810; elementary principals, $30,902; junior high/middle school principals, $32,995; senior high principals, $36,022 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: High school graduation requirements in mathematics and science have increased from one to two units each, effective 1983-84. The state has concluded a study on
performance-based pay, and a staff accountability plan for teachers and administrators now includes competencies for evaluation of both. A computer education guide was released in December 1983.

**NEW YORK**


**Education history**—The first school was founded at New Amsterdam (now New York City) in 1633. The British Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts established early schools for Indian and poor children, while families that could afford to do so hired tutors or sent their children to private schools. In 1784, the legislature created a Board of Regents authorized to establish secondary schools and colleges. The regents proposed a public school system in 1787, but no action was taken until 1795, when the legislature authorized a permanent school system with school districts in each township. By 1828, there were schools in 8,000 districts. During the 1850s a few cities began to set up free public high schools. In 1904, the legislature reorganized the education system and a commissioner of education was made responsible for elementary and secondary education. Since then, the statewide system has been marked by expanding enrollments, broader curriculums, consolidation efforts, and an increase in state aid.

**State mandates**—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 6-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

**Number of schools**—728 school districts with 2,398 elementary schools, 1,379 secondary, and 187 other combined elementary-secondary and special education (Fall 1983).

**Student enrollment**—2,661,041 elementary and secondary; 1,301,097 kindergarten-grade 6; 1,359,944 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

**Per pupil expenditures**—$4,845 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

**Staff**—196,637 total instructional; 72,685 elementary teachers, 87,105 secondary teachers, 9,154 elementary-secondary teachers, 11,797 other nonsupervisory instructional, 15,896 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $27,400; elementary teachers, $25,850; secondary teachers, $27,500; elementary principals, $41,462; junior high school principals, 44,767; senior high school principals, $45,734 (1983-84).


**Excellence activities**: The State Board of Regents has approved a comprehensive plan for education.
reform that includes the following: more rigorous academic requirements for all high school and junior high school students; all public school students starting with the graduating class of 1992 will be required to take at least one year of foreign language instruction between kindergarten and grade 9, and two years will be required beginning with the class of 1994, mastery of computer skills will be emphasized in all grades and subjects; all new teachers will be required to pass a certification examination and complete a one-year internship; and school districts will have a greater responsibility for accounting to the public through annual school assessments presented at public meetings.

NORTH CAROLINA

Chief state school officer — A. Craig Phillips, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Public Instruction, Education Building, Room 318, Edenton and Salisbury Sts., Raleigh 27611. (919) 733-3813.

Education history — The earliest schools were primarily private academies. By 1800 there were 40 such schools, by 1860 more than 400. In 1825, a fund was created to stimulate public education. The first public schools opened in 1840. By 1846, every county had at least one public school and the state education fund exceeded $12 million. In 1853, Calvin H. Wiley became the first state superintendent of schools. Under his direction a unified school system was started, but the Civil War led to the system’s collapse. Schools reopened after the war, but as late as 1900, public schools were open only 70 days a year, there was no compulsory attendance law, and only 74 percent of school-age youngsters attended. In 1901, Governor Charles B. Aycock and other leaders launched a campaign that stimulated dramatic changes. By 1907, an improved system was in place, and a compulsory attendance law had been passed. In 1933, the state took over the cost of operating the system on a minimum eight-month term. In 1943, the school term was increased to nine months. The twelfth grade was added in 1943. In 1973, the General Assembly allocated funds for a kindergarten pilot program. Kindergarten programs were phased into the public schools during the next four years. In 1973, principals were employed for 12 months. While the school term for children remains at 180 days, the employment for teachers was raised to ten months in 1973.

State mandates — Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; kindergarten.

Number of schools — 142 school districts with 1,454 elementary schools, 300 secondary, and 242 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (1984).

Student enrollment — 1,089,606 elementary and secondary; 75,630 kindergarten; 685,423 grades 1-8; 328,553 grades 9-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures — $2,460 elementary and secondary (1983-84).
Staff—60,000 total instructional; 27,790 elementary teachers, 19,352 secondary teachers, 7,984 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,986 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $18,922; elementary teachers, $18,299; secondary teachers, $18,530; elementary principals, $28,424; junior high/middle school principals, $30,682; senior high principals, $32,525 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: A state task force recommended to the legislature that the base salary of certified personnel be increased 14.8 percent. It also directed the State Board of Education to come up with a career-ladder plan for teachers, to establish a basic education program with cost figures to reduce class size in grades 4-6, to provide a computer literacy program, establish a system to assure improving the quality of all teachers and statewide standards and procedures of evaluation, and to encourage entrance into education by the top students. The loan-scholarship program was doubled and a recruiting program started.

NORTH DAKOTA

Chief state school officer — Wayne Sansted, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Public Instruction, State Capitol Bldg., 600 Blvd. Ave. E., Bismark 58505. (701) 224-2261.

Education history—The first school was established by Roman Catholic missionaries in 1818, and early schools basically served the children of Scottish and Irish settlers from Canada. Where there were no schools, teachers traveled from village to village teaching groups of youngsters in private homes. As settlements grew, so did the need for schools and teachers. Railroad companies, anxious to attract settlers, supported school construction by providing building materials. In 1862, the first legislature of the Dakota Territory passed “An Act for the Regulation and Support of Common Schools.” When the state was admitted into the Union in 1889, over 3 million acres of federal land were set aside for the support of common schools and other land-grant institutions. Income from these lands was eventually augmented by state revenues from oil, discovered in 1951. General sales taxes provide additional funds for the support of education in the state.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—296 school districts with 420 elementary schools, 135 secondary, and 164 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1980).
STATE PROFILES

Student enrollment—114,765 elementary and secondary; 80,903 kindergarten-grade 6; 33,862 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—8,311 total instructional; 4,708 elementary teachers, 2,677 secondary teachers, 493 other nonsupervisory instructional, 433 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $20,740; elementary teachers, $19,503; secondary teachers, $21,231; elementary principals, $35,064; junior high/middle school principals, $33,432; senior high principals, $41,669 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: North Dakota has increased its high school graduation requirements in English and mathematics and added one year of U.S. history and one year of world history. The physical education requirement has been reduced and driver's education is no longer required. The state is considering increasing the academic year by five days and establishing merit pay for standing teachers.

Ohio

Chief state school officer—Franklin B. Walter, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Education, 65 S. Front St., Room 808, Columbus 43215. (615) 466-3304.

Education history—Education was private and local until 1825 when a statewide school tax was levied and township officials were required to set aside school districts on penalty of losing tax money. Under the Akron Law of 1847, cities were authorized to set up their own systems of graded schools. In 1853, state law placed public schools on solid foundations with adequate revenues, township units of organization, school libraries, and a state commissioner of common schools. During the 1850s, high schools developed rapidly and largely displaced private academies. In 1894, consolidation of township schools was begun, but there were still 10,000 one-room schools by 1914. The passage of Rural School Codes in that year aided the acceleration of consolidation. In 1935, a School Foundation Law caused drastic change in the school system as more state control accompanied greater state aid. Smaller schools were closed as economy measures. In 1952, there were only 200 one-room schools left; by 1955 these had decreased to 76. In 1953, the constitution established a state board of education with the power to appoint a superintendent of public instruction, an officer previously appointed by the governor.

State mandates—Compulsory
School attendance for students aged 6-18; kindergarten; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—616 school districts with 2,483 elementary schools, 503 middle or junior high, 720 senior high, and 25 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (1983-84).

Student enrollment—1,827,484 elementary and secondary; 1,240,214 kindergarten-grade 8; 587,270 grades 9-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures — $2,816 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff—114,868 total certificated; 51,517 elementary teachers, 45,414 secondary teachers, 2,387 elementary principals, 979 secondary principals. Average salary of elementary teachers, $21,381; secondary teachers, $22,446; elementary principals, $33,744; junior high principals, $36,317; senior high principals, $39,441; superintendents, $42,075 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: As of September 1983, minimum standards for elementary and secondary education mandate competency testing. New standards for administrator certification became effective in 1984. Teacher certification standards are undergoing revision. A 1983 report by Ohio's Commission on Educational Excellence included 49 recommendations to the State Board of Education. The 1983-84 school year was celebrated as the "Year of Educational Excellence for All," culminating in a major conference in May 1984.

OKLAHOMA

Chief state school officer—John M. Folks, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Education, Oliver Hodge Memorial Education Bldg., 2500 N. Lincoln Blvd., Oklahoma City 73105. (405) 521-3301.

Education history—The first schools in the state were established for the Indians in the 1820s by missionaries. The Cherokee had the most advanced educational systems, primarily because one of their leaders, Sequoya, invented a method of writing so simple that many Cherokee could learn to read and write within a few weeks. The territorial legislature provided schools for white children in 1890. Provisions of a 1906 Enabling Act set aside sections of each township in the territory for the benefit of common schools and appropriated $5 million for those in the Indian Territory. A law providing free textbooks was passed in 1923, and state aid for weak schools was approved in 1924. Annual state support of public schools was set at $42 per capita in 1946, and a comprehensive school code was
State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; compulsory kindergarten beginning with the 1984-85 school year; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—617 school districts with 1,106 elementary schools, 269 junior high, 491 secondary, 35 vocational-technical, and 6 special schools (Fall 1982).

Student enrollment—588,038 elementary and secondary, 344,611 kindergarten-grade 6; 243,427 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—39,725 total instructional; 18,682 elementary teachers, 17,011 secondary teachers, 1,861 other nonsupervisory instructional, 2,169 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $19,100; elementary teachers, $18,000; secondary teachers, $19,000, elementary principals, $30,605; junior high/middle school principals, $34,020; senior high principals, $37,406 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: Beginning in 1986-87, high school graduation requirements will be increased to 20 units, including four in English and two each in mathematics and science. State universities are upgrading entrance requirements, including requirements for teacher candidates. School administrators must take a year's leadership program, and teachers must take part in staff development programs offered by the state.

OREGON


Education history—Schools were established as early as 1834 by a Methodist minister named Jason Lee. After the Oregon Territory was organized, an act passed in 1848 providing that income from two sections of land in each township should be set aside for education purposes. The following year, 1849, the legislature passed a law providing for a free public school system. The first public school was opened in 1851.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; compulsory kindergarten beginning with the 1984-85 school year; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—309 school districts with 943 elementary schools, 346 secondary, 29 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative
schools (Fall 1983).

**Student enrollment** — 446,700 elementary and secondary; 275,330 kindergarten-grade 6; 171,370 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


**Staff** — 28,220 total instructional; 14,070 elementary teachers, 9,920 secondary teachers, 2,480 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,750 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $23,911; elementary teachers, $22,374; secondary teachers, $23,663; elementary principals, $34,080; junior high/middle school principals, $36,908; senior high principals, $38,550 (1983-84).


**Excellence activities**: The State Board of Education adopted an “Action Plan for Excellence” in June 1984. Components of the plan include: a comprehensive statewide curriculum, increased graduation requirements, a state honors diploma, a statewide eighth grade examination and expanded state testing at other grade levels, staff development, the use of technology in the schools. Plans are also under way to develop a more stable funding system for public schools.

**PENNSYLVANIA**

**Chief state school officer** — Margaret A. Smith, Acting Secretary of Education, State Department of Education, 333 Market St., 10th Floor, Harrisburg 17126. (717) 787-5820.

**Education history** — Early laws provided for the free schooling of children aged 5-12 when parents were unable to pay. These were viewed as pauper education acts, and parents were not eager to educate their children under such terms. The Free Public School Act of 1834 created local school districts, permitted the levy of taxes for the support of free elementary schools for all children, and provided state aid to districts accepting the act. The constitution in 1873 called for the education of all children above the age of six. It also created the position of state superintendent of public instruction. In 1895, a compulsory attendance law was passed (requiring only 16 weeks of annual schooling) for pupils aged 8-13. The age later was increased to 17 and attendance was required throughout the school year. In 1921, state appropriations were made contingent on the maintenance of certain minimum standards in regard to curriculum, teacher qualifications, and salaries. During the 1960s, consolidation efforts to create more effective administrative units reduced the number of school districts to 600, down from an earlier high of 2,000.
State mandates — Compulsory school attendance for students aged 8-17; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools — 501 school districts divided into 29 intermediate units, with 2,108 elementary schools, 901 secondary, and 478 other — combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (1983-84).

Student enrollment — 1,737,952 elementary and secondary; 846,145 kindergarten-grade 6, 891,807 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff — 119,358 total instructional, 40,812 elementary teachers, 44,373 secondary teachers, 27,761 other nonsupervisory instructional; 6,412 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $21,670; elementary teachers, $22,998; secondary teachers, $22,373; elementary principals, $34,035; junior high/middle school principals, $37,541; senior high principals, $38,648 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: New curriculum regulations have increased the number of credits required for high school graduation from 13 to 21 and tripled the requirements in mathematics and science, beginning with 1989 freshmen. Statewide competency testing for students in grades 3, 5, and 8 began in October 1984. New teacher certification regulations will require teaching graduates to pass tests in subject matter, general knowledge, basic skills, and professional knowledge in order to be certified. New teachers will be required to serve a one-year, supervised induction period, and new teachers and administrators will be required to take six continuing education credits every five years. A teacher intern program allows qualified persons who have bachelor degrees to become full-time teachers while earning the teaching credits necessary for permanent certification.

Rhode Island


Education history — While Rhode Island relied primarily on private education in the colonial period, a free school for poor children was founded in Newport in 1640. The state's first law establishing public schools was enacted in 1800, dropped in 1803, and passed again in 1828, when the legislature also set up the state's first permanent public school fund. Henry Barnard became the first state commissioner of education in 1845. During his tenure, the state became a national leader in educational reform, and
Mr. Barnard was summoned to Washington, D.C. to become the first U.S. Commissioner of Education. In 1882, the Rhode Island legislature enacted legislation requiring towns to establish free public schools, and compulsory school attendance was inaugurated the following year. The arrival of large numbers of Irish, French-Canadian, and other immigrants with Catholic backgrounds led to the establishment of a large parochial education system. Currently one in five students attends a Catholic school.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; kindergarten available; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—40 school districts with 223 elementary schools, 59 secondary, and 7 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1982).

Student enrollment—136,179 elementary and secondary, 68,642 kindergarten grade 6; 67,537 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—8,787 total instructional; 3,581 elementary teachers, 3,860 secondary teachers, 804 other nonsupervisory instructional, 542 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $25,593; secondary teachers, $23,555; elementary principals, $34,325; junior high/middle school principals, $35,998; senior high principals, $38,199 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: Improvements made in Rhode Island public schools since April 1983 include tightened teacher certification requirements; upgraded high school graduation requirements; requirement of a basic kindergarten-twelfth grade education program; governor’s technology initiative infusing $4 million for purchase of microcomputers; testing of all public school students in grades 4, 6, 8, and 10; option of a test for twelfth graders for award of a merit diploma.
1811, when the state legislature approved a plan for free schools statewide, the larger cities had already founded tax-supported schools. The 1868 constitution called for free schools for all students, but it was not until 1895 that tax funds were provided for a statewide public school system. Like other Southern states, South Carolina had separate schools for blacks and whites. Following the 1954 Supreme Court decision against segregated schools, the state began to dismantle the dual school system. By 1970, all public schools were integrated.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 5-16; a 5-year-old child will be exempt from the kindergarten requirement if a parent signs a written waiver, provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—92 regular school districts (plus one composed of schools within the state correctional institution), with 787 elementary schools, 204 secondary, and 73 other—special education and vocational education (1984).

Student enrollment—603,026 elementary and secondary; 318,571 kindergarten-grade 6; 284,455 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—36,830 total instructional staff; 20,370 elementary teachers, 11,680 secondary teachers, 2,720 nonsupervisory instructional, 2,060 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $17,232; elementary teachers, $16,715; secondary teachers, $18,062; elementary principals, $29,031; secondary principals (includes junior high schools), $31,014; senior high principals, $34,691 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: The Education Improvement Act, containing about 60 provisions, was passed by the General Assembly in June 1984. Funded by a one-cent increase in the state sales tax, the legislation addresses increased graduation requirements, compensatory/remedial instruction, a high school exit examination, upgraded teacher salaries, teacher and principal incentive pay programs, incentive grants for school improvement, and a school building aid program.

SOUTH DAKOTA


Education history—The public
school system dates back to 1856, when school districts were organized. Early financial support came from proceeds of public land sales. During the 1930s, state school funding came from income taxes. Since then the legislature has helped to fund schools through special appropriations. The primary financial burden, however, falls on taxpayers in the districts, who support the schools through personal and real property taxes. Until the latter part of the 1960s there were more than 1,000 rural schools. The legislature called for a reorganized school system based on districts offering 12 years of schooling, and scores of rural schools were closed as a result.

State mandates — Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools — 195 school districts with 493 elementary schools, 229 secondary, and 13 other — special education and alternative schools (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment — 122,656 elementary and secondary; 84,718 kindergarten-grade 8; 36,158 grades 9-12; 1,780 special and ungraded (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures — $2,386 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff — 8,881 total instructional; 5,334 elementary teachers, 2,655 secondary teachers, 434 other nonsupervisory instructional, 458 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $17,125; elementary teachers, $16,200; secondary teachers, $16,700; elementary principals, $27,576; junior high/middle school principals, $31,181; senior high principals, $33,343 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: High school graduation minimum requirements have been increased from 16 to 20 units, including four English, three social studies, two mathematics, and two laboratory science. All courses designed to meet graduation requirements must have a plan of study on file. All districts must offer at least two years of one foreign language and a program for the gifted. Statewide achievement testing mandated in grades 4, 8 and 11. Teacher preparation program standards are being upgraded, and certified staff must complete 15 hours of inservice training annually.

TENNESSEE


Education history — Prior to the Civil War free public schooling was offered only to poor children. Given
the resulting stigma, such schools were not well attended. The atmosphere began to change in 1838 when a common school fund based largely on land revenue was made a part of the capital of the state bank. This fund, later supplemented by state and local taxes, ultimately provided the basis for establishing, in 1873, a statewide system of essentially separate free public schools for whites and blacks. Later acts created a state board of education (1875), a secondary school system (1891), and a general education fund (1909). Progress in integrating the state's schools followed the 1954 Supreme Court decision barring segregated education. Most schools were integrated by the late 1960s.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-17; kindergarten.

Number of schools—143 school districts with 1,172 elementary schools, 388 secondary, and 131 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (1983).

Student enrollment—826,470 elementary and secondary, 450,331 kindergarten-grade 6, 376,139 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures—$2,173 elementary and secondary (1983-84 est.)

Staff—45,065 total instructional, 24,264 elementary teachers, 14,872 secondary teachers, 3,435 other nonsupervisory instructional, 2,494 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $18,230; elementary teachers, $17,850, secondary teachers, $17,990; elementary principals, $29,445; junior high/middle schools principals, $31,163; senior high principals, $34,054 (1983-84 est.)


Excellence activities: A new three-level career ladder for teachers allows eligible teachers to receive bonuses ranging from $1,000 to $7,000 a year. The Better Schools Program of 1984 also mandated kindergarten to be offered to every child and defined basic reading and mathematics skills for kindergarten-grade 8. In place is a fully funded statewide computer literacy course. High school graduation requirements increased, including a doubling of mathematics and science courses; and a proficiency test is required for graduation. The program also provides for in-school suspensions and alternative schools for disruptive students.

TEXAS

Education history — Texas had only a few public schools when it gained independence from Mexico in 1836, and the refusal of Mexican authorities to provide English-speaking teachers was a major reason for settler determination to become a part of the United States. In 1854, less than ten years after having been admitted to the Union, the state established a uniform school system. In 1915, the state legislature adopted a compulsory school attendance law that called for 12 years of free schooling for every child. Shortly thereafter a follow-up law authorized free textbooks. In 1949, the Gilmer-Aikin Laws established the Foundation School Program to ensure the maintenance of minimim standards for education programs in every school district.

State mandate — Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-17; kindergarten.

Number of schools — 1,099 school districts with 3,432 elementary schools, 2,278 secondary, and 154 other — combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (1983-84).

Student enrollment — 3,130,151 elementary and secondary; 1,724,324 kindergarten-grade 6; 1,390,634 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff — 169,942 total instructional; 74,702 elementary teachers, 75,994 dary teachers, 43,289 other nonsupervisory instructional, 9,403 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $20,170; elementary teachers, $19,692; secondary teachers, $20,858; elementary principals, $34,698; junior high principals, $37,047; senior high principals, $41,240.


Excellence activities: House Bill 72, a comprehensive reform package, placed the burden of improved student achievement on the State Education Agency. It called for full-day, state-funded kindergarten and a four-level career-ladder plan for teachers, the latter beginning in 1984-85. Current teachers and administrators are to be tested for competency prior to the 1986-87 school year. The legislation set guidelines for grade requirements and course credit, examinations, promotion, class sizes, attendance, and other activities. A discipline management program will be required in 1986-87. High school graduation requirements mandate 21 credits.

UTAH

Chief state school officer — G. Leland Burningham, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Office of Education, 250 E. Fifth St. S., Salt Lake City, UT 84111.
Education history — Mormons took the precaution before leaving Nauvoo, Illinois, in 1846 of printing a supply of books for classroom use in their new home. Almost immediately after arriving in Salt Lake Valley, they built schools for their own children. The first non-Mormon school was established in 1867 by the Protestant Episcopal Church. This was followed by other non-Mormon schools created by various other churches. In 1890, the territorial legislature passed a law calling for a system of tax-supported schools available to all children. When Utah was admitted to the union six years later, its constitution called for a statewide educational organization that developed into a full-fledged elementary and secondary school program. Although church schools continued to operate, by 1912 the state-controlled tax-supported system had gained so much public confidence that the Mormon Church began to withdraw from full-time instruction and develop closer relationships with the public schools. In 1920, the Mormon Church ended its high school programs altogether.

State mandates — Compulsory school attendance for students aged 6-18; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools — 40 school districts with 436 elementary schools, 204 secondary, 50 special education, and 15 alternative and vocational schools (1984-85).

Student enrollment — 378,208 elementary and secondary; 221,146 kindergarten-grade 6; 150,180 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures — $1,992 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff — 18,024 total instructional; 8,662 elementary teachers, 7,073 secondary teachers, 9,381 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,570 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $20,007; elementary teachers, $19,286; secondary teachers, $21,022; elementary principals, $34,146; junior high/middle school principals, $35,772; senior high principals, $37,924 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: The state legislature appropriated $15.2 million for career ladders, of which, at least 50 percent must be spent for teacher salaries. The State Board of Education adopted a new core curriculum and high school graduation requirements in January 1984. Course description standards have been determined and committees are refining criteria for kindergarten-twelfth grade courses, effective with the class of 1988. A new core program has been designated for kindergarten-grade 6 and for the middle
school level. Twenty-four units will be required for high school graduation, among them a half-year of computer studies and one-and-a-half years in the arts. Teachers must be fully certified in their subject matter areas. Assessment of student mastery is required at completion of grades 3, 6, 8, 10, and 12. A college entry cluster of elective high interest, technology, vocational, and job entry courses will be offered.

VERMONT


Education history — The town of Guilford provided funds for free public schools as early as 1761. As an independent republic (1777-91) before joining the Union, Vermont in its 1777 constitution called for a complete educational system. The system included town elementary schools, county grammar schools, and a state university. In 1780, Vermont's first secondary school was established in Bennington. During the early 1830s private academies and schools were established in the more prosperous villages, and 20 such academies were soon in operation. The movement for public high schools was launched in the 1840s, and by 1900 the number and dominance of private academies had significantly declined.

State mandates — Compulsory school attendance for students aged provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools — 277 school districts with 225 elementary schools, 55 secondary, and 101 other — combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (Fall 1984).

Student enrollment — 99,687 elementary and secondary; 50,618 kindergarten-grade 6; 49,069 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff — 7,905 total instructional; 2,930 elementary teachers, 3,305 secondary teachers, 865 other nonsupervisory instructional, 805 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $17,353; elementary teachers, $17,373; secondary teachers, $18,489; elementary principals, $21,600; junior high/middle school principals, $28,800; senior high principals, $31,175 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: In 1984, the State Board of Education adopted the state's first comprehensive school standards, setting goals and mandating 15.5 units for high school graduation. Summer institutes provide learning...
enrichment experiences for junior high and senior high students. The Vermont Inservice Institute for Professional Development was established to expand and improve inservice education. Also underway is an "Early Education Initiative" aimed at children from age 3 to grade 3. A new vocational education bill calls for increased services to adults, incentives for regional services, and new standards.

VIRGINIA


Education history — The first free schools in what is now the United States were founded in Virginia. They were the Sym's Free School, established in Hampton in 1634, and the Eaton Free School, started in that town in about 1640. Meanwhile Virginia planters and merchants subsidized private schools for their young, called "old-field schools" because they were built in open fields. By the mid-1700s there also were many academies, usually taking the form of combined elementary and high schools. The state assembly in 1810 created a literary fund to help poor children get an education. The state's public school system was started in 1870. Like other southern states, Virginia had separate schools for blacks and whites. With the U.S. Supreme Court holding in 1954 that segregation was unconstitutional, the state began its desegregation efforts in 1959. All school districts were integrated by the mid-1960s.

State mandates — Compulsory school attendance for students aged 5-17; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools — 139 school districts with 1,136 elementary schools, 206 junior high, 256 secondary, and 160 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and vocational education schools.

Student enrollment — 966,110 elementary and secondary; 588,476 kindergarten-grade 6; 377,634 grades 7-12 (1983-84).

Per pupil expenditures — $2,967 elementary and secondary (1983-84).

Staff — 64,300 total instructional; 33,141 elementary teachers, 23,013 secondary teachers, 4,552 other nonsupervisory instructional, 3,594 principals and assistant principals. Average salary of instructional staff, $20,681; elementary teachers, $19,170; secondary teachers, $20,830; elementary principals, $31,467; junior high/middle school principals, $34,686; senior high principals, $36,306 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: The State Department of Education adopted a Standards of Learning Program that includes objectives in ten academic subjects for all grades and a future assessment program. School accreditation standards have been revised and mathematics and science requirements increased. High school graduation requirements were increased to 20 units and include an advanced studies program. Beginning teachers are required to demonstrate satisfactory performance for two years before being certified. A Governor’s Center for Educational Innovation and Technology has been established, and magnet schools for science and technology and the fine arts are planned. Teachers’ salaries have been increased, and a “pay-for-performance” pilot program started to test merit pay. The Board of Education also recommended a three-level master-teacher program to provide $5,000-$8,000 bonuses, and a state-funded staff development plan calls for improving management skills of school administrators and providing inservice training for teachers. Computer literacy objectives have been defined for students.

WASHINGTON

Chief state school officer—Frank B. Brouillet, Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Department of Instruction, 7510 Armstrong St., S.W., Olympia 98504. (206) 753-6717.

Education history—The first school in what was to become the state of Washington was opened in Old Fort Vancouver in 1832 by the Hudson Bay Company, a British trading firm, for employees’ children. The territorial legislature organized the public school system in 1854. It authorized the creation of a school fund, the levying of county and district taxes for schools, and election of county school superintendents. In 1880, Dayton established the first high school, offering a two-year program; Seattle in 1883 opened a three-year high school. The state in 1895 imposed a school tax based on the number of school-age children in the census count. This was changed in 1901 to the number of children actually attending school. In 1948, voters approved an amendment to the state constitution permitting local property tax levies for school support. Concerned about low student achievement scores, the legislature in 1955 established a program to raise academic standards and to provide more state aid to less affluent school districts to equalize per pupil expenditures statewide.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 8-16; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—299 school districts with 996 elementary schools, 460 secondary, and 134 combined elementary-secondary and unclassified (1983-84).
STATE PROFILES

104 Student enrollment—736,238 elementary and secondary; 362,318 kindergarten-grade 6; 359,090 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—34,926 total instructional; 16,124 elementary teachers, 15,428 secondary teachers, 2,743 other nonsupervisory instructional, 2,194 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $25,868; elementary teachers, $24,057, secondary teachers, $24,852; elementary principals, $36,582, junior high/middle school principals, $39,452, senior high principals, $41,558 (1983-84).


Excellence activities—One 1984 reform requires school districts to set goals, with the help of citizens, educators, community and business leaders. The law requires a school district’s resources to be considered and learning objectives to be measured by student attainment. Other reforms include more funding for gifted and talented programs, eighth grade testing and a life skills test. The State Board of Education also called for more emphasis on student proficiency in a second language. Recommendations on standardizing high school transcripts and setting graduation and college admissions are forthcoming. In fall 1983, regional computer demonstration centers began operating to help school districts review hardware and software before making purchases. The board raised graduation requirements and funded inservice training for teachers in mathematics, science, and computer literacy.

WEST VIRGINIA


Education history—Pioneer children attended schools in log cabins that served both as schools and churches. Parents paid teachers in cash, farm products, or bed and board. In 1796 the legislature of Virginia (of which West Virginia was then a part) enacted a law providing for free district schools in counties that wanted to set them up. Few schools materialized, however, because most county officials believed that people should not have to pay for the education of children other than their own. In 1810, the legislature created a literary fund for the education of poor children. Seceding from Virginia during the Civil War, West Virginia joined the Union and established a free public school system in 1863. The state constitution called for taxes to support schools. Until 1875, children in rural schools were not educated by grade levels. That year
Alexander L. Wade, Monongalia County school superintendent, worked out a system to teach subjects by grade level and student age group. In 1933, independent districts were merged into 55 county units for more efficient administration of elementary and secondary education.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16; kindergarten; provision for home instruction by parents who want to educate their own children.

Number of schools—55 school districts with 824 elementary schools, 301 secondary, including 7 multi-county vocational centers, 31 county vocational centers, and 31 vocational centers within high schools (Fall 1983).

Student enrollment—371,251 elementary and secondary; 220,825 kindergarten-grade 8; 150,426 grades 9-12 (1983-84).


Staff—25,155 total instructional, 12,652 elementary teachers, 9,765 secondary teachers, 1,197 other nonsupervisory instructional, 1,541 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $18,224; elementary teachers, $17,196; secondary teachers, $17,941; elementary principals, $26,897; junior high/middle school principals, $29,632; senior high principals, $30,363 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: West Virginia was the first state to require students to retain a "C" average to participate in athletics and other extracurricular activities. More money was allocated to teachers' salaries by the 1984 legislature. High school graduation requirements are set for review by the State Board of Education in 1985. Beginning in 1985, new teachers will have to pass a basic skills test, a content area test, and a professional education performance test.
kindergarten (for German-speaking children) in Watertown. A law enacted in 1911—the first of its kind in the country—required all cities and towns with populations of 5,000 or more to set up vocational schools. Today the Milwaukee Vocational School ranks as one of the largest trade schools in the United States.

State mandates—Compulsory school attendance for children aged 6-18; kindergarten.

Number of schools—432 school districts with 1,436 elementary schools, 578 secondary, and 21 other—combined elementary-secondary, special education, and alternative schools (1983-84).

Student enrollment - 774,656 elementary and secondary; 380,155 pre-kindergarten-grade 6, 394,491 grades 7-12 (1983-84).


Staff—51,689 total instructional; 29,096 elementary teachers, 20,293 secondary teachers, 2,300 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff $23,650; elementary teachers, $22,400; secondary teachers, $23,323; elementary principals, $32,108; junior high/middle school principals, $35,519; and senior high principals $37,995 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: A new voluntary statewide teacher competency program stresses a state-local partnership. Participating school districts undergo a rigorous review of their instructional programs and make decisions on the kinds of tests they will administer. A 1984 report of a statewide task force included recommendations for upgrading teacher preparation and teacher inservice training, and ways to increase the attractiveness of the teaching profession. Many of the recommendations are being implemented, including a requirement for a teacher test. The legislature passed the first state law establishing high school graduation requirements. These include four years of English, three of social studies, two of science, two of mathematics, one and one-half of physical education, one-half of computer science, and one-half of health education.

Wyoming


Education history—The first school in what was to become Wyoming was founded at Fort Laramie by Chaplain William Vaux in 1852. In 1860 another school was built at Fort Bridger. The territorial
legislature in 1869 passed a law providing tax support for the schools, and in the years immediately thereafter district schools were established in many communities. The first high school opened in Cheyenne in 1875. Two years later, school attendance for at least three months a year was made compulsory. After the attainment of statehood in 1890, Wyoming's education department was headed by an elected superintendent. A law enacted in 1969 mandated county committees to arrange for redistricting and resulted in extensive school reorganization, as approved by state committee on reorganization.

State mandate—Compulsory school attendance for students aged 7-16.

Number of schools—49 districts with 254 elementary schools, 63 junior high, 73 senior high schools, and 3 special schools (Fall, 1983).

Student enrollment—100,965 elementary and secondary; 56,151 kindergarten-grade 6; 43,008 grades 7-12; 1,806 special education or nongraded students (1983-84).


Staff—7,841 total instructional; 4,566 elementary teachers, 2,493 secondary teachers, 309 other nonsupervisory instructional, 473 principals and supervisors. Average salary of instructional staff, $24,800; elementary teachers, $24,000; secondary teachers, $25,100; elementary principals, $39,386; secondary principals, $42,374; senior high principals, $42,856 (1983-84).


Excellence activities: A Quality Education Committee recommended greater emphasis on attendance and school improvement research, and that more time be spent on professional development and more recognition be given to educators. High school graduation requirements were increased to four years of language arts, two of mathematics, three of social studies, and two of science. For college-bound students, an additional year of mathematics, two years of foreign language, and a laboratory science are required.
What the Polls Say
About Public Education

What is the one most important factor necessary to keep America strong in the years ahead? Not defense, and not our powerful industrial infrastructure.

No, the answer is our educational system. Says who? Says the people, that's who—as recorded in the latest "Gallup Poll of Public Attitudes Toward the Public Schools."

In cooperation with Phi Delta Kappa, which now finances the survey, the organization founded by the late George Gallup has been monitoring public opinion about the nation's schools for 16 years now. The result is a fascinating record of which public attitudes have shifted during that period and which have steadfastly remained the same.

As for here and now, the picture is in general held to be bright, with the public giving the schools higher marks in 1984 than at any time since 1976.

Following is a summary of Dr. Gallup's analysis of the data from the poll, completed shortly before his recent death:

Summary of The 1984 Findings
Americans are today more favorably disposed toward the public schools than at any other time during the last decade. In the 1984 survey, more Americans (42 percent) grade their local schools A or B for their performance than at any time since 1976—with an 11-point increase over 1983. Virtually the same increase occurs among the parents of public school children—with a 10 percent rise since last year in the percentage giving the local schools an A or B rating.

Americans also have become
significantly more favorably disposed toward public school teachers and administrators. In 1981, 39 percent gave teachers a grade of A or B, whereas today the figure is 50 percent. Moreover, the A or B grades given to principals and administrators rose from 36 percent to 47 percent during that same three-year period.

Another indicator that reveals an increase in favorable feelings toward the schools is the public's increased willingness to pay the price for public education. The percentage of Americans who say that they would be willing to pay more taxes for education has risen from 30 percent to 41 percent.

Americans continue to feel that public education contributes more to national strength than either industrial might or military power. More than eight in ten say that developing the best educational system in the world will be "very important" in determining America's future strength, compared to 70 percent who favor developing the best industrial production system and only 45 percent who favor developing the strongest military force.

The American public is divided in its support for the various recommendations proposed in the recently published reports concerning U.S. education. The public strongly favors (1) increasing the amount of schoolwork and homework in both elementary and high school, (2) basing all grade promotions on examinations, and (3) employing nationally standardized tests for high school diplomas. Support for each of these proposals has increased in recent years.

Looking Backwards

In the first poll of the Public's
Attitudes About the Public Schools—taken in 1969—the chief concern proved to be the lack of discipline. Gallup noted at the time that "court rulings defending student rights have not helped the discipline situation although they have almost ended the in loco parentis principle at least at the college level."

The second most pressing concern expressed in the first poll was the growing militancy of teachers. Gallup reported that the survey showed a growing majority of the public against permitting teacher strikes. "The position of the teacher changed in the 1930s and 1940s," he reported. "Teachers were thought to be grossly underpaid public servants who engaged in teaching because of their dedication to education. In the struggle to gain parity with other professionals, teachers have been compelled to adopt, in many situations, a militant position."

The third major concern was racial integration, followed by concern about busing. Gallup felt that the concern about busing as "not really a carry-over to integration itself, but rather to the busing of students to achieve it."

In subsequent years discipline continued to be singled out as the first "problem" of the schools, and with the fifth poll in 1973, Gallup suggested that "a successful resolution of the problem of discipline would almost certainly bring about a change in the attitude of those parents who are moving to the suburbs chiefly to remove their children from the inner-city schools."

It was also in the fifth poll that Gallup noted what he called "the shocking lack of information of non parents—parents of private and/or parochial school children, senior citizens whose children had grown and were no longer at home or single adults without children."

Gallup also underscored the crucial role played by parents in their children's progress in school and declared, "A properly conceived plan of helping parents do a more effective job of motivating their school-age children, organizing their home life to enable them to do the best work in the classroom, and instructing them in the many areas not included in formal education, offers the greatest opportunity to reach higher educational standards and at the lowest cost."

In the first poll one question dealt with the amount of knowledge people had about the schools. Only 19 percent responded that they had "quite a lot," while 41 percent responded "very little." Parents in the survey sample were not much better informed than the general public, with only 27 percent being in the "quite a lot" category.

Asked to identify the qualities that characterize "good schools," survey respondents in 1969 cited the following:

- qualified teachers
- discipline
- physical equipment
- a wide variety of courses interesting to the students
- a good library.

Regarding "What was not good enough in the schools?" they said:

- discipline
- overcrowding of students
- poor transportation
- buildings too old
- integration

Asked the best source of information about schools,
By the time of the fifth poll in 1973, certain shifts had taken place. The top concern was still discipline, but segregation rose to the second most critical concern. Drug use, mentioned by only a few in 1969, was now in fifth place, with third and fourth being lack of proper financial support and difficulty of getting good teachers.

The response to “What ways are the local public schools particularly good?” was:
- the curriculum
- the teachers
- school facilities
- extracurricular activities
- up-to-date teaching methods

A new trend was picked up in the fifth year of the polls, when no less than 90 percent of the respondents held that the schools should give more emphasis to “career education.” Linked to that reaction were responses to the question of “How important is education to one’s future success?” with 76 percent of the general public saying “very important” (a proposition agreed to by 81 percent of public school parents and 84 percent of private school parents).

Meanwhile there had been some interesting changes in what people felt were the best sources of information about the schools, the 1973 ranking being as follows:
- newspapers
- personal communication — students and neighbors
- school personnel
- radio and TV
- meetings at school

parents of students
• The high water mark in people’s overall rating of the public schools was established in 1974, the first time the Gallup Poll raised the question—with 48 percent saying A or B.

Since that time public confidence in the schools would appear to have declined virtually every year, but 1984 was an exception. In 1984 the sixteenth annual poll saw a jump of 11 percent over 1983, to a total of 42 percent.

Perhaps the downward trend has been reversed; perhaps public appreciation of the remarkable achievements of America’s public schools is on the rise to an appropriate level.

Interested schools are invited by Phi Delta Kappa to use the Gallup Poll questions to assess public opinion in their own communities, and to compare their results with those from the national sample. The Gallup Poll is not copyrighted and may be purchased in quantities of 25 for $4.50 from Phi Delta Kappa
Post Office Box 789
Bloomington, IN 47402

Also, Phi Delta Kappa has produced a very useful guide called PACE (Polling Attitudes of the Community on Education) in a handy three-ring loose-leaf binder that provides how-to information on conducting such a survey, selecting a valid sample, and evaluating the findings. PACE costs $39.50 and may be ordered from Phi Delta Kappa
Eighth and Union Streets
Bloomington, IN 47402
**Education's Importance**

In determining America's strength in the future--say, 25 years from now--how important do you feel each of the following factors will be—very important, fairly important, not too important, or not at all important?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Very Important %</th>
<th>Fairly Important %</th>
<th>Not Too Important %</th>
<th>Not At all Important %</th>
<th>Don't Know %</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing the best educational system in the world</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing the most efficient industrial production system in the world</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building the strongest military force in the world</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Rating Public Schools

Students are often given the grades A, B, C, D, and FAIL to denote the quality of their work. Suppose the public schools themselves, in this community, were graded in the same way. What grade would you give the public schools here—A, B, C, D, or FAIL?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>A rating</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B rating</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C rating</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D rating</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAIL</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
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</table>

Rating Teachers

What grade would you give the teachers in the public schools in this community?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
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<tr>
<td>A rating</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13</td>
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<td>B rating</td>
<td>37</td>
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<td>C rating</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D rating</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAIL</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don’t know</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## WHAT POLLS SAY

### Rating Administrators
What grade would you give the principals and administrators in the local public schools in this community?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>A rating</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>B rating</td>
<td>34</td>
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<td>C rating</td>
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<td>30</td>
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<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td>D rating</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAIL</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
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<table>
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<th>1984 %</th>
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<td>C rating</td>
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<td>D rating</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAIL</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>11</td>
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### Rating School Boards
What grade would you give the school board in this community?

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
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</thead>
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<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
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<td>9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B rating</td>
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<td>31</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C rating</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D rating</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAIL</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Rating Parents
What grade would you give the parents of students in the local public schools for bringing up their children?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A rating</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B rating</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>23</td>
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<tr>
<td>C rating</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
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<tr>
<td>D rating</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
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<tr>
<td>FAIL</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### School Taxes
Suppose the local public schools said they needed much more money. As you feel at this time, would you vote to raise taxes for this purpose, or would you vote against raising taxes for this purpose?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For raise in taxes</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Against raise in taxes</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>51</td>
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<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Favor Raising Taxes</th>
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<th>Don't Know</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984 survey</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1983 survey</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981 survey</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1972 survey</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971 survey</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970 survey</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1969 survey</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**116 WHAT POLLS SAY**

**Length of School Year**

In some nations, students attend school as many as 240 days a year as compared to 180 days in the U.S. How do you feel about extending the public school year in this community by 30 days, making the school year about 210 days or 10 months long? Do you favor or oppose this idea?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favor</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppose</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>46</td>
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<tr>
<td>No opinion</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Favor</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppose</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No opinion</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Length of School Day**

How do you feel about extending the school day in the schools in this community by one hour? Do you favor or oppose this idea?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Favor</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppose</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>58</td>
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<tr>
<td>No opinion</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<table>
<thead>
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<th></th>
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<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oppose</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No opinion</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Student Burden

In general, do you think *elementary* schoolchildren in the public schools here are made to work too hard in school and on homework or not hard enough?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too hard</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not hard enough</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About right amount</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What about students in the public *high schools* here—in general, are they required to work too hard or not hard enough?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too hard</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not hard enough</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>About right amount</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't know</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Automatic Promotion

In your opinion, should children be promoted from grade to grade *only* if they can pass examinations?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>National Totals</th>
<th>No Children In School</th>
<th>Public School Parents</th>
<th>Nonpublic School Parents</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>73</td>
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<td>73</td>
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<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Don't</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The surge of technology into the classroom shows no sign of abating. Virtually every recent survey has turned up evidence that the country's feeling for the computer is not just puppy love but an increasingly fervent attachment.

Large school districts doubled their number of microcomputers in just one year, according to a survey by Quality Education Data, Inc. (QED) of Denver, a market research firm. The average school now has eight microcomputers and the nation's 50 largest school districts share a total of nearly 74,000.

Overall, 2.5 percent of high schools, 46.2 percent of middle and junior high schools, and 27.4 percent of elementary schools had microcomputers in 1983. This represents increases from the year before ranging from 175 percent for elementary schools to 146.4 for intermediate schools to 61 percent for high schools, the U.S. Department of Education reported. QED found an average of 85 students per microcomputer in the big districts, half what it was in 1983-84.

Chief Computer Uses
How schools acquire computers, what they are doing with them and what results they are having are among the myriad questions being addressed by researchers. Perhaps the most extensive survey of microcomputer uses in schools was done by Johns Hopkins University's Center for Social Organization of Schools. In its National Survey of School Uses of Microcomputers, the center found the following:

- In elementary schools, students use microcomputers for a median of 19 minutes a week for
programming or computer literacy; 13 minutes for drills, remedial work, math, and language; and 12 minutes for games.

- Secondary students, on the other hand, spend a median of 55 minutes a week on programming; only 17 minutes on drills and remedial work; 11 minutes playing games, and 30 minutes on word processing, data processing, and other uses.

How microcomputers are used, the survey found—whether for programming, drill, or something else—depends largely on who led the effort to purchase them and use them in the curriculum. It concluded that the most effective use is in elementary schools in which a group of teachers was instrumental in bringing in computers. In these schools, computers are in use for more hours each week and are used by all types of students, by more of them, and for a greater variety of purposes. Where a single teacher or administrator led the way, the chief use is by above-average students.

Who actually paid for the computers also had some effect. Schools that acquired computers through general school funds used them less often and allowed fewer students to have access to them than did schools where the equipment was bought with outside money or through fund-raising efforts.

Rising State Involvement
A 1984 survey by Electronic Learning magazine found a growing interest in computers on the part of the states. Twenty states, more than in 1983, had some type of computer literacy mandate and a few others had similar legislation pending. Five states required teachers to be certified in computers, and at least 14 more were considering some form of certification requirements.

Another report, prepared for the U.S. Department of Education, found that state officials now believe they must play a key role in coordinating the use of educational technology if their states and students are to benefit. Turnkey Systems, Inc., which did the report, said the states now speak of the need for a coordinated approach to technology. The federal government should also play a bigger part, it said, in helping states with technology planning. Appropriate federal roles as defined in the report include gathering information, supporting state consortia, providing technical assistance, and maintaining a database.

The Equity Issue
Johns Hopkins also found that while a majority of schools have microcomputers, certain groups of schools lag in their use, particularly elementary schools in the South and parochial schools. Only about one-fourth of these schools reported having at least one micro, compared to twice that many schools in general. Elementary schools in poor areas also are less likely to have a computer.

These figures underscore a persistent problem, and one that may be becoming more acute, as the issue of equity between rich and poor and white and minority. Johns Hopkins found that only 31 percent of the nation's poorest elementary schools have microcomputers,
compared to 46 percent overall and 57 percent of the wealthiest.

Two-thirds of poor secondary schools own microcomputers, but
86 percent of the richer ones do. Affluent white elementary schools
report 155 students per microcomputer, compared to 192 in
poorer white schools and 215 in predominantly minority schools.
Likewise, twice as many students in the first group have access to a
computer during a typical week. And they are more likely to use the
machines for programming instead of drill-and-practice.

Computers at Home
Another equity problem is springing up from the advent of computers
into the home. About 60 percent of
home computers are bought by
parents, although families with
children make up only 38 percent of
the population, according to
TALMIS, Inc., a Chicago marketing
firm. It predicts that 15 percent of
American homes now have
computers, double the amount at
the end of 1983. Sales topped 5
million in 1984, with educational
software becoming a $94 million
market (9 percent of the total).

This new home market may also widen the gap between parents and
schools, experts say. According to a
National School Boards Association
survey of school board presidents,
schools know very little about what
is going on with home computers
and have no plans for intruding into
the matter.

Following is a sampling of
publications that may help those
who want to stay abreast of
developments in the field:

Apple Education News
Apple Computer, Inc.
20525 Mariani Avenue
Cupertino, CA 95014

Arithmetic Teacher
National Council of Teachers of
Mathematics
1906 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091

Classroom Computer Learning
Pitman Publishing Co.
19 Davis Drive
Belmont, CA 94002

The Computing Teacher
1787 Agate Street
gen. OR 97403

Educational Technology
Publications
720 Palisade Avenue
Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632

Electronic Education
Electronic Communications, Inc.
1311 Executive Center Drive
Tallahassee, FL 32301

Electronic Learning
Scholastic, Inc.
730 Broadway
New York, NY 10003

InfoWorld
1060 Marsh Road
Suite C-200
Menlo Park, CA 94025

Instructional Innovator
Association for Educational
Communications and Technology
1126 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036
Journal of Courseware Review
Apple Education Foundation
20525 Mariani Avenue
Cupertino, CA 95014

Mathematics Teacher
National Council of Teachers of Mathematics
1906 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091

Media and Methods
1511 Walnut Street
Philadelphia, PA 19102

“Microcomputers and Instruction” from The Best of ERIC
ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management
University of Oregon
Eugene, OR 97403

Microcomputing
Wayne Green, Inc.
P.O. Box 997
Farmingdale, NY 11737

Personal Computing
Hayden Publishing Co.
10 Mulholland Drive
Hasbrouck Heights, NJ 07604

Personal Software
Hayden Publishing Co.
10 Mulholland Drive
Hasbrouck Heights, NJ 07604

Teaching and Computers
Scholastic, Inc.
902 Sylvan Avenue
Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632
Meet the Nation's Teachers and Principals

(Excerpts from Educator Opinion Poll: Teachers and Principals, a study conducted by the Educational Research Service)

A Portrait of Teachers
The majority of teachers are female. The average age of all teachers is 40. They earn an average of $21,983 working an average of 185 days a year, seven hours and 13 minutes a day. The typical teacher has worked in the same school district for 12 years and has been a teacher for an average of 15 years. Most teachers are covered by collective bargaining agreements. Paperwork, class size, and lack of support from parents rank among the biggest problems facing teachers. About half would not want to work a longer school day or school year even if a commensurate salary increase were offered. Most teachers report that they do not have a major problem with such discipline infractions as extreme verbal abuse, physical slaps, theft, or damage to personal property in their classrooms. They are divided on the issue of merit pay for teachers and on requiring experienced teachers to pass competency tests, but a substantial majority tend to support career ladders for teachers.

The majority of elementary school teachers are female. The average age of all elementary school teachers is 40, and the average work-year is 185 days, seven hours and eight minutes a day. The average salary is $21,621, and the average class size for those teaching in a nondepartmentalized setting is 25 pupils. Most elementary teachers do not want a longer school day or school year. Most believe that homework should be assigned to elementary students three or more times a week. Over 40 percent believe that students' attitudes toward school are more negative than five years ago.
The majority of intermediate level teachers are also female. The average age is 40, and the average salary is $21,560 for working an average of 184 days a year, seven hours and 13 minutes a day. Most intermediate level teachers are unwilling to work a longer day, but would work a longer year for a higher salary.

The majority of high school teachers are male. The average age is 41, and the average salary is $22,714 for working at school an average of 185 days a year, seven hours and 18 minutes a day. Most high school teachers believe that students should have homework at least four times a week. Most believe that students' attitudes are more positive toward school and learning than students' attitudes of five years ago.

Contrary to some news reports about wholesale flight from the teaching profession, the overwhelming majority of teachers—72.8 percent—see teaching as their career. These teachers say they intend to stay in the profession as long as they can. Of the remaining teachers, 24.1 percent are undecided about their ultimate career plans and are considering other occupations. A small minority, 2.3 percent, report that they have definitely decided to leave teaching. These percentages, translated into real numbers, represent a corps of over 1.5 million teachers committed to their profession, with slightly over half a million undecided and about 48 thousand determined to leave. The number of teachers determined to leave the profession is so small that no distinguishing characteristics gleaned with any degree of statistical confidence.

A Portrait of Principals
The majority of principals in the United States are male. Most have earned a master's degree, and their average work year is 11 months. They work an average of 52.9 hours a week when school is in session. The average salary is $33,856. The average time in their present position is seven years; the average time in the profession, including classroom teaching experience, is 21 years. The majority of principals belong to national, state, and local associations of their profession. Most are not covered by collective bargaining agreements, but their teachers are. In a rank ordering of problems that detract from their ability to do the best job they can, too much paperwork and lack of time to observe classes and to confer with teachers lead the list. The overwhelming majority of principals see educational administration as their career. They intend to stay in school administration as long as they can.

The majority of elementary school principals are male, and their average age is 47. Their average salary is $32,786, and they work an average of 10.9 months a year. The average length of experience of elementary school principals is 13 years, seven of which have been spent at their current school. The average faculty size is 26 teachers in a school with 445 students. The students are in school 178 days a year for six hours and six minutes a day. The majority of elementary school principals work in districts that do not have merit pay plans for administrators. Most believe that the attitude of
students toward school and learning is more positive than five years ago and that today’s students are better prepared.

The majority of intermediate level principals also are male. The average age is 47, and the average salary is $35,805 for working 11.1 months a year. The average professional experience is 12 years as a principal, seven of which have been spent at their current school. The average faculty size is 39 teachers in a school with 669 students. The students are in school 178 days a year, six hours and 24 minutes a day. The majority of intermediate level principals work in districts that do not have merit pay plans for administrators. The majority believe that the attitudes of students are more positive toward school and learning than those of students five years ago. Most also believe that contemporary students are better prepared. The majority of the intermediate level principals approve of the concept of merit pay for teachers.

The majority of high school principals are males who report earning $36,377 working 11.2 months a year. Most of them work in districts that do not have merit pay plans for administrators. The average staff size is 51 teachers in a school with 844 students. The students are in school an average of six hours and 29 minutes a day, 179 days a year. The average length of professional experience is 11 years, the last seven of which have been in their current assignment. The majority of high school principals believe that the attitude of students toward school is more positive than it was five years ago. Most also believe that their present students are better prepared than their predecessors.

Three new kinds of polls taken during 1984 dealt with the attitudes and feelings of teachers and principals, variously seeking their opinions on some of the major education issues, each other, students, and in general the condition of education in the United States.

Although the questions in the three polls were similar, differences in their wording and focus make precise comparison difficult, but the resultant information conveys an interesting overall glimpse into how these groups of educators see America's schools.

The Educational Research Service, Inc., in its first national poll of educators revealed some sharp differences between the impressions of teachers and principals, along with some basic nents. For example, more than 62 percent of the elementary and secondary school principals involved said that students' attitudes toward learning are more positive than they were five years ago, but only 36 percent of the teachers agreed.

About 58 percent of the principals said students are better prepared in the basic skills than they were in 1979, compared to only 27 percent of the teachers. Neither group views drugs and alcohol as being major problems in the schools, whereas the general public and parents rate these among the gravest of all school concerns. Again in contrast with the opinions of parents and the general public, nearly all principals and teachers said such discipline problems as theft and verbal or physical abuse were uncommon in their schools.

More than three-fourths of teachers and principals said that
new teachers should be required to
pass exams in teaching methods
and subject areas before being
hired. Less than half the teachers
said experienced teachers should
take such exams, compared
to six in ten principals.

Most of those surveyed supported
the idea of career ladders for
teachers (82 percent of teachers, 92
percent of principals). Merit pay was
favored by only half of the teachers
but two-thirds of the principals.

(From: “Educator Opinion Poll,”
Educational Research Service, Inc.,
1800 North Kent Street, Arlington,
Virginia 22209)

“A” for Schools
In the first-ever Gallup/Phi Delta
Kappa “Poll of Teachers’ Attitudes
Toward the Public Schools,”
two-thirds of the respondents gave
their local schools an A or a B, with
72 percent saying their own school
was particularly deserving of high
marks. In the most recent Gallup
Poll of Americans as a whole,
however, schools got As or Bs from
only 42 percent of the respondents.

The teachers gave students a pat
on the back for conduct, with only
16 percent saying discipline is a
“very serious” problem. In contrast,
34 percent of the general public
rate discipline as education’s
number one challenge. Similarly,
while 18 percent of the public think
drugs are rife in the schools only 5
percent of the teachers regard drugs
as a problem.

In the Gallup Poll of teachers,
amost eight in ten (78 percent)
gave their fellow teachers an A or B
grade, compared to half of the
public. Although the teachers
opposed merit pay two to one,
three-fourths nevertheless said that
some teachers in their schools
deserve extra compensation.

Only 44 percent of the teachers
gave administrators an A or B; and
only 29 percent gave such marks to
school board members. Parents
were on the bottom of the teachers’
list, rating an A or B from only one
teacher in five. And 31 percent gave
parents a D or F. The same
percentage of teachers said that
parents’ lack of interest is the
biggest problem their schools face.
Almost all (94 percent) blamed lack
of home discipline for school
discipline problems.

(From: “Educator Opinion Poll,”
Educational Research Service, Inc.,
1800 North Kent Street, Arlington,
Virginia 22209)

Another High Grade
In the third poll, performed by
Louis Harris for the Metropolitan
Life Insurance Company, nine in
ten teachers rated the teachers in
their schools as excellent. Only 8
percent said discipline problems
were “very serious.”

By what the Harris Poll described
as “overwhelming majorities,” the
teachers said the numerous reforms
now underway or proposed will
have positive effects on education.
Nearly all surveyed favored an
emphasis on basic skills and
discipline, tighter high school
graduation requirements, and a
broader curriculum. Three fourths
said homework should be increased,
and 8 percent favored student
competency tests. A longer school
day and year won approval from
only one teacher out of five. Not
necessarily in conflict with Gallup
findings in which teachers opposed
merit pay two to one, 74 percent of
the teachers in the Harris Poll said
merit pay could work “If a teacher’s merit pay can be judged as an objective standard.” The Gallup survey simply asked teachers their opinion of the merit pay concept.

(From: “The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher,” Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, 1 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 10010)
American Alliance for Health, Physical Education, Recreation and Dance
1900 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091
(703) 476-3400
Executive Vice President: Jack E. Razor
Publications: Fitting In (fitness newsletter for fifth and sixth graders); Quarterly for Exercise and Sports; Journal of Physical Education, Recreation and Dance; Health Education; Update
1985 national convention—April 17-21, Atlanta, Georgia
1986 national convention—April 9-13, Cincinnati, Ohio

American Association for Adult and Continuing Education
1201 16th Street, NW, Suite 230
Washington, DC 20036
(301) 822-7866
Executive Director: Gary Eyre
Publications: Lifelong Learning: Omnibus of Practice and Research; Adult Education Quarterly; AAACE Newsletter; AAACE Membership Directory
1985 national convention—November 6-11, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
1986 national convention—November 6-10, Hollywood, Florida

American Association for Counseling and Development
5999 Stevenson Avenue, Alexandria, VA 22304
(703) 823-9800
Executive Vice President: Patrick J. McDonough
Publications: Guidepost; Journal of Counseling and Development
1985 national convention—April 2-5, New York, New York
1986 national convention—April 20-23, Los Angeles, California
The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) represents the training arm of the education profession. Its members—some 720 schools, colleges, and departments of education—hold responsibility for the specialized instruction of the teachers, counselors, principals, and superintendents who staff and manage America's schools.

The association promotes professional excellence; advances new techniques and insights in teaching; advocates public policy conducive to excellence in education; offers professional and leadership development services; and influences education policy at the state and local levels. A major function of AACTE is its participation in the National Council for Accreditation in Teacher Education. One-third of the council's governing board is composed of AACTE representatives.

The association was formed in 1858 as the American Normal School Association. In 1948, following a series of organizational shifts, the association combined with two other higher education associations to form the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

AACTE is governed by a 19-member board of directors elected by the 3,400 officially appointed representatives of member institutions. The board actions are reviewed by the annual membership meeting, which determines bylaws changes and resolutions.

The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges (AACJC) represents the training arm of the education profession. Its members—some 720 schools, colleges, and departments of education—hold responsibility for the specialized instruction of the teachers, counselors, principals, and superintendents who staff and manage America's schools.

The association promotes professional excellence; advances new techniques and insights in teaching; advocates public policy conducive to excellence in education; offers professional and leadership development services; and influences education policy at the state and local levels. A major function of AACJC is its participation in the National Council for Accreditation in Teacher Education. One-third of the council's governing board is composed of AACJC representatives.

The association was formed in 1858 as the American Normal School Association. In 1948, following a series of organizational shifts, the association combined with two other higher education associations to form the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

AACJC is governed by a 19-member board of directors elected by the 3,400 officially appointed representatives of member institutions. The board actions are reviewed by the annual membership meeting, which determines bylaws changes and resolutions.

The American Association of School Administrators represents the training arm of the education profession. Its members—some 720 schools, colleges, and departments of education—hold responsibility for the specialized instruction of the teachers, counselors, principals, and superintendents who staff and manage America's schools.

The association promotes professional excellence; advances new techniques and insights in teaching; advocates public policy conducive to excellence in education; offers professional and leadership development services; and influences education policy at the state and local levels. A major function of the association is its participation in the National Council for Accreditation in Teacher Education. One-third of the council's governing board is composed of the association's representatives.

The association was formed in 1858 as the American Normal School Association. In 1948, following a series of organizational shifts, the association combined with two other higher education associations to form the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education.

The association is governed by a 19-member board of directors elected by the 3,400 officially appointed representatives of member institutions. The board actions are reviewed by the annual membership meeting, which determines bylaws changes and resolutions.
Executive Director: Paul B. Salmon
Publications: Annual Report; The School Administrator; The Job Bulletin

1985 national convention—March 8-11, Dallas, Texas
1986 national convention—March 21-24, San Francisco, California

The American Association of School Administrators (AASA), founded in 1865, serves more than 18,000 members who include school superintendents, central office administrators, school principals, board members, professors of educational administration, and other local, state, and federal education officials.

AASA:
- Seeks excellence in educational administration;
- Initiates and supports laws, policies, research, and practice to improve education;
- Promotes programs and activities that focus on leadership for learning and educational excellence; and
- Fosters a climate in which quality education can thrive.

AASA programs include the following:
- The annual AASA convention, which draws from 15,000 to 20,000 educational leaders from around the world.
- The National Academy for School Executives, which provides professional development seminars to help school administrators increase their knowledge and skills.
- The National Center for the Improvement of Learning, which focuses on sharing information, ideas, and research to help administrators more effectively manage curriculum and instruction and improve learning.

The association is governed by a nationally elected executive committee, consisting of six members, plus the president, president-elect, and vice president. The immediate past president and executive director serve in an ex officio capacity. Each year, a delegate assembly is constituted to assist AASA in developing policy and position statements on a number of vital issues.

American Association of School Personnel Administrators
6483 Tanglewood Lane
Seven Hills, OH 44131
(216) 524-3030
Executive Director: Arch S. Brown
Publications: AASPA Bulletin; Annual Directory of Personnel Practices and Programs
1985 national convention—October 21-24, Seattle, Washington
1986 national convention—October 20-24, Houston, Texas

American Association of University Professors
1012 14th Street, NW, Suite 500
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 737-5900
General Secretary: Ernest Benjamin
Publication: Academe
1985 national convention—June 14-15, Washington, DC
1986 national convention—not yet determined

American Council on Education
One Dupont Circle, NW, Suite 800
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 833-4700
President: Robert H. Atwell
Publications: Higher Education and
American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, Inc.
579 Broadway
Hastings-on-Hudson, NY 10706
(914) 478-2011
Executive Director: C. Edward Scebold
Publications: Public Awareness Network Newsletter; Fine Language Annals
1985 national convention—November 28-30, New York, New York
1986 national convention—not yet determined

American Educational Research Association
1230 17th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036
(202) 223-9485
Executive Director: William J. Russell
Publications: Educational Researcher; Review of Research in Education; Educational Research Journal
1985 national convention—March 31-April 4, Chicago, Illinois
1986 national convention—March 31-April 4, San Francisco, California

American Federation of Teachers, AFL-CIO
555 New Jersey Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20001
(202) 879-4400
President: Albert Shanker
Publications: American Teacher; American Educator; Public Service Reporter
1985 QUEST Educational Conference—July 10-14, Washington, D.C.
1986 biennial convention—July 3-7, Chicago, Illinois

Established in 1916, the 580,000-member American Federation of Teachers (AFT) of the AFL-CIO serves elementary and secondary teachers, college and university professors, and other nonsupervisory personnel in education. Although the AFT represents teachers in urban, suburban, and rural school districts throughout the country, its strongest concentration of members lies in the major U.S. cities.

The goal of AFT's founders was to form a national organization that would support full union rights for teachers and would agree that professional status and academic freedom can be achieved only through affiliation with the trade union movement.

The national office provides technical assistance to its state and local affiliates in organizing and collective bargaining activities, and provides support through its legislative, political action, public relations, human rights, research, educational issues, and editorial departments.

The AFT has more than 2,000 autonomous local affiliates that have their own constitutions, elect their own officers, set their own dues structures, and formulate local goals and policies. In most states, AFT locals are affiliated with one another through AFT state...
The AFT delegate body is apportioned on the basis of local membership. The annual AFT convention, attended by the delegates, is the highest national AFT policy-making body. Every two years delegates elect the AFT national president and the 34 vice presidents who make up the AFT executive council, a body that sets broad national policy for the organization. The elected president is the top administrative officer of the AFT.

American Home Economics Association
2010 Massachusetts Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 862-8300
Executive Director: Joan McFadden
Publications: Journal of Home Economics; Home Economics Research Journal; AHEA Action
1985 national convention—June 24-27, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
1986 national convention—not yet determined

American Industrial Arts Association
1914 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091
(703) 860-2100
Executive Director: Kendall Starkweather
Publication: The Technology Teacher
1985 national convention—March 26-30, San Diego, California
1986 national convention—March 24-28, Kansas City, Missouri

American Library Association
50 E. Huron Street, Chicago, IL 60611
(312) 944-6780
Executive Director: Robert Wedgeworth
Publications: Choice; School Library Media Quarterly; Library Resources & Technical Services; Information Technology and Libraries; Top of the News
1985 national convention—July 6-11, Chicago, Illinois

The American Library Association is the oldest and largest library association in the world. Founded in 1876, the ALA promotes libraries and librarianship toward assuring the delivery of user-oriented library and information service to the public, and sets standards for library performance. Its 40,000 members include librarians, libraries, library trustees, authors, publishers, information scientists, business firms, and friends of the library in the U.S., Canada, and abroad.

The ALA is recognized by the U.S. Secretary of Education and by the Council on Postsecondary Accreditation as the only accrediting agency for American library education programs, and maintains a list of approved schools at the graduate level. Headquartered in Chicago, it also has an office in Washington, D.C.

The association is governed by a council of 100 members elected at large, 51 members elected by state chapters, and 11 members elected by divisions. The executive board is composed of the elected officers, the immediate past president, and eight members elected by the council from among the members of that body. The association is
served by a staff of 200 and administered by an executive director.

American School Counselor Association
(Division of American Association for Counseling and Development)
5999 Stevenson Avenue, Alexandria, VA 22304
(703) 823-9800
Executive Vice President: Patrick J. McDonough
Publications: The School Counselor; Elementary School Guidance and Counseling; ASCA Counselor Newsletter
1985 national convention—April 2-5, New York, New York
1986 national convention—April 20-23, Los Angeles, California

American Speech-Language-Hearing Association
10801 Rockville Pike, Rockville, MD 20852
(301) 897-5700
Executive Director: Frederick T. Spahr
Publications: ASHA: Journal of Speech and Hearing Disorders; Journal of Hearing and Speech Research
1985 national convention—November 21-25, Washington, D.C.
1986 national convention—November 21-24, Detroit, Michigan

American Statistical Association
806 15th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20005
(202) 393-3253
Executive Director: Fred C. Leone
Publications: Journal of American Statistics; American Statistician; Amstad News
1985 national convention—August 5-8, Las Vegas, Nevada
1986 national convention—August 18-21, Chicago, Illinois

American Vocational Association
2020 North 14th Street, Arlington, VA 22201
(703) 522-6121
Executive Director: Gene Bottoms
Publications: VocEd; Update; VocEd Technical Insiders
1985 national convention—December 6-10, Atlanta, Georgia
1986 national convention—December 5-9, Dallas, Texas

Association for Childhood Education International
11141 Georgia Avenue, Suite 200
Wheaton, MD 20902
(301) 942-2443
Executive Director: James S. Packer
Publications: Childhood Education; ACEI Exchange
1985 national convention—June 19-22, San Antonio, Texas
1986 national convention—March 26-30, Greensboro, North Carolina

Association for Educational Communications and Technology
1126 16th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036
(202) 466-4780
Executive Director: Lyn Gubser
Publications: Instructional Innovator; ECTJ Journal of Instructional Development
1985 national convention—January 18-22, Anaheim, California
1986 national convention—January 16-21, Las Vegas, Nevada

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 North Washington Street, Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 549-9110
The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD) focuses on general improvement of education through promotion of optimum school practices and programs. ASCD seeks to assure quality educational opportunities for all students, and to provide its members with effective information and training.

ASCD's origins go back to 1943. With a membership of 35,000, ASCD today calls itself the nation's largest education leadership organization. Its members include school superintendents, principals, directors, supervisors, professors, and teachers.

ASCD activities include an annual conference attended by 4,000-6,000 participants, a wide range of curriculum study institutes, a research information service, numerous individual projects, and a publications program that includes videotapes and other media.

In addition to individual members, ASCD maintains over 15,000 affiliations with unit organizations throughout the United States.

The association's governance includes a 200-member board of directors to set general policies; a 13-member elected executive council (including the association's president, past president, andident-elect).
Established in 1927, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) is composed of the leading public official responsible for education in each state. The council members are thus the 57 state superintendents and commissioners of education in the 50 states, the District of Columbia, American Samoa, Guam, the Northern Mariana Islands, Puerto Rico, the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, and the Virgin Islands.

Recognizing the responsibility of the states for leadership in education, CCSSO exists to help its members and their agencies carry out this responsibility. In doing so the council:

• Provides various services plus avenues for cooperative action among its members to strengthen education through the work of state education agencies.

• Conducts special projects that address problems of concern at the state level and targets research and resources developed through the council to improve educational opportunities for all students.

• Coordinates seminars, educational travel, and special study programs toward providing opportunities for the professional growth of chief state school officers and their top management teams.

In addition, CCSSO provides extensive leadership in vocational education, data management, sex equity, the humanities, and other areas, and has developed practical networks with key personnel in each department of education.
Projects such as the National Teacher-of-the-Year Program and international visitations from various ministries of education are two additional projects that have enhanced CCSSO’s national and international reputation.

Each year, during CCSSO’s annual meeting, the membership elects the president, president-elect, and board of directors.

Council of Educational Facility Planners International
29 West Woodruff Avenue, Columbus, OH 43210
(614) 422-1521
Executive Director: Dwayne E. Gardner
Publications: CEFP Journal; CEFP News & Views
1985 national convention — November 16-21, San Jose, California
1986 national convention — not yet determined

Council of the Great City Schools
1413 K Street, NW, Suite 400
Washington, DC 20005
(202) 371-0163
Executive Director: Samuel B. Husk
Publications: Legislative Activity Report; Urban Education Weekly; News and Notes
1985 national convention — November 7-11, Albuquerque, New Mexico
1986 national convention — not yet determined

Distributive Education Clubs of America
1908 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091
(703) 860-5000
Executive Director: Frederick L. Williford
Publications: New Dimensions
1985 national convention — April 24-28, San Francisco, California
1986 national convention — April 30-May 4, Atlanta, Georgia

EdPRESS
Glassboro State College, Glassboro, NJ 08028
(609) 863-7349
Executive Director: Linda C. Bateman
Publications: Annual EdPRESS Membership Roster; EdPRESS News
1985 national convention — not yet determined
1986 national convention — not yet determined

EdPRESS was organized in 1895 in Denver by the editors of eight educational journals who banded together to deal with problems involving such matters as rising postal rates, copyright infringement, and plagiarism.

During the ensuing nine decades the association’s purpose has evolved into the goals of advancing the cause of education and improving the quality of education communications.

EdPRESS today has approximately 500 members across the United States and in Canada, most of whom are editors or staff members of education publications.

The association is governed by a board of directors made up of the president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, and three members at large. EdPRESS representatives serve 12 North America regions.

Education Commission of the States
1860 Lincoln Street
The Education Commission of the States (ECS), originally proposed by James Conant, became a reality in 1965 after its sponsors gained support from almost every major education organization in the U.S. and from a number of state governors who believed that a compact among states was necessary in order to develop a nationwide educational policy.

Today, 48 states (all but Montana and Nevada) plus the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, American Samoa, and the Virgin Islands have joined the commission.

The commission works with advisers from 25 national organizations (including NAESP) to fulfill the following functions:

1. Undertake policy research, surveys, and special studies in response to the needs of state policymakers.

2. Serve as a clearinghouse of information about state policies and proposals, statistical information, research findings, and other sources of data.

3. Organize forums at the state, regional, and national levels for ECS constituents to exchange views, explore new ideas, and build relationships in a nonadversarial arena.

4. Offer technical assistance to individual states and defined state leadership groups.

5. Facilitate nationwide cooperation in education by providing information to the federal government and national organizations, representing states' interests in the national arena, stimulating intergovernmental coordination and helping state officials exercise leadership beyond their state roles.

Each member jurisdiction has seven voting commissioners, generally including the governor, a member of both the state house and senate education committees, and four individuals appointed by the governor. These often include the chief state school officer, a member of the state board of education, and a leader from the higher education community.

The commission chair and chair-elect are always governors from opposite political parties. Traditionally, the vice chair has been a state legislator. The treasurer is selected from among the state education leaders. They are elected for a one-year term by commission members during the annual meeting. The executive director serves as secretary to the commission.

Education Writers Association
P.O. Box 281, Woodstown, NJ 08098
(609) 769-1313
Executive Director: Charles Harrison
Publications: Education Reporter; Directory of Information Sources
1985 national convention—March 21-24, Boston, Massachusetts
1986 national convention—not yet determined

Educational Research Service, Inc.
1800 North Kent Street
Arlington, VA 22209
(703) 243-2100
President: Glen E. Robinson
No conventions held

Educational Research Service, Inc. (ERS) is an independent, nonprofit corporation sponsored by seven national associations of education administrators to serve the nation's school systems.

Founded in 1973, ERS compiles and analyzes data bearing on effective education decision making, and functions as an information clearinghouse both for day-to-day operations and for long-range planning. It is thus a resource for education leaders, school district officials, school administrative teams, and officials of school boards.

The annual fee for ERS is graduated in order to open participation to large and small school districts alike. Districts affiliated with ERS receive such services as the following: on-call information, special school management studies and reports, summaries of ongoing school research, educator status and opinion surveys, access to successful management approaches by other districts, information about school use of computer software, and a computer-generated local school budget analysis prepared for individual districts on request.

Future Business Leaders of America
1908 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091
(703) 860-3334
President and Chief Executive Officer: Edward D. Miller
Publications: Tomorrow’s Business Leader, Hotline
1985 national convention—July 1-8, Houston, Texas

Future Farmers of America
5632 Mount Vernon Memorial Highway, Alexandria, VA 22309
(703) 360-3600
National Executive Secretary: C. Coleman Harris
Publication: National Future Farmer
1985 national convention—November 14-16, Kansas City, Missouri
1986 national convention—November 13-15, Kansas City, Missouri

Future Homemakers of America
1910 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091
(703) 476-4900
Executive Director: Louisa Liddell
Publication: Teen Times
1985 national convention—July 8-11, Phoenix, Arizona
1986 national convention—July 14-17, Orlando, Florida

Institute for Educational Leadership
1001 Connecticut Avenue, NW, Suite 310
The International Reading Association (IRA) has a membership of nearly 60,000 classroom teachers, reading specialists, consultants, administrators, supervisors, college teachers, researchers, psychologists, librarians, and parents in 85 countries.

Officially begun in 1956, IRA seeks to improve the quality of reading instruction through the study of the reading process and teaching techniques, to promote a lifetime habit of reading and an awareness of the impact of reading, and to enhance every reader's proficiency.

More than 1,150 councils and national affiliates in 30 nations form IRA's working foundation, holding regular meetings and conferences; some 40 volunteer committees explore reading-related topics.
ORGANIZATIONS

140 Publication: Young Children
1985 national convention—
November 14-17, New Orleans,
Louisiana
1986 national convention—
November 13-16, Washington, DC

National Association for Women
Deans, Administrators and
Counselors
1325 18th Street, NW, Suite 210
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 659-9330
Executive Director: Patricia Rueckel
Publications: Journal of the
NAWDAC; News Leaflet
1985 national convention—
April 10-13, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
1986 national convention—not yet
determined

National Association of Biology
Teachers
11250 Roger Bacon Drive
Reston, VA 22090
(703) 471-1134
Executive Director: Patricia J.
McWethy
Publication: The American Biology
Teacher
1985 national convention—
October 31-November 3, Orlando,
Florida
1986 national convention—not yet
determined

National Association of Elementary
School Principals
1920 Association Drive, Reston, VA
22091
(703) 620-6100
Executive Director: Samuel G. Sava
Publications: Principal;
Communicator; Here's How;
Streamlined Seminar
1985 national convention—
March 30-April 3, Denver, Colorado
1986 national convention—
April 14-18, Las Vegas, Nevada

Founded in 1921, the National
Association of Elementary School
Principals (NAESP) seeks to
improve the quality of education for
millions of children in the
elementary and middle school
grades.

NAESP's 22,000 members
represent the 50 states, the District
of Columbia, and Puerto Rico, as
well as most Canadian provinces.
NAESP provides liaison with state
associations through a state
representative in each state,
province, or other geographic
region.

NAESP has consistently
promoted two broad objectives:
• To assure that elementary and
middle school children receive
the best possible education and in
the process develop a true love of
learning; and
• To enhance the professional skills
and leadership capabilities of all
elementary and middle school
principals, and to bring about
greater public understanding of
the principal's role and
responsibilities.

Chief among NAESP's
professional development programs
are its national convention, an
annual leaders meeting and sessions
of its National Fellows Program,
conducted in cooperation with the
Walt Disney Epcot Center in
Orlando, Florida and the National
Aeronautics and Space
Administration's Johnson Space
Center in Houston, Texas.

NAESP's governing body, the
delegate assembly, is elected by the
membership and meets annually to
establish goals, objectives, and
policies. The 13 members of the board of directors, each serving a three-year term, include the president, the president-elect, the past president, directors elected in nine zones across the nation, and the executive director in an ex officio capacity.

National Association of Independent Schools
18 Tremont Street, Boston, MA 02108
(617) 723-6900
President: John C. Esty, Jr.
Publications: Independent School; NAIS Newsletter
1985 national convention—February 28-March 2, Washington, D.C.
1986 national convention—March 6-8, Atlanta, Georgia

National Association of Pupil Personnel Administrators
225 North Washington Street, Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 549-9110
Executive Director: Charles M. Wilson
Publication: NAPPA News
1985 national convention—March 22-26, Chicago, Illinois
1986 national convention—March 1-4, San Francisco, California

National Association of Secondary School Principals
1904 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091
(703) 860-0200
Executive Director: Scott B. Thomson
Publications: NewsLeader; NASSP Bulletin; Curriculum Report; Legal Memorandum; Tips for Principals
1985 national convention—January 25-29, New Orleans, Louisiana
1986 national convention—February 14-18, Orlando, Florida

Composed primarily of high school and middle-level administrators, the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) is described as the nation’s largest organization for school administrators. Its 34,000 members also include assistant superintendents, higher education personnel, secondary school specialists, and others involved in high school and middle-level instruction.

Since its inception in 1916, NASSP has focused on new developments and practices in school administration and on improving the skills and performance of its members.

NASSP institutes run for two and a half days and are conducted throughout the country, and the annual convention offers more than 300 scheduled program events.

The NASSP research department conducts major studies of the high school and middle-level principalship, prepares reports, and maintains a reference service.

On the legislative front, NASSP works with the National Association of Elementary School Principals and other education groups to develop education legislation in cooperation with the Congress.

NASSP’s student activities office sponsors the National Association of Student Councils, which includes more than 7,000 student councils and administers the National Honor Society and the National Junior Honor Society, along with the Century III Leaders program, an
annual scholarship-leadership development project.
NASSP's 18-member board of directors, elected by the membership at the annual meeting, is composed of two principals from each of seven regions, two at-large principals—an assistant principal and a middle-level principal—and the president and president-elect. Board members serve four-year terms; the president and president-elect serve one-year terms. The executive director serves in an ex officio capacity.

National Association of State Boards of Education
701 North Fairfax Street, Suite 340
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 684-4000
Executive Director: Phyllis L. Blaunstein
Publications: Education Times; State Board Connection
1985 national convention—October 9-14, Seattle, Washington
1986 national convention—October 9-14, Baltimore, Maryland

The National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE) represents the state and territorial boards of education in 46 states, five territories, and the District of Columbia. NASBE's principal objectives include:
• Strengthening state leadership in educational policymaking;
• Promoting excellence in the education of all students;
• Advocating equality of access to educational opportunity; and
• Assuring continued citizen support for public education.
The association serves 700 individuals, including members of state boards of education, attorneys for state boards, and executive secretaries of state boards.
State boards of education have been created in all but one state. Most boards have authority over vocational education and/or vocational rehabilitation. In ten states, the state board of education is vested additionally with responsibility for postsecondary learning. Elsewhere, separate community college boards or higher education commissions govern those sectors.
About half of the state boards are elected; the remainder are appointed by the governor or state legislature. Board size ranges from three to 24 members, and a typical term of office is from four to six years. Some common areas of state board jurisdiction include curriculum standards, high school graduation standards, professional personnel qualifications, state education statutes and judicial functions, education agency personnel appointments, federal assistance program administration, and school facilities standards.
NASBE is governed by an elected board of directors and an appointed executive committee.

National Business Education Association
1914 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091
(703) 860-8300
Executive Director: O. J. Byrns, Jr.
Publications: Business Education Forum; Yearbook Issue
1985 national convention—April 3-6, Las Vegas, Nevada
1986 national convention—March 26-29, Hollywood, Florida
Now 5,414,000 members strong, the National Congress of Parents and Teachers has focused on being an innovator and persuasive champion of reforms to improve the health, education, and welfare of the nation's youth.

Founded in 1897 as the National Congress of Mothers, the nonprofit, nonpartisan coalition later broadened its membership to include teachers, fathers, and other concerned citizens. In 1924, the name was changed to National Congress of Parents and Teachers—National PTA for short. In 1970, it united with the National Congress of Colored Parents and Teachers, founded in 1926.

From its inception, the National PTA has emphasized innovation. In its founding year, it called for compulsory education, including kindergarten, for all children. That year it also advocated child health and nutrition programs, later starting its own school lunch program for millions of children. In 1899, it proposed a national public health service and a juvenile justice system. In 1903, it endorsed education for handicapped, gifted, and other children with special learning needs. Nearly 60 years before the actual event in 1980, the PTA proposed a Cabinet-level U.S. Department of Education.

Beginning in 1932, the National PTA arranged physical examinations for millions of preschool children in its annual Summer Round-Up. In the 1950s, it supported trial tests of
the Salk polio vaccine and subsequently vigorously supported that program, virtually eliminating the disease that crippled generations of children. In 1977, it compiled data to show that excessive violence in TV programming has a marked effect on children.

The National PTA has been responsible for enactment of hundreds of child welfare laws, its scholarship fund has enabled numerous students to enter the teaching profession, and it has supported hundreds of child-care centers for children of working mothers.

The organization continues to speak out on issues of concern to children and to develop programs meeting the changing needs of America's youth.

Today the National PTA has affiliate congresses in 50 states and the District of Columbia. There are 25,000 local units. A single chapter in Europe serves dependent children in U.S. military schools.

The governing body of the association is composed of 15 national officers, elected by the delegate assembly during the annual convention. They include the president, first vice-president, secretary, treasurer, three vice presidents, and eight regional vice presidents. All officers serve a two-year term on a staggered basis.

National Council for the Social Studies
3501 Newark Street, NW
Washington, DC 20016
(202) 966-7840
Executive Director: Frances Haley
Publications: Social Education; The Social Studies Professional

National Education Association
1201 16th Street, NW, Washington, DC 20036
(202) 833-4000
Executive Director: Donald Cameron
Publications: Today's Education; NEA Today; NEA NOW

1985 national convention—
November 22-26, Chicago, Illinois
1986 national convention—
November 13-17, New York, New York

National Council of Teachers of English
1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, IL 61801
(217) 328-3870
Executive Director: John C. Maxwell
Publications: Language Arts; English Journal; College English
1985 national convention—
November 22-27, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
1986 national convention—
November 21-26, San Antonio, Texas

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics
1906 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091
(703) 620-9840
Executive Director: James D. Gates
Publications: Mathematics Teacher; Arithmetic Teacher
1985 national convention—
April 17-20, San Antonio, Texas
1986 national convention—
April 2-5, Washington, D.C.
(NEA), founded in 1857, identifies itself as the largest professional organization in the nation. Its membership stands at about 1.7 million, with most members being either elementary or secondary teachers. NEA’s membership also includes some 58,000 higher education faculty and about 57,000 education support employees. Among all employee organizations in America, NEA ranks second in size only to the two million-member Teamsters union.

Frequently in cooperation with other groups, NEA seeks to achieve fair-share funding of education from the federal government, self-governance in licensing and certification of teachers, and the guarantee of human and civil rights for all educators and children.

Affiliated with the NEA are 50 state-level associations, the Overseas Education Association, and associations in Puerto Rico and the District of Columbia. There are about 12,000 local affiliates of the NEA, of which some 8,900 negotiate collective bargaining contracts; NEA affiliates on approximately 350 higher education campuses also are recognized for collective bargaining.

Basic NEA policies are determined by delegates to the association’s annual representative assembly and by the approximately 125 members of NEA’s board of directors, who meet at least five times a year to determine general policies.

A nine-member NEA executive committee acts on association general policies and professional interests between board meetings. Its membership includes the NEA president, vice-president, secretary-treasurer, and six members elected by the representative assembly. NEA’s president, Mary Hatwood Futrell, is the highest ranking black and the highest ranking woman in the United States labor movement.

National Middle School Association
P.O. Box 14882, Columbus, OH 43214
(614) 263-5407
Executive Director: Hal D. Gaddis
Publication: Middle School Journal
1985 national convention—October 31- November 2, Baltimore, Maryland
1986 national convention—October 23-25, Atlanta, Georgia

National School Boards Association
1680 Duke Street
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 838-6722
Executive Director: Thomas Shannon
Publications: American School Board Journal; Executive Educator; School Board News; Updating; Leadership Reports
1985 national convention—March 30-April 2, Anaheim, California
1986 national convention—April 5-8, Las Vegas, Nevada

The National School Boards Association, headquartered in Alexandria, Virginia, is a not for-profit federation of the 49 state associations of local school boards and the Hawaii State Board of Education, plus the boards of education in the District of Columbia and the U.S. Virgin Islands. As such, it represents the 95,000 local school board members who set policy for the nation’s
Organizations

15,000-plus public school districts. NSBA's primary mission is to promote the advancement of public education through the American tradition of local citizen control and accountability. To this end, NSBA makes education and training programs available to school board members; provides school district management services; represents the interests of school boards before Congress and federal agencies and in court cases relating to public education; serves as liaison with other education organizations and government authorities; and offers a variety of other services.

Policies are determined by a 150 member delegate assembly, composed of active school board members, which meets once a year at the annual convention. Responsible for carrying out those policies is a 20-member board of directors elected by the delegate assembly. The board of directors consists of the five officers, each elected for a one-year term, and 15 directors, three from each of NSBA's five regions and elected to staggered three-year terms. NSBA's executive director is, ex officio, a member of the board.

Five major components within NSBA are the Council of Urban Boards of Education, the Council of School Attorneys, the Conference of School Board Negotiators, the Large District Forum, and the Forum of Federal Program Coordinators.

NSBA was founded in 1940 in Chicago and later moved first to suburban Evanston, Illinois, and then in 1976 to Washington, D.C. NSBA moved into newly structured offices in Alexandria, Virginia, during the summer of 1984.

National School Public Relations Association
1801 North Moore Street,
Arlington, VA 22209
(703) 528-5840
Executive Director: John H. Wherry
Publications: Education USA; It Starts in the Classroom; Scanner; Paragraphs; NSPRA Impact
1985 national convention—July 8-11, Vail, Colorado
1986 national convention—July 7-10, Boston, Massachusetts

The National School Public Relations Association (NSPRA) seeks to create greater citizen understanding of the objectives, accomplishments, and needs of the nation's schools.

Formed in 1935, its 1,500 membership includes not only school public relations counselors but superintendents, principals, school board members, and others with professional concern for school-community relations.

NSPRA's basic function is to train educators and education leaders to be more effective in their communications with parents, students, government officials, civic leaders, and the community at large.

Toward this end NSPRA conducts inservice training workshops and other meetings, including annual public relations seminars. Its publications program covers a wide range of subjects bearing on effective school relationships. In 1981 NSPRA inaugurated a twice-daily news service called Ed-Line, a computer-based network that provides up-to-the-minute education news and a method by which subscribers can exchange
information.
In addition to the national organization there are 42 semiautonomous chapters in states across the U.S., plus members in Canada and other nations.
National officers of NSPRA are the president and president-elect, each chosen for one-year terms; a vice-president at large appointed by the executive board to serve a three-year term; and the executive director.

National School Volunteer Program
701 North Fairfax Street, Suite 320
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 836-4880
Executive Director: Daniel Merenda
Publication: The Volunteer in Education
1985 national convention—not yet determined
1986 national convention—not yet determined

National Science Teachers Association
1742 Connecticut Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20009
(202) 328-5800
Executive Director: Bill G. Aldridge
Publications: Science and Children; Science Teacher; Journal of College Science Teaching
1985 national convention—April 18-21, Cincinnati, Ohio
1986 national convention—March 26-29, San Francisco, California

Phi Delta Kappa
Eighth and Union Streets
Box 789
Bloomington, IN 47402
(812) 339-1156
Executive Secretary: Lowell C. Rose
Publications: Phi Delta Kappan; News Notes and Quotes; Practical Applications of Research (PAR)
1985 national convention—October 30-November 3, Toronto, Canada
1986 national convention—no convention planned

Phi Delta Kappa is an international professional fraternity for men and women in education, organized in 1906, with a current membership of about 125,000. Members include classroom teachers, school administrators, college and university professors, and educational specialists of many types.
As stated in its constitution, "The purpose of Phi Delta Kappa shall be to promote quality education, with particular emphasis on publicly supported education, as essential to the development and maintenance of a democratic way of life."
There are currently over 590 Phi Delta Kappa chapters throughout the United States and Canada, including Puerto Rico, the Isthmus of Panama, and Guam, and international chapters in the United Kingdom, West Germany, Korea, Belgium, Italy, Thailand, Okinawa, Australia, and the Philippines. Approximately half the chapters are based on college or university campuses with graduate departments of education. The other half are community based.
Membership is by chapter invitation. Invitations may be extended to men and women who meet requirements set forth in the constitution of Phi Delta Kappa. The local chapter may specify additional requirements as long as they are not contrary to the constitution.
Through its Center on Evaluation, Development and Research (CEDR), Phi Delta Kappa supports a research program focused on dissemination of research information and improving understanding of the processes of research and evaluation.

In its governance, Phi Delta Kappa is divided into seven geographic districts. Each district is under the leadership of a district representative elected by the chapters served.

In the odd year of each biennium a legislative body composed of delegates from each chapter of the fraternity, plus the fraternity officers, meets as a biennial council. This council determines the policies, program, and budget of the fraternity and elects the fraternity officers.

The board of directors, composed of the president, president-elect, immediate past president, three vice presidents, and the seven district representatives, carries out the policies of the biennial council and implements the program adopted. The board delegates to the professional staff the administration of the fraternity's fiscal affairs, its program, and the management of the international headquarters office.
Recent Court Rulings Affecting the Schools

Church and State

**McLean v. Arkansas Board of Education**
U.S. District Court, Eastern Arkansas
January 5, 1982

The court determined that an Arkansas statute ordering public schools to "give balanced treatment to creation-science and evolution-science" violates the First Amendment's establishment clause.

**Pratt v. Independent School District**
No. 831, Forest Lake, Minnesota
Eighth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
January 13, 1982

The court ruled as a First Amendment violation the school board's removal from high school (on religious and moral grounds) of a film version of Shirley Jackson's short story, "The Lottery," in which a small town randomly chooses one person a year to be stoned to death.

**Abramson v. Anderson**
U.S. District Court, Southern Iowa
January 20, 1982

When a high school principal approved prayers at Christmas and Easter student assemblies, a teacher sued for damages to compensate for emotional distress allegedly caused by attendance at the assemblies. The court awarded $300, holding that the principal had violated the First Amendment's establishment clause.

**Fink v. Board of Education of Warren County School District**
Pennsylvania Supreme Court
September, 1982

The court held that a fourth-grade teacher was properly fired after he...
refused to stop delivering extemporaneous prayers and reading Bible stories in class. The right to freedom of religion does not encompass the right to conduct religious activities in the classroom.

Beck v. Alexander
U.S. District Court for the District of Tennessee
October 7, 1982

The court struck down a new state law that required public schools to set aside a minute of silence for "meditation or prayer or personal beliefs." In making its determination, the judge consulted records of the legislative discussions and concluded that the intent of the law was to establish daily prayer in schools.

Pinsky v. Joint Dist. No. 28J of Adams and Arapahoe Counties
U.S. District Court for the District of Colorado
January 12, 1983

The court held that a school's failure to allow a teacher paid leave days to observe Jewish holidays does not constitute an impermissible interference with the right to free exercise of religion. The fact that school vacations are built around Christian holidays was not considered relevant by the court. The court ruled that the plaintiff is free to take unpaid leave days to observe his religion, and detriment to him is outweighed by the importance of continuity of teachers in educating students.

Duffy on behalf of Duffy v. Las Cruces Public Schools
U.S. District Court for the District of New Mexico

February 10 1983

The court struck down a statute authorizing public schools to conduct a moment of silence daily. The court held that the statute had a religious purpose, violated the First Amendment prohibition of entanglement between church and state, and unconstitutionally advanced religion in the public schools.

Jaffree v. Board of School Commissioners of Mobile County
U.S. Supreme Court
Stay granted, February 11, 1983

Supreme Court Justice Lewis F. Powell has ordered a ban on prayer in Alabama public schools by staying a decision of a district court judge who held that the First Amendment's prohibition against government establishment of religion does not apply to state government. The ban will continue, pending the outcome of a circuit court of appeals review of an agnostic parent's challenge of state laws allowing a moment of silence for meditation or prayer and permitting teachers to lead prayers in public schools.

County Hills Christian Church v. Unified School District No. 512, Johnson County
U.S. District Court for the District of Kansas
March 29, 1983

The court held that a public school that had allowed other community groups to use school facilities during nonschool hours could not deny these facilities to a church group because of the religious content of the church's activities.
The school had become a “public forum,” the use of which could not be denied on the basis of religion.

**Mueller v. Allen**  
U.S. Supreme Court  
June 29, 1983  
The court upheld a Minnesota law that offers tax deductions for private school costs. Since the law also allows parents of public school pupils a tax deduction for tuition, textbooks, and transportation costs, the court held that the law neutrally provides state assistance and is not invalid because its effect benefits religious schools (95 percent of Minnesota's private school children attend parochial schools).

**Fannin v. Williams**  
Kentucky Supreme Court  
July 6, 1983  
The court ruled that a Kentucky law that allows the state to lend textbooks, purchased with funds approved by the general assembly, to sectarian schools violates the state constitution's prohibition against the use of tax funds for nonpublic schools.

**Americans United for Separation of Church and State v. Grand Rapids School District**  
Sixth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals  
September 23, 1983  
The use of public funds and publicly paid teachers to conduct courses for nonpublic school children in space leased from private schools was found to be in violation of the First Amendment's religious establishment clause. The court held that the school district's "Shared-time Program" did not serve equally students in all public and private schools.

**Aguilard v. Treen**  
Louisiana Supreme Court  
October 17, 1983  
The Louisiana legislation that requires public schools to provide equal treatment in teaching "creation science" and evolution was validated by the state supreme court.

**May v. Cooperman**  
U.S. District Court for the District of New Jersey  
October 24, 1983  
The court struck down a state law that authorized public schools to set aside a moment of silence for "quiet and private contemplation or introspection." In making this decision, the judge consulted the legislative history of the statute and determined that the intent of the law was to reinstate daily prayer in schools.

**Bender v. Williamsport Area School District**  
Third U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals  
July 24, 1984  
The court upheld a school district's decision to prohibit students from participating in a prayer period during school time on the grounds that such an activity would be a violation of the First Amendment's (religious) establishment clause.

**Desegregation**

**Morgan v. O'Bryant**  
First U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals  
Cert. den.* United States Supreme Court  
October 4, 1982
The court held that black teachers and administrators are entitled to job-retention preference in school layoffs as provided by federal court orders. By declining to review this decision, the Supreme Court allowed the appeals court ruling to stand.

*Cert. de*, is an abbreviation for *certiorari denied*, which means that the Supreme Court, perhaps because of the large number of cases before the Court or perhaps because it is not ready to hear a case on the particular issue involved—declines to review a decision of a lower court.

**Washington v. Seattle School District No. 1**
U.S. Supreme Court
June 30, 1982

The Court struck down a Washington voter initiative to prevent students from being bused to schools other than those closest to home, except to deal with non-racially related situations. The initiative had been a voter response to a mandatory busing program. The Court ruled that the initiative violated the Fourteenth Amendment's equal protection clause by making race an issue in government decision making.

**Crawford v. Los Angeles Board of Education**
U.S. Supreme Court
June 30, 1982

The Court held constitutional an amendment to the California constitution denying school districts the right to order mandatory pupil assignment or busing to achieve racial balance, unless so ordered by a federal court. Justice Powell said, "This Court's decision will not support the contention that once a state chooses to do 'more' than the Fourteenth Amendment requires, it may never recede... The State Constitution still places upon school boards a greater duty to desegregate than does the Fourteenth Amendment."

**Liddell v. Board of Education**
U.S. District Court for the Eastern District of Missouri
February, 1983

In an unusual turn of events, a major metropolitan desegregation case was settled with the court's approval. In suburban St. Louis, 22 school districts agreed to desegregate voluntarily in return for the promise by the city's schools and the NAACP to halt court action.

**Arthur v. Nyquist**
Second U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
July 22, 1983

In 1979, the Buffalo (N.Y.) school system was ordered to desegregate its teaching staff to more clearly reflect the racial composition of the community. This was to be achieved by hiring one new minority teacher for each majority teacher hired and reducing the staff, when necessary, by the same ratio. The court ruled that since this method had as its intent the achievement of a more racially balanced staff, it was legal even when it violated seniority rights, as in the case of staff reduction. However, it further ruled that rehiring teachers caught in a staff reduction should be according to length of service.
Discrimination

North Haven Board of Education v. Bell
U.S. Supreme Court
May 17, 1982

Title IX, Education Amendments of 1972, prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in schools and colleges receiving federal aid. The Court ruled that Title IX provides antidiscrimination protection to women as employees as well as students.

Bob Jones University v. United States
U.S. Supreme Court
May 24, 1983

Nonprofit private schools that observe racially discriminatory admission standards based on religious beliefs are not exempt from taxation. Also, contributions to these schools are not deductible to the donor as charitable contributions.

Civil Rights Division v Amphitheater School District
Arizona Court of Appeals
December 9, 1983

The court ruled that a school district that advertised combined academic and athletic positions, for which only men could qualify, discriminated against women and violated the Arizona Civil Rights Act.

National Gay Task Force v. Board of Education
Tenth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
March 14, 1984

The court upheld an Oklahoma statute that allowed public schools to fire teachers who practiced homosexual activities in public. However, the court ruled that dismissal of teachers for public expression of support for the rights of homosexuals, as forbidden in the law, would constitute a violation of their freedom of speech.

Education for the Handicapped

Hudson Central School District Board of Education v. Rowley
U.S. Supreme Court
June 18, 1982

The Court ruled that the Education for All Handicapped Children Act does not require states to maximize the learning potential of handicapped children to the degree afforded nonhandicapped children, so long as an individual learning program and support services are offered. A request was denied for a school-provided sign language interpreter in the case of a deaf student who was performing better than the average children in her class.

Kaelin v. Grubbs
Sixth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
July 9, 1982

The Court held that before a handicapped student can be expelled, a hearing before a specialized panel must be conducted to determine whether or not the student's infraction was related to the handicap. The court considered expulsion to be tantamount to a change in the student's education placement; federal law requires review of all such changes.
Parks v. Parkovic
U.S. District Court for the Northern District of Illinois
February 28, 1983
The court struck down a state law that assessed parents of handicapped children for a portion of the cost of the services provided by the school system. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act establishes the school system's duty to provide a free appropriate public education.

Yaris v. Special School District
U.S. District Court for the Eastern District of Missouri
March 2, 1983
The court invalidated a Missouri law that limited state funds for special education to a 180-day year. The effect of the law was to put the financial burden for summer special education programs on local school districts, with the result that such programs were not being provided. The court held that this policy denied each child the right to an individually structured education (including summer session, if necessary), which is mandated by the Education for All Handicapped Children Act and the 1973 Rehabilitation Act.

Tatro v. State of Texas
Fifth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
April 25, 1983
The public school was ordered to provide clean intermittent catheterization as a related service to a student with spina bifida under the Education for All Handicapped Children Act.

Washington County v. Grace
Eighth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
Cert. den. * U.S. Supreme Court
May 16, 1983
The Supreme Court—by declining to review this decision—allowed to stand an appeals court ruling that interprets the Education for All Handicapped Children Act to mean that the child must receive an “appropriate” as distinct from the “best possible” education.

Marvin H. v. Austin Independent School District
Fifth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
August 22, 1983
Parents are not entitled to reimbursement of money spent on private school education of handicapped children in cases where public school districts make every effort to provide “free appropriate education” and follow prescribed procedures in evaluating the child’s educational needs as mandated by the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. The parents had made a unilateral decision to place an emotionally disturbed child in a private school and subsequently sued for private school expenses and damages.

Quackenbush v. Johnson City School District
Second U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
August 24, 1983
The court held that the parents of a handicapped child were entitled to damages and redress of action when school officials failed to provide a suitable educational program. In

*See footnote under Desegregation.
this case, fraudulent behavior by school personnel denied the parents access to the administrative appeal procedure.

**Georgia Association of Retarded Citizens v. MacDaniel**  
Eleventh U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals  
October 17, 1983

The court struck down Georgia's resolute adherence to a 180-day school year for mentally retarded children. It maintained that this practice denied these children the right to individually structured education and service (year-round, if necessary) as mandated by the Education for All Handicapped Children Act.

**Hawaii Department of Education v. Katherine**  
Ninth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals  
November 7, 1983

The court struck down Hawaii's challenge of a district court's decision that ordered the state to pay private school expenses incurred by parents of a handicapped child denied access to regular classes in spite of a proven ability to operate in such an atmosphere.

**Doe v. Brookline School Committee**  
Fifth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals  
December 6, 1983

Parents, in disagreement with school officials about the educational placement of their handicapped child, enrolled the child in a private school. They sought financial assistance with private school expenses until the resolution of the case. The court ruled that a “preliminary injunction proceeding” would be the fairest way to secure a balanced presentation for each side and deter vacillation by either party. In making this decision, the court struck down a previous ruling that placed the burden of payment on the party formerly responsible for payment.

**Larry P. v. Riles**  
Ninth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals  
January 23, 1984

In this case involving black elementary students, the court ruled that California's use of "standard intelligence tests" to place children in special classes for the mentally handicapped was discriminatory. It found that the tests did not allow for racial and cultural differences and resulted in an unequal proportion of black compared with white children being placed in these classes. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act and the Rehabilitation Act contain provisions that stress the use of a variety of tests for the determination of placement. The court reaffirmed a previous district court decision that held that the state was in violation of these two acts as well as Title VI of the Civil Rights Act.

**Scokin v. Texas**  
Fifth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals  
January 27, 1984

Under the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, parents may seek judicial redress when in disagreement with school officials concerning the educational program offered their handicapped child. The act, however, does not
specify a definite time period during which such action can be initiated. The court examined practices in other states where similar cases were reviewed and decided that the two-year period used by Texas in tort claims was the most equitable time limitation for both parents and school officials.

Smith v. Robinson
U.S. Supreme Court
July 5, 1984

The parents of a handicapped child, asserting that their child's education was terminated without proper notification, filed action against the school and state on grounds that their child had been discriminatingly denied a suitable education. They sought damages in the form of attorney's fees for the ensuing administrative and judicial process. The Supreme Court struck down this request on the basis that this suit was initiated to obtain an appropriate educational placement for a handicapped child. The recovery of attorney's fees are not provided for in the Education for All Handicapped Children Act.

Irving Independent School District v. Henri Tatro
U.S. Supreme Court
July 5, 1984

The Supreme Court upheld a court of appeals decision that ordered the public school to provide intermittent catheterization as a related service to a student with spina bifida under the Education for All Handicapped Children Act.

Illegal Aliens

Tyler Independent School District, v. Doe
U.S. Supreme Court
June 22, 1982

A Texas statute authorized local school districts to deny enrollment to children not legally admitted to the United States and to withhold state funds for their education. The Court held that the statute violated the rights of these children under the Fourteenth Amendment's equal protection clause.

Public/Private Distinction

Rendall-Baker v. Kohn
U.S. Supreme Court
June 25, 1982

The Court held that a private school that is run primarily with public funds (i.e., one that contracts to accept students placed by public school districts or public agencies) is not acting "under color of state law" for the purposes of a civil rights lawsuit brought by teachers who claimed they had been terminated for exercising their constitutional rights to free speech.

Williams v. Milonas
Tenth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
September 13, 1982
Cert. den. *U.S. Supreme Court
April 4, 1983

The Supreme Court—by declining to review this decision—let stand an appeals court decision that held that a private school can be sued for civil rights violations by its students if the school contracts to accept students placed by public school districts, courts, or other state agencies. By so doing, the private

*See footnote under Desegregation.
school links itself to government, and its actions are subject to suit under the Civil Rights Act because these actions are taken "under color of state law." The appeals court held that mail censorship, polygraph examinations, and certain disciplinary practices violated the students' constitutional rights. The Court distinguished this case from the Rendall-Baker case because the plaintiffs in Williams v. Milonas were not employees but students, some of whom were involuntarily placed in the school by state officials who were aware of these disciplinary practices.

Griggs v. Commonwealth
Virginia Supreme Court
December 3, 1982

The court held that parents may not circumvent a state law regulating home education by declaring the home school a "private school" attended by their children only. The parents in this case did not meet the qualifications to be home tutors and had tried to educate their own children in their "private school," since private school teachers do not have to meet Virginia state certification requirements.

Repayment of Federal Funds

New Jersey v. Hufstedler
Third U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
December 27, 1983

The court ruled that the repayment provision added to the 1978 Education Amendments could be retroactively applied to recover Title I funds awarded to ineligible school districts in prior years. This ruling may result in New Jersey returning to the U.S. Department of Education funds that were “misspent or misused” prior to 1978 under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

Sex Education

Smith v. Ricci
New Jersey Supreme Court
U.S. Supreme Court
Appeal dismissed, 1983

A New Jersey regulation requiring schools to teach "family life education" with emphasis on human sexuality does not violate the First Amendment, the Court ruled. The regulation allows students to be excused if the course conflicts with fundamental beliefs.

Student Rights

Rutz v. Essex Junction Prudential Committee
Vermont Supreme Court
January 27, 1983

A student's due process rights were not violated by school officials' failure to provide him with the written reasons for his expulsion. Written notice was not necessary in this case because the student was well aware of the charges.

Karnstein v. Pewaukee School Board
U.S. District Court for the Eastern District of Wisconsin
February 28, 1983

A high school student who had not been selected for membership in the National Honor Society sued the school system. The court held that the "need" for an honor is not a right or entitlement protected by the due process clause. (The due process clause guarantees that
individuals will receive notice and have an opportunity to be heard before they can be deprived of a constitutional right.)

Connolly v. Bromery
Massachusetts Appeals Court
April 14, 1983

Students at a state university are not entitled to see student performance evaluations of faculty members. The court considered these evaluations to be personnel records, which are not subject to disclosure as "public records."

Horton v. Goose Creek Independent School District
Fifth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
Cert. den. *U.S. Supreme Court
June 27, 1983

The court found that a school district has a right to use trained dogs to sniff student lockers and cars for drugs and alcohol, holding that such a procedure does not violate the Fourteenth Amendment's search and seizure protections. If there is reasonable suspicion, dogs may be used to search individual students. The Supreme Court—by declining to review this decision—allowed the appeals court ruling to stand.

Selective Service System et al., Applicants v. John Doe et al.
U.S. Supreme Court
Stay granted, June 29, 1983

The court agreed to reinstate temporarily a federal law that denies federal education grants and loans to students who fail to register for the draft. A United States district court judge had ruled that the law was unconstitutional, but the Court's stay of that ruling guarantees that the law will remain in effect until the full Court has rendered a decision in the case.

New Jersey v. T.L.O.
New Jersey Supreme Court
August 8, 1983

The court ruled that school officials may search students without a warrant only if there is some reason to believe the students carry proof of participation in illegal activity that could prevent the school administration from maintaining a learning atmosphere free from disorderly behavior. In this case, a search based on undocumented reports was deemed a violation of students' Fourth Amendment right to privacy.

Student Vandalism
Piscataway Township Board of Education v. Caffiero
New Jersey Supreme Court
U.S. Supreme Court
Appeal dismissed, 1982

The Court upheld a New Jersey statute making parents liable for damage to public school property that was willfully and maliciously inflicted by children enrolled in the public school system.

Tort Liability (State law only)
Gurule v. Salt Lake City Board of Education
Utah Supreme Court
March 23, 1983

The school board was held to the same standard of care as a private property owner in a negligence suit for failure to clear an icy school sidewalk.
Berman v. Philadelphia Board of Education
Pennsylvania Superior Court
February 4, 1983

The school board was held liable for a student's injuries sustained in an after-school hockey game in the elementary school gym because the school had not provided the protective equipment necessary to prevent the injury.

Carson v. Orleans Parish School Board
Louisiana Court of Appeals
May 16, 1983

A school is liable for a student's injury that occurred in the school restroom because there was no supervision in that area.

Nodar v. Galbreath
Florida Appeals Court
March 9, 1983

The parents of a student were held liable for damages to a teacher for slanderous statements they made about him to the school board. While the parents had a privilege to comment on the teacher's competency, they were not protected in their statements, which were malicious and untrue.

Miscellaneous

Board of Education, Island Trees Union Free School District v. Pico
U.S. Supreme Court
June 25, 1982

The Court held that the school board's removal of certain books from the school library shelves was unconstitutional if the intent of the removal was to deprive students of ideas with which board members personally disagreed. The case was remanded to the district court for a factual determination of the board's motive.

Martinez v. Bynum
U.S. Supreme Court
May 2, 1983

The Court held that a school system could properly deny tuition-free status to a student who was living apart from his parent or guardian in order to live in a particular school district.

Shaffer v. Board of School Directors
Third U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals
U.S. Supreme Court
Stay denied, November 24, 1982

Supreme Court Justice William J. Brennan refused to issue a stay of a court of appeals ruling that allows a school district to eliminate bus services for kindergarten children in order to save money. The plaintiffs had argued that the cutback discriminated against poor children who were unable to attend kindergarten because they had no alternative means of transportation. The appeals court based its ruling on the fact that the offering of kindergarten programs in Pennsylvania is at the discretion of individual school boards, and is not mandatory.

Roemhild v. State
Georgia Supreme Court
October 25, 1983

The high court nullified Georgia's compulsory school attendance law that required all children between the ages of seven and sixteen to be enrolled in public or private
schools. The decision was based on the failure of the statute to adequately define private schools or the requirements necessary to so qualify. The Wisconsin Supreme Court reached the same decision concerning that state's compulsory attendance law which was similar to Georgia's.

*Hartzell v. Connell*
California Supreme Court

April 20, 1984

The court ruled that schools may not charge fees for student participation in extracurricular activities. This practice constitutes a violation of free education guaranteed in the California Constitution as well as the California Administrative Code, which contains a prohibition against school fees.
For additional periodicals related to education, see publications listed under the names of their sponsoring organizations, in the section entitled "Major National Education Organizations," page 128.

United States

American Education
U.S. Department of Education
400 Maryland Avenue, SW, Room 2089
Washington, DC 20202
(202) 245-8907
Articles on education issues and the Administration's position on them, successful school and college projects, and research reports.
Editor, Beverley Blondell
Ten issues a year. $20.

American Educational Research Association
1230 17th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 223-9485
Original reports on theoretical studies in education.
Editors, Gene V Glass, Mary Lee Smith, Lorrie Shepard
Quarterly. Subscription included with membership. Nonmember subscription $17.

American Educator
American Federation of Teachers
555 New Jersey Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20001
(202) 879-4420
Devotes each issue to a particular theme in education.
Editor, Liz McPike
Quarterly. Subscription included with AFT membership. Nonmember subscription $2.50.
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Publisher</th>
<th>Address</th>
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<tr>
<td>Arbitration in the Schools</td>
<td>American Arbitration Association</td>
<td>140 W. 51st Street, New York, NY 10020</td>
<td>(212) 484-4013</td>
<td>Summary of selected labor arbitration awards at all levels of education, public and private. Editor, Margaret S. Leibowitz. Monthly. Yearly subscription $75.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts &amp; Activities</td>
<td>Publishers Development Corp.</td>
<td>591 Camino de la Reina, Suite 200, San Diego, CA 92108</td>
<td>(619) 297-5352</td>
<td>Articles to help teachers at all grade levels prepare classroom art projects. Editor, Leven C. Leatherbury. Ten issues a year. $15.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Career World</td>
<td>Curriculum Innovations, Inc.</td>
<td>3500 Western Avenue, Highland Park, IL 60035</td>
<td>(312) 432-2700</td>
<td>A guide to careers for students in grades 6-12; includes occupational information, stories, and games related to careers. Editor, Bonnie Bekken. Nine issues a year. $4.95.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Childhood Education</td>
<td>Association for Childhood. Education International</td>
<td>11141 Georgia Avenue, Suite 200, Wheaton, MD 20902</td>
<td>(301) 942-2443</td>
<td>Articles on child development, classroom practices, issues in educational research, and reviews of educational policies. Editor, Margaret S. Leibowitz. Monthly. Yearly subscription $75.</td>
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books and films.
Editor, Lucy Prete Martin
Five issues a year. Subscription only with ACEI membership. Single issues $6.50.

**Communicator**
National Association of Elementary School Principals
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091
(703) 620-6100
Reports national issues and trends significant to elementary and middle school principals, and association news and activities.
Editor, June Cook
Ten issues a year. Subscription included with NAESP membership. Single copy $1.50.

**Daedalus**
American Academy of Arts and Sciences
Norton's Woods
136 Irving Street
Cambridge, MA 02138
(617) 491-2600
Explores ideas of topical and enduring significance, education issues among them.
Editor, Stephen R. Graubard
Quarterly. Subscription rate: $16, one year; $24, two years; $32, three years. Single copy $5.

**Education Daily**
Capitol Publications, Inc.
1300 N. 17th Street
Arlington, VA 22209
(703) 528-1100
Daily wrap-up of new and pending federal legislation related to education, and changes in executive branch policy and regulations.
Editor, Cindy Carter
Yearly subscription $399.

**Education USA**
National School Public Relations Association
1801 N. Moore Street
Arlington, VA 22209
(703) 528-5840
Provides newsletter coverage of significant events in education, federal legislation and policy changes, and curriculum trends.
Editor, Anne C. Lewis
Weekly. Subscription included with NSPRA membership. Nonmember subscription $75.

**Education Week**
1255 23rd Street, NW, Suite 775
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 466-5190
Articles and essays cover pre-college education nationally, including new developments, trends, and major issues.
Editor, Ronald A. Wolk

**Educational Leadership**
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
225 N. Washington Street
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 549-9110
Articles on supervision, curriculum, and other education subjects.
Editor, Ronald Brandt
Eight issues a year. Subscription included with ASCD membership. Nonmember subscription $18.

**Educational Researcher**
American Educational Research Association
1230 17th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 233-9485
Scholarly articles of interest to education researchers.
Editor, William Russell
Ten issues a year. Subscription included with AERA membership.
Nonmember subscription $15.

**Educational Technology**
Educational Technology Publications
720 Palisade Avenue
Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632
(201) 871-4007
Articles related to technological applications in education, geared to school administrators at K-12 and higher education levels.
Editor, Lawrence Lipsitz
Monthly. Yearly subscription $49.

**Electronic Learning**
Scholastic Inc.
730 Broadway
New York, NY 10003
(212) 505-3000
Offers practical information and buyer guidelines designed to help educators learn to use technology (particularly microcomputers) in the classroom and school office.
Editor, Jack L. Roberts

**Elementary School Guidance & Counseling**
American School Counselor Association
(Division of American Association for Counseling and Development)
5999 Stevenson Avenue
Alexandria, VA 22304
(703) 823-9800
Articles of interest to elementary school guidance and counseling specialists.
Editor, Joseph C. Rotter
Quarterly. Subscription included with ASCA membership.
Nonmember subscription $20.

**ERS Bulletin**
Educational Research Service
1800 N. Kent Street, Suite 1020
Arlington, VA 22209
(703) 243-2100
Summary of available research studies, data, and other information on school management and education.
Editor, Deborah Gough
Ten issues a year. Yearly subscription $50.

**Exceptional Children**
Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091
(703) 620-3660
Research on current issues in special education and trends in administration and classroom management of handicapped children.
Editor, June B. Jordan
Eight issues a year. Subscription included with CEC membership.
Nonmember subscription $25.

**Executive Educator**
National School Boards Association
1680 Duke Street
Alexandria, VA 22314
(703) 838-6722
Career development information for school administrators.
Editor, Greg W. Downey

**Instructional Innovator**
Association for Educational Communications & Technology
1126 16th Street, NW
Washington, DC 20036
(202) 466-4780
Focuses on the use of technology to improve communications skills and enhance learning abilities.
Editor, Michele J. Brace
Eight issues a year. Subscription included with AECT membership. Nonmember subscription $24.

**Instructor**
Instructor Publications, Inc.
545 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10017
(212) 503-2888
Offers practical information to elementary school teachers to improve their teaching techniques and managerial skills; includes "how-to" materials.
Editor, Leanna Landsmann
Nir 2 issues a year. Yearly subscription $20.

**Journal of Educational Communication**
Educational Communications Center
P.O. Box 657
Camp Hill, PA 17011
(717) 761-6620
How-to journal for school PR specialists, educators, and board members interested in building public confidence in education and improving internal relations.
Editor-in-Chief, Albert E. Holliday

**Mathematics Teacher**
National Council of Teachers of Mathematics
1906 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091
(703) 620-9840
Devoted to improving mathematics instruction in junior and senior high schools, two-year colleges, and teacher education colleges; regularly features use of computers in math instruction and software review.
Editor, Harry B. Tunis
Nine issues a year. Subscription included with NCTM membership. Single copy $3.50.

**Middle School Journal**
National Middle School Association
P.O. Box 14882
Columbus, OH 43214
(614) 263-5407
Effective administrative practices at the middle school level.
Editor, John H. Lounsbury
Quarterly. Subscription included with NMSA membership. Nonmember subscription $15.

**Momentum**
National Catholic Educational Association
1077 30th St., NW
Washington, DC 20007
(202) 293-5954
Features articles on innovative programs, educational research, and studies in many areas of interest to Catholic educators.
Editor, Patricia Felstriter

**Music Educators Journal**
Music Educators National Conference
1902 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091
(703) 860-4000
Covers all aspects of music education from the elementary school level through college.
Editor, Rebecca Gries Taylor
Nine issues a year. Subscription included with MENC membership. Nonmember subscription $12.
<table>
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<tr>
<td>NASSP Bulletin</td>
<td>National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1904 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091</td>
<td>(703) 860-0200</td>
<td>Subjects and issues of particular interest to school administrators. Editor, Thomas F. Koerner. Nine issues a year. Subscription only with NASSP membership.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NCEI Reports</td>
<td>National Center for Education Information, 1901 Pennsylvania Avenue NW, Suite 707, Washington, DC 20006</td>
<td>(202) 463-8344</td>
<td>Education newsletter with focus on educational activities within the federal government.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phi Delta Kappan</td>
<td>P.O. Box 789, Bloomington, IN 47402</td>
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Emphasizes educational research, issues, trends, and policy.
Editor, Robert W. Cole, Jr.

**Principal**
National Association of Elementary School Principals
1920 Association Drive
Reston, VA 22091
(703) 620-6100
Timely articles on educational issues, ideas, and practices for elementary and middle school principals.
Editor, Leon E. Greene
Five issues a year. Subscription included with NAESP membership.
Single copy $5.

**PTA Today**
National Congress of Parents and Teachers
700 N. Rush Street
Chicago, IL 60611
(312) 787-0977
Research reports in education, health, safety, and other areas related to children's welfare.
Editor, Pamela Schrom Reynolds
Seven issues a year. Yearly subscription $7.

**Re, ort on Preschool Education**
Capitol Publications, Inc.
1300 N. 17th Street, Suite 160
Arlington, VA 22209
(703) 528-1100
Reports on legislative activity, court decisions, day-care initiatives, research on early childhood education, and developments in preschool education.
Editor, Helen Hoart
Biweekly. Yearly subscription $119.

**School Administrator**
American Association of School Administrators
1801 N. Moore Street
Arlington, VA 22209
(703) 528-0700
Legal topics, issues related to curriculum and instruction, AASA news, and other articles for school administrators.
Editor, Cindy Tursman
Eleven issues a year. Subscription only with AASA membership.

**School Law Bulletin**
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
Institute of Government
Knapp Building 059A
Chapel Hill, NC 27514
(919) 966-5381
Reports on recent litigation in the school law area written by school attorneys for administrators.
Editor, Robert Phay
Two years $18. Three years $25.

**Science and Children**
National Science Teachers Association
1742 Connecticut Avenue, NW
Washington, DC 20009
(202) 328-5800
Activity-oriented publication for elementary and middle-school science teachers with special columns directed to preschool, elementary, and middle-level instruction; reviews curricula and science trade books.
Editor, Phyllis R. Marcuccio
Eight issues a year. Subscription only with NSTA membership.

**Social Education**
National Council for the Social Studies
Combines scholarly and practical applications to the teaching of social studies for teachers in the elementary and secondary schools. 
Editor, Charles R. Rivera
Seven issues a year. Subscription included with NCSS membership. Single copy $5.

State Education Leader
Education Commission of the States
1860 Lincoln Street
Denver, CO 80295
(303) 830-3822
Covers a range of subjects of interest to educators, state legislators, governors, and other public officials.
Editor, Rexford Brown
Quarterly. Yearly subscription $15.

Who's Who Biographical Record—School District Officials
Marquis Who's Who, Inc.
200 E. Ohio Street
Chicago, IL 60611
(312) 787-2008
Biographical sketches of 12,000 superintendents, principals, and other officials.
Annual. $47.50.

Education in Canada
Statistics Canada
Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0T6, Canada
(613) 990-8116
Statistics on institutions, teachers, and students as well as educational expenditures for Canada and the provinces.
Annual. $3.
Quotable Comments on Education

Henry Adams, 1838-1918:
A teacher affects eternity; he can never tell where his influence stops.

James Truslow Adams, 1878-1949:
There are obviously two educations. One should teach us how to make a living, and the other how to live.

Amos Bronson Alcott, 1799-1888:
The true teacher defends his pupils against his own personal influence. He guides their eyes from himself to the spirit that quickens him.

Francis Bacon, 1561-1626:
Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man.

Hosea Ballou, 1771-1852:
Education commences at the mother's knee, and every word spoken within the hearing of little children tends towards the formation of character.

Henry Barnard, 1811-1900:
The Common (public) school should no longer be regarded as common because it is cheap, inferior, and attended only by the poor... but common as the light and air are common, because its blessings are open to all and enjoyed by all.

Jacques Barzun, 1907-
Teaching is not a lost art, but the regard for it is a lost tradition.

Alexander Graham Bell, 1847-1922:
[Handicapped] children should form an annex to the public school system, receiving special instruction from special teachers who shall be able to give instruction to little children who are deaf, blind, or mentally deficient without sending them away from their homes or from the ordinary companions with whom they are associated.
Daniel Boorstin, 1914-
[Education is] learning what you didn’t even know you didn’t know.

Kenneth Clark, 1914-1983:
Children who are treated as if they are uneducable almost invariably become uneducable.

Council of Chiefs of the six nations of the Iroquois Confederacy, 1744:
(Speaking to the governor of Virginia after six Iroquois youths were invited to attend William and Mary College.)
Several of our young people were formerly brought up at the colleges of the northern provinces; they were instructed in all your sciences; but when they came back to us they were bad runners, ignorant of every means of living in the woods, unable to bear either cold or hunger, knew neither how to build a cabin, take a deer, or kill an enemy...they were totally good for nothing...If the gentlemen of Virginia will send us a dozen of their sons we will take great care of their education, instruct them in all we know, and make men of them.

Henry Steele Commager, 1902:
No other people ever demanded so much of education (as Americans)...None other was ever served so well by its schools and educators.

John Dewey, 1859-1952:
What the best and wisest parent wants for his own child, that must the community want for all of its children.

Emily Dickinson, 1830-1886:
He ate and drank the precious is,

His spirit grew robust;
He knew no more that he was poor,
Nor that his frame was dust.
He danced along the dingy days,
And this bequest of wings
Was but a book. What liberty
A loosened spirit brings.

Albert Einstein, 1879-1955:
Imagination is more important than knowledge. Knowledge is limited, whereas imagination embraces the entire world—stimulating progress, giving birth to evolution.

Ralph Waldo Emerson, 1813-1882:
1. Respect the child. Be not too much his parent. Trespass not on his solitude. 2. The Roman rule was to teach a boy nothing that he could not learn standing. 3. The man who can make hard things easy is the true educator.

Benjamin Franklin, 1706-1790:
To America one school master is worth a dozen poets.

Robert Frost, 1874-1963:
Education is hanging around until you’ve caught on.

James Garfield, 1831-1881:
Next in importance to freedom and justice is popular education, without which neither freedom nor justice can be permanently maintained.

Patricia A. Graham, 1935-2013:
The central quandary facing American teachers today is the lack of clarity regarding the purpose of the schools in which they work, the nature of the larger educational system of which those schools are but a part, and the relationship...
between the two. If education is more than mere schooling—and it is—then we should have been asking ourselves which educational activities truly belong outside the classroom door.

Oliver Wendell Holmes, Sr., 1809-1894:
Knowledge and time shouldn't be much used till they are seasoned. ... A child's education should begin at least one hundred years before he is born.

Herbert Hoover, 1874-1964:
We need to add to the three Rs, namely, reading, 'riting and 'rithmetic, a fourth—responsibility.

Thomas Jefferson, 1743-1826:
If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be.

Lyndon B. Johnson, 1908-1973:
At the desk where I sit, I have learned one great truth. The answer for all our national problems—the answer for all the problems of the world—comes down to a single word. That word is "education."

Donald Kennedy, 1931-
The best single social test of a nation's regard for the future is the way it treats its children.

A child miseducated is a child lost.

Rockwell Kent, 1882-1971:
The real art of living consists of keeping alive the conscience and sense of values we had when we young.

Abraham Lincoln, 1809-1865:
That every man may receive at least a moderate education, and thereby be enabled to read the histories of his own and other countries, by which he may duly appreciate the value of our free institutions, appears to be an object of vital importance, even on this count alone, to say nothing of the advantages and satisfaction to be derived from all being able to read the scriptures and other works, both of a religious and moral nature, for themselves.

James Russell Lowell, 1819-1891:
Have you ever rightly considered what the mere ability to read means? That it is the key which admits us to the whole world of thought and fancy and imagination? to the company of saint and saga, of the wisest and wittiest moment? That it enables us to see with the keenest eyes, hear with the finest ears, and listen to the sweetest voices of all time?

James Madison, 1751-1836:
A people who mean to be their own governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives.

Gene I. Maeroff, 1939-
Education in the 1980s will have the awesome responsibility of upholding standards in a society in which the schools may be among a shrinking number of institutions concerned with quality. Young people cannot be faulted if they question values at a time when the best-selling novels tend to be the worst written, the highest paid Americans are entertainers and athletes, and the most popular
leisure-time activity of adults is watching situation comedies on television. Don't blame the kids if they wonder why education is worth the bother.

**Horace Mann, 1796-1859:**
1. The Common (public) school is the greatest discovery ever made by man.
2. Education is our only political safety.
3. A teacher who is attempting to teach without inspiring the pupil with a desire to learn is hammering on a cold iron.
4. School houses are the republican line of fortifications.

**H.L. Mencken, 1880-1956:**
The best teacher, until one comes to adult pupils, is not the one who knows most, but the one who is most capable of reducing knowledge to that simple compound of the obvious and the wonderful which slips into the infantile comprehension. A man of high intelligence, perhaps, may accomplish the thing by a conscious intellectual feat. But it is vastly easier to the man (or woman) whose habits of mind are naturally on the plane of the child's. The best teacher of children, in brief, is one who is essentially childlike.

**John Henry Newman, 1801-1890:**
Education gives a man a clear, conscious view of his own opinions and judgments, a truth in developing them, an eloquence in expressing them, and a force in urging them.

**Pushmataha (Choctaw chief), ?-1824:**
We wish our children educated. We are anxious that our rising generation should acquire a knowledge of literature and the arts, and learn to tread in those paths which have conducted your people, by regular generations, to their present summit of wealth and greatness.

**Ronald Reagan, 1911-**
If we fail to instruct our children in justice, religion, and liberty, we will be condemning them to a world without virtue.

**Hyman Rickover, 1900-**
Education is our first line of defense—make it strong.

**Will Rogers, 1879-1935:**
The thing I'm sorriest about in my life is that I didn't stick around to take on the fifth grade.

**Theodore Roosevelt, 1858-1919:**
To educate a man in mind and not in morals is to educate a menace to society.

**Bertrand Russell, 1872-1970:**
No man can be a good teacher unless he has feelings of warm affection toward his pupils and a genuine desire to impart to them what he himself believes to be of value.

**George Santayana, 1863-1952:**
1. A child educated only at school is an uneducated child. 2. The great difficulty in education is to get experience out of ideas.

**Henry David Thoreau, 1817-1862:**
What does education often do? It makes a straight-cut ditch out of a free meandering brook.
Lionel Trilling, 1905-1975:  
I have been read by Eliot's poems and by Ulysses and by Remembrance of Things Past and by The Castle for a good many yea's now, since early youth. Some of these books at first rejected me; I bored them. But as I grew older and they knew me better, they came to have more sympathy with me and to understand my hidden meanings.

Mark Twain, 1835-1910:  
The man who does not read good books has no advantage over the man who can't read them.

Annie Dodge Wauneka, 1910-  
We are a half-century behind the rest of the country. We want to keep our children near us, not send them miles away to a school where we cannot supervise them, but until we can, we must accept the education that we have, for it is the answer to our problems.

Daniel Webster, 1782-1852:  
Knowledge, in truth, is the great sun in the firmament. Life and power are scattered with all its beams.

Noah Webster, 1758-1843:  
... it is an object of vast magnitude that systems of education should be adopted and pursued which may not only diffuse a knowledge of the sciences but may implant in the minds of American youth the principles of virtue and liberty; and inspire them with just and liberal ideas of government, and with an inviolable attachment to their own country.

H.G. Wells, 1866-1946:  
Human history becomes more and more a race between education and catastrophe.

Alfred North Whitehead, 1861-1947:  
1. From the very beginning of his education, the child should experience the joy of discovery. 2. All practical teachers know that education is a patient process of mastery of details, minute by minute, hour by hour, day by day.

George F. Will, 1941-  
As Plato understood, there is really only one serious political topic. It is more serious than war, or even the New Federalism. It is the upbringing of children.

Woodrow Wilson, 1856-1924:  
We must believe the things we teach our children.

Brigham Young, 1801-1877:  
Education is the power to think clearly, the power to act well in the world's work, and the power to appreciate life.
Some Emerging Educational Trends

With the ebb and flow of education's changing tides, here are a few of the trends that would seem worth monitoring during 1985 and 1986:

Responsibility for Day Care
With more than 40 percent of the mothers of children under three now in the workforce, the issue of where to place day care services may stop its intermittent bobbing to the surface and remain on top for good. Renewed interest may have been stimulated by widespread accounts of child abuse in private day-care facilities. The looming policy decision will be to determine which agencies or providers should be day care's primary deliverer. For a long time the American Federation of Teachers has been pushing for day care to be a function of the public schools. Originally the idea was to provide employment for teachers being displaced by declining enrollments. Lately, however, the apparent goal has been to enroll young children in the public schools early and thereby avert having their parents get accustomed to private sector services and thus remain with the private sector when the children reach school age.

Another "player" in the day-care scene is the employer. Many are now offering day care as an option in flexible benefits plans, on grounds that worker productivity improves if parents receive help with child care, either on company premises or through supplemental payments.

The Dropout Rate
With the youth unemployment rate above 18 percent and the unemployment rate for blacks and Hispanics dramatically higher than for whites, the schools will be under pressure to improve their retention rate of high school students. The dropout rate of students who reached high school has remained fairly constant since 1980 at about 13.6 percent. However, student advocacy groups—especially those in the vocational education field—say increased academic standards
adopted by two-thirds of the states in the past two years will inevitably drive the dropout rate up.

Nearly two-thirds of those who drop out of school have C and D grade averages. Dropout rates were highest among minority groups, with American Indian/Alaskan Natives showing the highest of all—29 percent. The dilemma for public education is that most of the monies for special help and programs for disadvantaged children are targeted at the lower grades. Consequently, schools that have "held on" to students by offering a broad curriculum, with vocational emphasis in many instances, will need to find ways to encourage marginal students to stay in school while also narrowing their curriculum offerings.

Another National Assessment Effort
For several years the national media and the public have relied on SAT/ACT state averages to judge school performance—a practice many educators find inaccurate and misleading. When this measure became part of a U.S. Department of Education effort to rank the educational productivity of the individual states, education leaders were incensed. They soon determined, however, to bury their displeasure and seek a better way to do the ranking, which they accepted as inevitable. The Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) has consequently decided to establish an assessment center and to develop education indicators by which state education performance can be ranked. A set of indicators is to be reviewed by the members in November 1985. Meanwhile the National Center for Education Statistics also is developing a set of nationwide indicators (see page 250).

The CCSSO says its goal will be to achieve a balance in the reporting burden, to select indicators that are fair and reliable, and to prevent this large assessment undertaking from becoming the dominant influence in the nation's classrooms.

Administrator Competencies
Administrative leadership has been a growing concern in the states, with the emphasis up to now on assessment and training—as evidenced by a growing number of principals' academies being sponsored at regional or state levels. However, legislative attention to school leadership, spurred in some cases by the emphasis on merit schools rather than merit teachers, has taken a tougher stance. Eight states now require competency testing of administrators, and according to an Education Commission of the States survey, another seven states are considering such a measure.

Increasing State Control
Evidence of the increasing leverage being used at the state level abounds in the excellence reform movement. States have moved to increase their participation not only in the financing of education but in setting teacher salary levels, establishing merit pay-career ladder plans, and mandating higher academic standards. Most observers assume that these activities will create tensions between state and local levels, reduce flexibility at the local level, and erode grass roots influence.
The Department of Education is somewhat like the mythical bird consumed by fire only to rise again renewed and ready for another long life. The Department, however, has had a somewhat easier fate. It managed to skirt the fire and rise again, singed a bit but no less hale and hearty.

As successor to the U.S. Office of Education, itself a century old, the Department of Education was authorized by Congress in 1979 at the request of President Carter. It opened its doors in 1980. Less than a year later President Reagan marked it for early dismantlement. Congress refused to go along, electing to give the new Department a chance to prove its worth as a Cabinet-level agency.

The Department stumbled along the next two years without Administration support or a sense of mission. Then, in 1983, a remarkable transformation began to occur. Under the leadership of Secretary Terrel H. Bell, the Department became the energizing force in what was portrayed as a new Administration initiative—to renew, recharge, and revitalize American education.

It was made clear at the outset that there would be little if any new federal money involved. The commitment to academic excellence—and the money to fund it—would have to come from state and local governments and private sources.

The turning point in the Department’s fortunes came in April 1983 with publication of A Nation At Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform, a powerful indictment of the many weaknesses in American education identified...
during an 18-month study by the National Commission on Excellence in Education.  

Secretary Bell’s foresight and concern for the quality of education available to America’s young people not only generated this inciteful report but, perhaps inadvertently, gave the Department a new lease on life.

He had created the National Commission on Excellence in Education in 1981, bringing together eminent educators, legislators, state and local officials, and public representatives for a top-to-bottom examination of the condition of American education, from kindergarten through graduate school.

A Nation At Risk pulled no punches. The Commission found that “the educational foundations of our society are presently being eroded by a rising tide of mediocrity that threatens our future as a nation and a people.” It called for tougher state and local graduation requirements for high school students, with more emphasis on mathematics, science, and foreign languages at all grade levels. To improve instruction in basic skills, it asked for longer school days or better use of traditional school hours. It requested better teacher preparation and steps to make teaching a more rewarding profession.

The Commission wasn’t the only group sounding the alarm. Similar calls for reform were also heard in 1983 reports issued by the Education Commission of the States, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Twentieth Century Fund, National Foundation, and College Entrance Examination Board.

These reports sparked a national debate, and education suddenly soared toward the top of the policy and legislative agendas of government at all levels. Legislators, school boards, business leaders, and parents in virtually every state began to press for a reversal of what was widely viewed as two decades of decline in the quality of education.

By late 1984, Secretary Bell said he could see “a tidal wave of reform, unprecedented in its breadth and support, that promises to restore excellence as the hallmark of education.”

He reported that 34 states have raised their high school graduation standards, and 13 others are weighing tougher requirements. He counted 21 states considering or actually trying longer school days and years. He said 30 states have already begun or are planning pay reforms to provide career ladders for teachers and extra rewards for master teachers.

As part of the school reform debate, Secretary Bell also challenged the quality of textbooks. He says publishers are “dumbing down” their products to accommodate students at the bottom of the class. “Without an upgrading of textbook quality,” he warns, “education reform will falter.”

To recognize excellence where it does exist, the Department has initiated programs to identify and honor “educational excellence,” focusing on schools and students in every state and outlying area. Outstanding school professionals also are being honored. For example, the Department and the
National Association of Elementary School Principals launched in 1984 the National Distinguished Principals Program to recognize exceptional elementary and middle school principals.

The Department also points with pride to actions taken to simplify state and local administration of federal education funds. In 1981, Chapter II of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act lumped together 42 relatively small programs, from metric education to Teacher Corps, into block grants worth some $500 million. These grants can be used by states and local school districts for any purpose related to (1) basic skills instruction, (2) educational improvement and support services, and (3) special projects. The Department claims that by cutting back on rules and regulations governing other programs, it has eliminated thousands of man-hours of work by state and local school officials formerly required to fill out program administration and evaluation reports.

Meanwhile the Administration has firmly clung to its plan to use leadership and persuasion rather than new federal programs (or more funds for existing programs) to effect improvements in education. Aside from tuition tax credits for parents who send their children to private schools, a proposal not yet approved by Congress, the President has proposed only one significant new program. In 1983, he cited the need for more and better qualified teachers of science and mathematics. Congress responded the following year with the Science and Mathematics Teacher Development Act. It provides a modest $50 million a year for five years. States can draw on these funds to offer scholarships to teachers who wish to take college courses qualifying them to teach science and mathematics in public and private high schools.

However, the Administration’s budget request for 1985 provided only $15.5 billion for education, up only $100 million from the 1984 appropriation level. Congress, as it has previously done, raised the ante. Both the House and Senate marked up bills of well over $17 billion.

In its 1985 request, the Administration asked for no funding increases over 1984 levels in programs for compensatory education for disadvantaged children, for handicapped children, for bilingual education, for rehabilitation services, or for other similar programs.
The U.S. Department of Education currently administers 129 programs to aid education. The year 1984 brought no new programs and no additional funding for most ongoing programs, compared with 1983. Nor was the Department's total budget adjusted for inflation. In 1984, it was held at the 1983 level of $15.4 billion.

The various programs provide assistance to education at all levels, preschool through graduate school. Particular attention is focused on elementary and secondary education programs for students with special needs—disadvantaged, handicapped, Indian, and non-English-speaking children. At $3.5 billion, compensatory education for disadvantaged children under Chapter I of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 continues to be by far the largest single federal education program, accounting for 23 percent of the Department's total budget.

Financial aid programs to help students attend college, at $6.2 billion, represent the largest share of the higher education budget. Other programs support adult education, research, rehabilitative services for handicapped persons of all ages, and the department's century-old mandate—the collection and analysis of facts and figures on the condition of American education.

The 1984 Guide to ED Programs, reprinted on the following pages, was compiled by the editors of American Education, the Department's official journal. Ten of the 129 programs listed were unfunded in 1984.

Head Start, the federal program for disadvantaged preschool children, is administered by the Department of Health and Human Services. It is included at the end of the Department of Education listing.

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<th>Program</th>
<th>Authorising Legislation</th>
<th>Who May Apply</th>
<th>Contact</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Education for the Disadvantaged. To expand and improve elementary and secondary education programs in meeting the special needs of educationally deprived children in low-income areas in public and private schools.</td>
<td>Chapter I of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 (Subtitle D of Title V of P.L. 97-35, Sec. 553-558, 591-596)</td>
<td>Local education agencies (must apply to state education agencies). Formula grants.</td>
<td>Compensatory Education Programs 245-2214 or 245-3081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Education for the Disadvantaged—State Administration. To strengthen administration of Chapter I programs.</td>
<td>Chapter I of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 (Subtitle D of Title V of P.L. 97-35, Sec. 554(b)(1)(D) and (d))</td>
<td>State education agencies receive up to one percent of the Chapter I funds provided to the state.</td>
<td>Compensatory Education Programs 245-9877 or 245-3081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Education for the Disadvantaged—Children in State-Administrator Institutions Serving Neglected and Delinquent Children. To improve the education of neglected or delinquent children in state-administered institutions or in adult correctional facilities.</td>
<td>Chapter I of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981 (Subtitle D of Title V of P.L. 97-35, Sec. 554(a)(2)(C))</td>
<td>State agencies responsible for providing free public education for neglected or delinquent children in institutions (must apply to state education agencies)</td>
<td>Applications, State education agencies, Information, Compensatory Education Programs 245-9877 or 245-3081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The Secretary's Initiative to Improve the Quality of Chapter I, ECIA Projects. To increase the effectiveness of elementary and secondary school programs in meeting the special needs of educationally disadvantaged children; specifically, to provide technical assistance to projects under Chapter I, ECIA, and to identify and recognize publicly the most successful projects.</td>
<td>Chapter I of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981</td>
<td>Appropriate state Chapter I coordinators</td>
<td>Compensatory Education Programs 245-9877 or 245-3081</td>
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<tr>
<th>State and Local Education</th>
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<tr>
<td>5. Education Consolidation and Improvement Programs, Chapter II. To assist state and local education agencies to improve elementary and secondary education through consolidation of elementary and secondary education programs into a single authorization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Law Related Education Program. Supports projects in state and local education agencies and educates the public about the American legal system and the principles on which it is based so that students may become informed and effective citizens.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Arts in Education Program. Stimulates the integration of the arts into the education system by bringing together schools and community art resources.</td>
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<td>Program</td>
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<tr>
<td>8 Alcohol and Drug Abuse Program. Assists state and local education</td>
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<tr>
<td>9 Inexpensive Book Distribution Program. Supports the distributing of</td>
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<td>inexpensive books to students aged 3 through high school age to provide motivation to learn to read</td>
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<td>10 School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas—Construction,</td>
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<td>Impact Aid. To provide assistance for the construction of urgently</td>
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<td>needed minimum school facilities in school districts that have had</td>
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<td>substantial increases in school membership as a result of new or</td>
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<td>increased federal activities, or that serve children residing on</td>
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<td>Indian lands, or that are substantially composed of federal property.</td>
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<td>11 School Assistance in Federally Affected Areas—School Assistance,</td>
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<td>Impact Aid. To provide financial assistance to local education</td>
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<td>agencies when enrollments are adversely affected by federal activities,</td>
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<td>where the tax base of a district is reduced through the Federal</td>
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<td>acquisition of real property, where there is a sudden and substantial</td>
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<td>increase in school attendance as the result of federal activities;</td>
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<td>to assist local agencies in the education of children residing on</td>
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<td>federal, including Indian, lands, and children whose parents are</td>
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<td>employed on federal property or on active duty in the Uniformed</td>
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<td>Services.</td>
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<td>12 General Assistance for the Virgin Islands. To provide general</td>
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<td>assistance to improve public elementary and secondary education in</td>
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<td>the Virgin Islands.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Washington, D.C., in bringing high schoolers to the nation's capital</td>
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<td>and giving them a first-hand view of how the federal government</td>
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<td>works.</td>
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<td>Program</td>
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<td>Consolidated Grant Application for Insular Areas</td>
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<tr>
<td>Indian Education</td>
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<td>Adult Indian Education</td>
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<td>Grants to Local Education Agencies and Tribal Schools</td>
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<td>Grants to Indian-Controlled Schools</td>
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<td>Special Programs and Projects</td>
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</table>
Migrant Education

Program

20 Migrant Education—College Assistance Program. To provide special academic and support services to young migrant and seasonal farm workers in post-secondary schools.

Authorizing Legislation

Higher Education Act of 1965, Title IV, Sec. 418A, as amended by the Education Amendments of 1980, P.L. 96-374

Who May Apply

Postsecondary schools or another public or nonprofit agency in cooperation with postsecondary schools

Contact

Compensatory Education Programs: 245-2722 or 245-3081

21 Migrant Education—High School Equivalency Program. To provide academic and supporting services to enable migrant and seasonal farm workers who have dropped out of high school to obtain a diploma and subsequent employment or further education at a post-secondary school.

Authorizing Legislation

Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981, Chapter I, Sec. S54(a), P.L. 97-35; Title I, Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, Sec. 143, P.L. 95-561

Who May Apply

State education agencies

Contact

Compensatory Education Programs: 245-2722 or 245-3081

Special Programs

24 Desegregation Assistance—Civil Rights Training and Advisory Services. To provide technical assistance, training, and advisory services to school districts through state education agencies and desegregation assistance centers in coping with the desegregation of their schools based on race, sex, and national origin.

Authorizing Legislation

Civil Rights Act of 1964, Title IV

Who May Apply

State education agencies, public agencies and private nonprofit organizations. Discretionary grants.

Contact

Division of Educational Support: 245-2181

25 Women's Educational Equity Act Program. To promote educational equity for women through development and dissemination of model educational programs and materials.

Authorizing Legislation

Elementary and Secondary Education Act, as re-enacted by P.L. 95-561, Title IX, Part C, as reauthorized by the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981, P.L. 97-35

Who May Apply

Public agencies, private nonprofit organizations; individuals. Discretionary grants.

Contact

Division of Educational Support: 245 2465

Federal Student Aid


Authorizing Legislation

Higher Education Act of 1965, P.L. 89-329, as amended by Title IV

Who May Apply

Undergraduate, vocational, and graduate students accepted for enrollment at least half-time, who must apply to participating schools. Up to 10% of the funds may be awarded to students enrolled less than half-time.

Contact

Federal Student Aid Programs: 472-5080
### Federal Programs

**Federal Student Aid (cont'd)**

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<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Authorizing Legislation</th>
<th>Who May Apply</th>
<th>Contact</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>27. Job Location and Development Program (funded under College Work-Study). To establish or expand programs for locating or developing jobs for students, suited to their needs and schedules.</td>
<td>Higher Education Act of 1965, P.L. 89-329, as amended</td>
<td>Undergraduate, vocational, and graduate students accepted for enrollment at least half-time in participating schools</td>
<td>Federal Student Aid Programs 472-5080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Guaranteed Student Loan Program. To provide low-interest insured loans to postsecondary students.</td>
<td>Higher Education Act of 1965, P.L. 89-329, as amended</td>
<td>Undergraduate, vocational, and graduate students accepted for enrollment at least half-time in participating schools</td>
<td>Federal Student Aid Programs 472-5080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. National Direct Student Loan Program. To provide low interest loans to undergraduate and graduate students.</td>
<td>Higher Education Act of 1965, P.L. 89-329, as amended</td>
<td>Undergraduate and graduate students accepted for enrollment at least half-time, who must apply to participating schools</td>
<td>Federal Student Aid Programs 472-5080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. State Student Incentive Grants. To encourage states to expand grant programs to post-secondary students.</td>
<td>Higher Education Act of 1965, P.L. 89-329, as amended</td>
<td>State education agencies (Grants are on a matching 50-50 basis.)</td>
<td>State education agency or Federal Student Aid Programs 472-5080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. Supplemental Educational Opportunity Grants. To assist undergraduate students who show financial need.</td>
<td>Higher Education Act of 1965, P.L. 89-329, as amended</td>
<td>Undergraduate students accepted for enrollment at least half-time, who must apply to participating schools. Up to 10% of the funds may be awarded to students enrolled less than half-time.</td>
<td>Federal Student Aid Programs 472-5080</td>
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### Information and Dissemination

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<th>Who May Apply</th>
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<tr>
<td>32. ERIC Clearinghouse for Handicapped and Gifted Education. To identify, collect and organize information concerning handicapped and gifted education for addition to the ERIC database.</td>
<td>General Education Provisions Act, Sec. 405(e)</td>
<td>Public and private organizations, institutions, agencies, or individuals.</td>
<td>Dissemination and Improvement of Practice 254-5500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. ERIC Clearinghouse for Adult, Career and Vocational Education. To identify, collect, and organize information concerning adult, career, and vocational education for addition to the ERIC database.</td>
<td>General Education Provisions Act, Sec. 405(e)</td>
<td>Public and private organizations, institutions, agencies, or individuals.</td>
<td>Dissemination and Improvement of Practice 254-5500</td>
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### Libraries

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<th>Who May Apply</th>
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<tr>
<td>34. Interlibrary Cooperation—State Grant Program. To assist the States in the systematic and effective coordination of the resources of public, academic, school, and special library and information centers at the local, regional, state, or interstate levels.</td>
<td>Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA), Title III</td>
<td>State library administrative agencies</td>
<td>Division of Library Programs State and Public Library Services Branch 254-9664</td>
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<tr>
<td>Program</td>
<td>Authorizing Legislation</td>
<td>Who May Apply</td>
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<tr>
<td>35. Public Library Services—State Grant Program. To establish and improve public library and institutional library services, as well as library services for the handicapped, disadvantaged, and persons with limited English-speaking ability; to strengthen state library agencies and major urban public libraries.</td>
<td>Library Services and Construction Act (LSCA), Title I</td>
<td>State library administrative agencies</td>
<td>Division of Library Programs State and Public Library Services Branch 544-9664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education Improvement</td>
<td>Chapter II of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981, Subtitle D, Title V, P.L. 97-35, Sec. 583 (Secretary's Discretionary Program)</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, institutions of higher education, public and private agencies, organizations, and institutions. Discretionary grants.</td>
<td>Thomas E. Enderlein, Office of the Secretary, 426-6420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. National Diffusion Network Program. To promote nation wide dissemination and adoption of exemplary educational programs approved by the Joint Dissemination Review Panel.</td>
<td>Chapter II of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981, Subtitle D, Title V, P.L. 97-35, Sec. 583 (Secretary's Discretionary Program)</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, institutions of higher education, public and private agencies, organizations, and institutions. Discretionary grants.</td>
<td>Division of National Dissemination Programs 653-7000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. Talent Search. To help identify and encourage promising students to complete high school and pursue postsecondary education.</td>
<td>Higher Education Act of 1965, P.L. 89-329, as amended, Title IV, Part A, Sec. 417A-417B</td>
<td>Postsecondary schools (or consortiums), public and private nonprofit organizations. Discretionary grants.</td>
<td>Division of Student Services 426-6960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41. Territorial Teacher Training Assistance Program To provide assistance for the training of teachers in schools in Guam, American Samoa, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, and the Virgin Islands.</td>
<td>Title XV, Part C, Section 1525 of the Education Amendments of 1978</td>
<td>State education agencies of each territory or a joint application from a state education agency and an institution of higher education, with the state education agency as the lead agency of the grant or contract</td>
<td>Center for Libraries and Education Improvement 254-6572</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
42. Head Start. To provide a comprehensive development program for disadvantaged preschool children, including education, health, and a strong parental involvement component.

Vocational Education

43. Vocational Education—Basic Grants to States. To assist states to improve planning for vocational education and manpower training; to maintain, extend, and improve vocational education programs; to develop programs in new occupations; and to provide part-time employment for vocational education students enrolled full-time.

44. Vocational Education—Consumer & Homemaking Education. To provide education programs and ancillary services to prepare persons for the occupation of homemaking.

45. Vocational Education—Program Improvement and Supportive Services. To assist the states in improving their programs of vocational education by supporting research curriculum development, exemplary projects, personnel development, sex equity, and guidance.

46. Vocational Education Programs for the Disadvantaged. To provide special vocational education programs for disadvantaged persons in areas with high concentrations of youth unemployment and school dropouts.

47. Vocational Education—State Advisory Councils. To advise state boards of vocational education on the development and administration of 5-year state plans, annual program plans, and accountability reports; to evaluate vocational education programs, services, and activities.

48. Vocational Education—State Planning and Evaluation. To assist states in preparing 5-year plans, annual program plans, and accountability reports, and in conducting program evaluations.

Who May Apply

Public and private non-profit organizations, including schools and community groups.

Local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private organizations. (All must apply to state boards of vocational education.)

Local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private organizations. (All must apply to state boards of vocational education.)

Local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private organizations. (All must apply to state boards of vocational education.)

Individuals and organizations must apply to state boards of vocational education.

State advisory councils for vocational education

State boards of vocational education

Contact

Head Start 755-7782

Office of Vocational and Adult Education, Division of Vocational Education Services 472-3440

Office of Vocational and Adult Education, Division of Vocational Education Services 472-3440

Office of Vocational and Adult Education, Division of Vocational Education Services 472-3440

Office of Vocational and Adult Education, Division of Vocational Education Services 472-3440

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Office of Vocational and Adult Education, Division of Vocational Education Services 472-3440
### Bilingual Education

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<tr>
<td><strong>49</strong> Bilingual Education — Basic Projects. To assist in establishing, operating, or improving programs of bilingual education for children of limited English proficiency.</td>
<td>Bilingual Education Act, Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by P.L. 95-561 (1978)</td>
<td>Local education agencies, postsecondary schools (applying jointly with one or more local education agencies); elementary or secondary schools operated or funded by the Bureau of Indian Affairs; nonprofit organizations of Indian tribes that operate elementary or secondary schools</td>
<td>Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs 245-2509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>50</strong> Bilingual Education Demonstration Projects. To demonstrate exemplary approaches to providing programs of bilingual education.</td>
<td>Bilingual Education Act, Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by P.L. 95-561</td>
<td>Local education agencies, postsecondary schools (applying jointly with one or more local education agencies); elementary or secondary schools operated or funded by the Bureau of Indian Affairs; nonprofit organizations of Indian tribes that operate elementary or secondary schools</td>
<td>Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs 245-2595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>51</strong> Bilingual Education — Desegregation Support Program. To help local education agencies meet the needs of minority group children who lack equality of educational opportunity because of language barriers and cultural differences. (Currently unfunded)</td>
<td>Bilingual Education Act, Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by P.L. 95-561</td>
<td>Local education agencies (eligible under the Emergency School Aid Act), nonprofit private organizations that receive a request to develop curricula from an eligible LEA</td>
<td>Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs 245-2609</td>
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<td><strong>52</strong> Bilingual Education — Materials Development Projects. To develop instructional and testing materials for bilingual education and training programs.</td>
<td>Bilingual Education Act, Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by P.L. 95-561</td>
<td>Local education agencies, postsecondary schools (applying jointly with one or more local education agencies); elementary or secondary schools operated or funded by the Bureau of Indian Affairs; nonprofit organizations of Indian tribes that operate elementary or secondary schools</td>
<td>Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs 245-2600</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>53</strong> Bilingual Education — State Education Agency Projects for Coordinating Technical Assistance. To help states coordinate technical assistance provided by other agencies to bilingual education programs funded under the Bilingual Education Act.</td>
<td>Bilingual Education Act, Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by P.L. 95-561</td>
<td>State education agencies</td>
<td>Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs 245-2922</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>54</strong> Bilingual Education — Support Services Projects. To strengthen bilingual education and staff training programs through dissemination, assessment, and evaluation assistance provided by regional Evaluation, Dissemination, and Assessment Centers (EDACs).</td>
<td>Bilingual Education Act, Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by P.L. 95-561</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools (applying jointly or after consultation with one or more state or local education agencies)</td>
<td>Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs 245-2600</td>
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### Bilingual Education (cont)

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<tr>
<td>55. Bilingual Education Training Projects. To establish, operate, or improve training programs for persons, including teachers and parents, preparing for or now participating in programs of bilingual education for children of limited English proficiency.</td>
<td>Bilingual Education Act, Title VII of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, as amended by P.L. 95-561</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public or private nonprofit organizations (applying jointly or after consultation with one or more state or local education agencies).</td>
<td>Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs 245-2595</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57. Bilingual Vocational Instructor Training. To provide training for instructors, aides, and guidance counselors to work in bilingual vocational training programs.</td>
<td>Vocational Education Act of 1963, Title I, Part B, Subpart 3, as amended by P.L. 94-482 (1976)</td>
<td>State agencies, public and private nonprofit educational institutions</td>
<td>Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs 447-2228</td>
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### Special Education and Rehabilitative Services

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<td>58. Early Education for Handicapped Children. To aid public and private nonprofit agencies in demonstrating model programs for handicapped children from birth through age 8.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part C, Sec. 623</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, public and private nonprofit organizations</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Innovation and Development 732-1168</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59. Services for Deaf-Blind Children. To provide services to deaf-blind children, technical assistance to state education agencies serving these children, and assistance to agencies in facilitating the transition of deaf-blind youth (22 and older) from education to employment, and other services.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part C, Sec. 622</td>
<td>Public and nonprofit organizations</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Innovation and Development 732-1179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60. Innovative Programs for Severely Handicapped Children and Youth. To develop and demonstrate innovative approaches to education of severely handicapped and deaf-blind children and youth.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part C, Sec. 624</td>
<td>Public and private organizations</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Innovation and Development 732-1161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61. Recruitment and Information. To support a national clearing house on education of handicapped children and youth, and support projects to carry out specific recruitment and information activities.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part D, Sec. 633</td>
<td>Public and nonprofit organizations</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Innovation and Development 732-1179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62. Media Services and Captioned Film Loan Program—Centers. To establish and operate educational media centers for materials for the handicapped.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part F, and P.L. 94-142</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private nonprofit organizations</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Educational Services 732-1064</td>
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<tr>
<td>63 Media Services and Captioned Film Loan Program—Film. To advance the handicapped through education and technology and to provide captioned films and television programs for the deaf.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part F, and P.L. 93-380, P.L. 94-482</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, public and private nonprofit and profit organizations</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Innovation and Development 732-1177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64 Media Services and Captioned Film Loan Program—Research. To support media and technology research development, training, and services for handicapped, through contracts and grants.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part F</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, institutions of higher education, and other public agencies and nonprofit institutions</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Educational Services 732-1064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65 Postsecondary Education Programs for the Handicapped. To develop or modify specially designed programs for deaf or other handicapped postsecondary education students.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part C, Sec. 625, as amended, P.L. 93-380</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, institutions of higher education and other public agencies and nonprofit institutions, junior and community colleges, vocational and technical institutions</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Innovation and Development 732-1177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66 Handicapped Regional Resource Centers. To establish regional resource centers to advise and offer technical services, primarily to state departments of education, for improving education of handicapped children.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part C, Sec. 621</td>
<td>Institutions of higher education, state education agencies, private nonprofit agencies, and combinations of such agencies and institutions which may include one or more local education agencies</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Assistance to States 732-1014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67 Handicapped Research and Demonstration. To support research and demonstration activities designed to improve educational opportunities for the handicapped.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part E, Secs. 641 and 642</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, postsecondary schools, public and private nonprofit education or research agencies, and appropriate individuals</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Educational Services 732-1106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68 Model Programs for Severely Handicapped and Deaf-Blind Children and Youth. To award contracts to build on ongoing educational services, innovative educational models, or service-delivery components.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part C, Sec. 624</td>
<td>State education agencies, public and private nonprofit organizations</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Innovation and Development 732-1179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69 Personnel Training for Education of the Handicapped. To prepare and inform educators, parents, administrators, and other personnel who work with handicapped children, through preservice and inservice training.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part D, Secs. 631, 632, and 634</td>
<td>State education agencies, institutions of higher education, postsecondary schools, public and private nonprofit organizations, and other appropriate nonprofit agencies (individuals must apply to participating organizations)</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Personnel Preparation 732-1070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70 State Aid Programs for the Handicapped—State Grant Program. To assist in expansion and improvement of programs and projects designed to provide a free appropriate public education to handicapped children at the preschool, primary, and secondary levels.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 94-142, as amended, Part B</td>
<td>State education agencies</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Assistance to States 732-1014</td>
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<tr>
<td>71. State-Supported School Programs for the Handicapped—State Grant Program. To strengthen programs for handicapped children in state-operated and state-supported schools.</td>
<td>Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, P.L. 89-313, Secs. 146, 147 (as incorporated in the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act of 1981)</td>
<td>State education agencies</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Assistance to States 732-1014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72. Preschool Incentive Grants—State Grant Program. To encourage states to serve and further develop services for preschool handicapped children.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part B, Sec. 619</td>
<td>State education agencies in states that provided programs for handicapped children ages 3 through 5 in previous years</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Assistance to States 732-1014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73. Special Studies of P.L. 94-142. To analyze and evaluate state efforts in providing a free appropriate public education for all handicapped children and in meeting other mandates of the Act; to provide technical assistance to the states in matters relating to the education of handicapped children, such as short-term training programs and dissemination of information.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 91-230, as amended, Part B, Sec. 617-618</td>
<td>State and local education agencies, public and private nonprofit or profit-making organizations</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Educational Services 732-1064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74. Secondary and Transition Programs for the Handicapped. To strengthen and coordinate education, training, and related services for handicapped youth to assist in the transitional process to postsecondary environments.</td>
<td>Education of the Handicapped Act, P.L. 98-199, Part C, Sec. C26</td>
<td>Postsecondary schools, state and local education agencies, and public or private nonprofit organizations</td>
<td>Special Education Programs, Division of Educational Services 732-1106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75. Training Interpreters for Deaf Individuals. To increase the supply of skilled manual and oral interpreters available to serve deaf individuals, and to ensure maintenance of basic interpreter skills of interpreters now serving.</td>
<td>Rehabilitation Act of 1973, P.L. 93-112, as amended, Sec. 304(d)</td>
<td>Public or private nonprofit agencies or organizations, including public or private nonprofit postsecondary institutions</td>
<td>Rehabilitation Services Administration 732-1322</td>
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(313) 764-9492

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Eugene, Oregon 97403
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Urbana, Illinois 61801
(217) 333-1386

Handicapped and Gifted Children
Council for Exceptional Children
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Reston, Virginia 22091
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(217) 328-3870

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Las Cruces, New Mexico 88003
(505) 646-2623

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Educational Testing Service
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New York, New York 10027
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Congress in one of its final decisions before adjourning for the 1984 elections ended the Head Start cliff-hanger. After months of uncertainty about its future, Head Start was reauthorized for another two years.

Launched in 1965 as part of President Lyndon Johnson's Great Society initiatives, this major federal preschool program for children from low income families has been rumored during the past few years to be on its way out. Contributing to these rumors were some research studies that questioned whether the improvements achieved by the enrollees would last more than a year or two.

Then came studies demonstrating that the Head Start experience produced improvements in attitudes, behavior, and classroom performance that continued into high school and often beyond.

Head Start thus enters its third decade with renewed respect—and with funding just under $1 billion, pared with the $2 million voted by Congress to support the first full-year program back in 1966.

Congress in the same 1984 legislation reauthorized Head Start's companion program, Follow Through, which carries graduates of the preschool program through the early primary grades. However, Follow Through funding—$10 million in 1985—is considerably below the levels of a decade ago.

Despite its extension for another two years, Head Start is seen by many specialists in early childhood education as facing an uncertain future, particularly in maintaining project quality. Their most immediate concern is a plan by the Reagan Administration to add more children to the program without collateral increases in funding. The result, they say, will be large class sizes plus staff-child ratios that will seriously diminish the program's effectiveness.

In any case, Head Start began in 1965 as an eight-week summer program for a handful of preschool children from poor families. The program arose out of research showing that deprived children entered first grade lacking the basic
learning skills typically possessed by other children their age. It was also noted that deprived children often had health and psychological problems that seriously impeded learning—problems ranging from something as clear as hunger to something as difficult to deal with as deep emotional turmoil caused by a destructive home and family environment. So, along with classroom activities, Head Start provided services to meet a child’s health, nutritional, social, and psychological needs.

Head Start quickly captured the enthusiastic support of early childhood educators, community leaders, and parents. The summer program became a full-year program. Since 1965, Head Start has served over 9 million children between the ages of three and six.

In 1984, some 430,000 children received the full range of Head Start services in 21,000 classrooms. Projects are conducted by school systems, other public agencies, and nonprofit parent and community organizations.

Fully 90 percent of all children come from families with incomes below the poverty level. The program currently serves one in five eligible children. Nearly half (42 percent) are black, 33 percent are white, 20 percent are Hispanic, 4 percent are American Indian, and 1 percent Asian. About 12 percent are handicapped. The average cost per child is $2,249.

The paid staff totals 75,860. In addition the program is served by nearly 600,000 volunteers, primarily parents, young people, and senior citizens. For every four children enrolled, at least three Head Start parents work as volunteers. Nearly 30 percent of the staff are parents of former Head Start children.

One of the most thorough recent studies of Head Start’s performance was conducted by CSR, Inc., a private research firm in Washington, D.C., under contract with the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, which administers the program. The study reviewed over 1,500 research and evaluation reports from individual projects, dating back to 1965. The reports released to date show that Head Start children have generally out-performed non-Head Start youngsters and frequently maintained this superiority in later school years. Head Start graduates have had fewer grade retentions and special class placements, lower absenteeism, and better health in the elementary grades than children without this preschool experience.

In addition, Head Start is credited with having had a profound influence on the planning of day care and related services sponsored by nonfederal organizations; on the expansion of state and local activities for children, on the range and quality of services offered to young children and their families, and on the design of training programs for professionals and aides who staff such programs.

Head Start is being funded in 1985 and 1986 under the Human Services Reauthorization Act. Within the Department of Health and Human Services the program is administered by the Administration for Children, Youth and Families, Office of Human Development Services. The Follow Through program is administered by the Department of Education.
hat shapes up as one of education’s most noteworthy developments in the mid-1980s is the move in numerous states and communities to add preschool education to the public school agenda. Many authorities say that no other action holds greater promise for assuring children a solid foundation for success throughout their school years and beyond. Moreover, the economic payoff, in terms of productive citizens and reduced expenditures for crime and welfare, could be enormous.

Youngsters with preprimary experience, these observers note, enter elementary school with many advantages over children without it. They score higher on entry reading and other achievement assessments, and they are more ready to enter the grade appropriate to their age up. Most of those from disadvantaged backgrounds can be placed in regular classrooms rather than in remedial programs—providing significant savings in educational costs.

In addition, such children have developed a sense of social and psychological security that facilitates the development of trusting relationships with teachers and classmates. And, despite suggestions that the benefits of early education would be of short duration, it is now clear that the children exposed to it build on their academic and social success as they move into the upper grades.

A number of research projects support these conclusions. In 1977, George Washington University compiled the findings of more than 50 studies of Head Start, the federal preschool program for children from low-income families. A study conducted a year later looked at Head Start programs involving handicapped children.
Massachusetts, Minnesota, and New York have evaluated nonfederal experimental preprimary programs associated with public schools in their communities. These studies have consistently shown that elementary school children with nursery school and kindergarten training have lower absenteeism and grade retention rates than other children.

Perhaps the most significant long-term study of how well Head Start graduates do in later years was released in 1984 by the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation. In Ypsilanti, Michigan, High/Scope researchers kept track of 123 randomly selected low-income black children who were enrolled in Head Start in the early 1960s. These youngsters came from families with little education; their scores on aptitude tests were very poor; and about half were from single parent families. Nonetheless they made good progress when they began their formal schooling. Compared to control group of similar children without preschool education, Head Starters have made far greater progress both academically and socially, and their progress has endured. As adults, almost twice as many were found to be holding jobs or to have gone on to college or vocational school than the control group. Among the girls, only half as many became pregnant before marriage. Substantially fewer former Head Starters dropped out of school, committed a crime, went on welfare.

The High/Scope researchers estimate that the long-term benefits of the program can be valued at about seven times the original cost of $4,000 per child. The estimate is based on higher lifetime earnings, but the reduction in crime alone is valued at more than $3,000 per person.

Steadily climbing enrollment figures and announcements of new programs, like the one proposed in Baltimore (illustration), demonstrate that preprimary education is on the move.
The U.S. Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics reports that enrollments in nursery school and kindergarten rose from 4.1 million in 1970 to 5.1 million in 1982, an increase of 24 percent. By 1984 the total had risen to 5.4 million.

Moreover, the Center projects that by 1992 enrollments in public and private preschool programs will reach no less than seven million children. Since enrollments of 5-year-olds in kindergarten are already approaching 100 percent, most of the increase by 1992 will be among 3- and 4-year-olds in prekindergarten programs.

Meanwhile state legislatures and local school districts alike are responding to public pressure for more and better preprimary programs. The New York legislature in April 1984 approved a $5 million increase in grants for prekindergarten programs. Texas in 1983 and South Carolina in 1984 passed major reform bills to upgrade education across the board, both reform measures included funds for preprimary education. Beginning in the 1985-86 school year, Texas will offer half-day programs for 4-year-olds from low-income and non-English-speaking families. South Carolina will give school districts the option to offer child development programs for 4-year-olds with small-motor-skills and other learning problems.

Kindergarten teachers appear overwhelmingly to prefer an all-day program over two half-day sessions, citing in particular the availability of time to work with children on an individual basis. In addition to the extra learning time, working parents like the full-day child care service such programs provide.

Again, research tends to support the perceptions of teachers and parents. Children in a five-hour kindergarten in Phoenix, Arizona, were reported to have performed substantially better on the Metropolitan Readiness Test than half-day children. In Evansville, Indiana, first graders who had had full-day kindergarten were similarly found to score higher in reading tests than first graders with only half-day kindergarten experience.

For school officials concerned about the expense of full-day kindergarten, cost analysis studies are encouraging. They show that initially higher costs can be offset if the school district can obtain full state aid for each child. Expenditures for supplies and maintenance need not increase and may even decrease, several studies found, because fewer children use each room and its equipment. Also, elimination of the noon bus trip for two half-day kindergarten groups cuts transportation costs.

Preprimary education remains a local option in most states. Only 14 require school districts to offer kindergarten programs, much less prekindergarten, 36 states give aid to local districts that take the opportunity to offer kindergarten.
The term "magnet school" describes an elementary or secondary school organized around a central purpose or theme and offering a program so outstanding as to cause parents to ignore any other considerations and enroll their children in it.

Although that concept is not new in American education, today's magnet school movement was launched only a decade ago by the "Glenn Amendment" to the Emergency School Aid Act. This called for the allocation of federal funds with which a local educational agency could create "a school or educational center that operated a special curriculum capable of attracting substantial numbers of students of different racial backgrounds."

The magnet school was in short an alternative to "forced busing." Today such schools are to be found in virtually every state, especially in urban areas, and there would appear to be a decreasing emphasis on desegregation and a growing emphasis on the uniqueness or quality of the school program.

With the enactment in 1982 of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act, direct federal support for magnet schools came to a halt. Nevertheless the magnet school concept continued to spread, and during the next year nearly 140 school districts throughout the nation operated more than 1,000 magnet schools and programs supported only with local funds.

In 1984 Congress again enacted legislation supporting magnet schools and programs and calling for annual appropriations of $75 million for three years. Under the bill school districts would have the opportunity to plan, create, and expand the magnet school concept. Given the persistent budget crunch there is of course considerable question as to whether any future appropriations will be approved.

Meanwhile the Department of Education issued proposed regulations that would help compensate school districts receiving $1 million less for magnet schools under the new arrangement than they originally did under the Emergency School Aid Act. In practice that means Chicago, New York, St. Louis, the District of Columbia, Buffalo, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Dallas, New Orleans, Seattle, and Milwaukee.
Canadians in 1982 severed their last formal legislative ties with Great Britain. They obtained the right to amend the British North America Act, the constitution created for them by the British Parliament when Canada was given Dominion status in 1867.

In the Constitution Act of 1982, Canadians set up a formula for amending this century-old constitution. However, they left one very important provision intact—control of public education.

The British North America Act had specified that "in and for every province the (provincial) legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to education."

By 1982, Canadians had had 115 years of experience with schools set up and operated under laws passed by the federal government but by the legislatures of the provinces, the equivalent of U.S. states.

In the Constitution Act, Canadians opted to retain the delegation of authority that had served education through the years.

Thus, Canada continues to educate nearly 5 million elementary and secondary students in public schools controlled by the ten provinces, with considerable authority delegated to local jurisdictions. In some provinces, separate church-related schools also are largely supported by tax dollars.

According to Education in Canada, 1984, published by the federal government in Ottawa, Canada spent $19.3 billion in school year 1982-83 to operate its public schools and provide assistance to its separate schools. Another $8 billion went to support community colleges and technical programs below the university level.
Universities received $5.6 billion. Spending for elementary-secondary education accounted for 66.8 percent of total education expenditures and represented 5.4 percent of Canada's gross national product.

As in the United States, the federal government has no direct education authority. However, Canadians, like Americans, have recognized the need for federal assistance. As Canada's population has grown and its education needs have proliferated, federal funds have increasingly been provided to assist provincial schools, especially for vocational education. In addition, the federal government has taken full responsibility for educating Eskimos and Indians beyond the reach of public school systems, plus children of military personnel in Canada and abroad.

Every province requires compulsory school attendance from age 6 or 7 to 15 or 16. School systems usually provide 12 years of instruction, with some local districts offering one or two years of preschool education.

As in most countries, the purpose of elementary education in Canada is to give children the knowledge and problem-solving skills basic to proceeding to higher grade levels. There are enriched and accelerated programs for academically gifted students. Programs for handicapped children are extensive. Public schools provide classes for slow learners. Separate institutions educate blind, deaf, and mentally retarded children. Where special schools for handicapped pupils operate within the local public system, the province usually furnishes 100 percent of the funding.

Whereas provinces once operated separate academic and vocational high schools, the comprehensive high school offering a variety of courses in both areas is today the rule. However, two "streams" are still available. One prepares students for college. The other teaches occupational skills marketable immediately after graduation or prepares students for further training at a community college or technical institute.

Provinces have all but eliminated grade promotion for high school graduation. Rather, students graduate when they have accumulated enough credits in subjects chosen in consultation with parents and school's. For example, a student registered in grade 10 may be taking mostly grade 10 subjects, but also some courses at the grade 11 or 12 level, and some at the grade 9 level. Furthermore, the student may concentrate high school studies, especially in the final years, in a particular field such as the physical and natural sciences, to the almost total exclusion of others such as the humanities and social sciences.

Most provinces have abolished graduation examinations administered by their departments of education, leaving schools to set, conduct, and mark their own exams. However, high school graduation certificates are still issued by provinces on the recommendation of individual schools.

The separate tax-supported sectarian schools, mostly Catholic, are authorized under the Public School Act, though five of the ten provinces make no legislative provision for their support. Separate schools operate under
boards of elected trustees, as do public schools, and conform to provincial regulations regarding length of school year, curriculum requirements, textbooks, and other academic considerations.

In addition to public and separate schools, Canada has private schools operated without tax dollars and enrolling nearly 5 percent of elementary-secondary students.

In 1982-83, 272,300 teachers were employed in public and private elementary and secondary schools.

Teacher training standards have been significantly upgraded in recent years. The basic requirement for an elementary teaching certificate used to be a high school education plus one year of training, usually in a provincial teachers' college. Now all teaching certificates require a four to five year education program at a university. Provinces grant certification solely on the basis of a candidate's university record; however, beginning teachers are on probationary contract to their school board for a period of four years, during which time a contract may be cancelled on the advice of the principal to the personnel superintendent.

CALL BELLS,

Of all kinds, styles, sizes and prices. Address J. B. MERWIN, St. Louis,
First-rate elementary schools should have a maximum pupil-teacher ratio of 20 to 1, instruct children a minimum of five hours a day for at least 180 days a year, pay teachers for an additional ten days of training, and have a full-time principal, according to a detailed set of “Standards for Quality Elementary Schools” promulgated by the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP).

The standards of excellence were developed by a group of building principals and cover organization, leadership, curriculum, instruction, training and development, school climate, and evaluation and assessment.

NAESP noted that although the proposed standards contain nothing that could be called radical, numerous schools fail to achieve—and thus fail to provide the best possible education. For example:

- Average class-size in elementary schools across the nation is 25, with many classes exceeding 30.
- Classroom observations indicate that as much as 35 percent of the five-hour instructional time is lost to lunch, recess, checking roll, and passing out materials.
- Many school districts assign one principal to two or more schools.

The committee of principals that developed the standards suggested that in kindergarten through third grade, pupil-teacher ratios should be lower than average, about 15-to-1. The goal would be to make sure that the youngsters received an appropriate amount of individual attention and that learning problems were identified and corrected early on in their school careers. The committee added that in the upper grades, ratios could be
expanded to about 25-to-1 without harm.

The 60-page publication lists 21 "standards of excellence" and includes an accompanying checklist of "quality indicators." The statement grew out of a 1983 conference organized by NAESP, the Johnson Foundation, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, and the U.S. Department of Education.

NAESP noted that the document seeks to blend the substantial body of extant research on effective schools with the practical experience of on-line principals. The goal was to produce an instrument that would help parents as well as the principals, school staffs, and the community at large to assess the quality of their local school, and to develop a step-by-step plan for improvement. NAESP said the standards had purposely been kept flexible because of the enormous variations among schools in such characteristics as financial support, board of education policies, parental convictions about what a school should achieve, and the socioeconomic backgrounds of pupils.

Copies of Standards for Quality Elementary Schools may be obtained for $8.50 each from NAESP at 1920 Association Drive, Reston, Virginia 22091.
The median amount of homework done per week by all students is about 5.4 hours. This includes the 12.8 percent of all students who reported having no homework in an average week.

There is some variation around this national figure of 5.4 hours. The median value for high school students was 6.9 hours, while for elementary students (grades 1-8) it was 5.0 hours. The overall difference between white and black students, while small (5.4 vs. 5.6 hours, or a difference of 12 minutes), is statistically significant. In public elementary school the race difference of .9 hour is the only significant difference for the four different combinations of type of school and grade level. In general, girls are reported to do more homework than boys.

In recent years there has been some discussion of differences in the educational rigor of public and private schools. While students in private schools had a median 6.2 hours of homework per week, those in public schools had about 5.4 hours. This discrepancy becomes far more pronounced when examining high school students only. Public high school students had a median 6.5 hours of homework per week, while the comparative figure for high schoolers was 14.2. Of course, private high schools in general promote academic or pre-college curricula, while public schools tend to be more diverse, including some schools and curricula that are principally remedial or vocational, many that offer general education, and some that are as academically advanced as the most advanced private schools. Nevertheless, this greater diversity of public institutions and the implicit selectivity of private schools is a major reason why the median levels of homework in public and private high schools differ so greatly.

Survey results indicate that many students receive at least some help with their homework from adults in their household. About 58 percent of all students usually receive aid in doing their studies. The greatest differentiation in receiving help is between elementary and high school students, although there is also a distinction, though far less substantial, between public and private school students. While high school students have more homework than elementary school children, they receive less help. It may be that the age of the student is more of a factor than the amount of homework in influencing parental aid.
studies show that today's youngsters spend an average of 22 to 30 hours a week in front of the television set. Toddlers watch it before they begin to talk. By the time young viewers finish high school, according to David Pearl, chief of the National Institute of Mental Health's Behavioral Sciences Research Bureau, they will have devoted 22,000 hours to this passive form of learning and entertainment, 11,000 hours more than they will have spent in class.

So much TV viewing naturally has an effect. Critics say that fully 80 percent of the shows they watch are for adults, most dealing with crime, violence, or family crises that children cannot handle as an adult would. Studies show that many children identify with the times of crimes rather than the aggressors and get the notion that mayhem is normal and even proper.

For example, a 1982 study by the National Institute of Mental Health compiled overwhelming evidence that excessive violence on television leads to aggressive behavior in children and teenagers. Similarly, a 1984 Yale University study found a correlation between program content (as well as the number of hours spent watching television) and children's behavior—with preschoolers affected the most.

But the picture is not all bleak. A government study found that TV viewing of no more than two hours per day had a beneficial effect on reading achievement scores for young children. When viewing time rose to more than ten hours a day, however, the effects on reading became detrimental. For secondary students, the average viewing time had a negative effect on reading.
scores of brighter students but in many cases a beneficial effect for less able students.

Teachers say that television affects the attention span of youngsters in the classroom, with many seeming unable to concentrate on classroom work for more than ten minutes at a time.

Children's programming on the commercial networks remains largely confined, as it has been for many years, to the weekend morning hours. Mostly it consists of animated cartoons, heavily laced with commercials for toys and sweetened cereals. All three networks also offer educational specials.

"Captain Kangaroo" entered its 29th consecutive year on CBS simply because every attempt by the network to pull it off the air has produced a bombardment of letters of outrage—one of the few examples of how effective the public can be when sufficiently aroused.

Yet, according to New York Times writer Fred Hechinger, children's programming must largely depend on public television. "The networks have virtually abandoned children's programs," Hechinger says. "Public television, which continues to offer a few good children's programs, suffers from a severe financial drought."

Public Broadcasting System stations currently devote some five daytime hours each weekday to children's programs, most of them originally underwritten with federal funds. They include "Mister Rogers' Neighborhood," and the Children's Television Workshop (CTW) programs "Electric Company," "Sesame Street," and "3-2-1 Contact," a science program for elementary school children. CTW has provided what Hechinger calls "two rays of hope" for children's programming. President Joan Ganz Cooney has announced 20 new episodes as part of the "3-2-1 Contact" series and funding for a new math program.

Cable television is proving to hold great promise for improving the quality of children's programming as well as providing new outlets for programs. Nickelodeon, for example, calls itself "The First Channel for Kids" and offers 13 hours of nonviolent programming for children each day.

As for efforts to improve the quality of TV programs for children, principals serving on the board of directors of the National Association of Elementary School Principals have urged interested parents and educators to write letters to the networks and local stations protesting programs they find offensive and praising particularly outstanding shows. Both the networks and local stations report that they rarely hear from the public one way or the other, and thus must be guided by the handful of viewers who determine the Neilson ratings.

NAESP notes that not many people realize that Congress grants free use of the airways to broadcasters and frequently holds hearings on proposed changes in federal laws governing the industry. Community action groups can request time to present their views at these hearings.

Members of Congress have spoken out in support of children's programming. Representative Timothy Wirth (D-CO), chairman of the House Subcommittee on
Telecommunications, Consumer Protection and Finance, has charged that the networks seek complete deregulation "so that there will be no check on what they are doing" for children. He introduced legislation requiring the networks to reserve one hour a day for children. And in August 1984, Senator Frank R. Lautenberg (D-NJ) introduced a bill requiring television broadcasters to schedule at least one hour of educational children's programming per day. He points to statistics showing that the number of hours per week devoted to children's programming has declined from 10 to 4 hours over the past 10 years.

Today a number of national organizations are strong public interest advocates, working with the television industry and the government, as well as through the courts, to upgrade programming. Among the most prominent of these advocates are Action for Children's Television, Accuracy in Media, the National Black Media Coalition, the National Coalition on TV Violence, and the Telecommunications Research and Action Center. KIDSNET, a new project expected to begin operation in 1986, will offer a computerized clearinghouse to improve the quality and quantity of children's radio and television programs.

Community groups can have the greatest impact on cable TV, since cable franchises are awarded and renewed by local government officials. Communities that know what they want in the way of educational and public service programs have the clout to get it—simply by choosing a franchisee that will provide it.

Educators and parents who want to plan ahead for educational programming should write or call the networks or other programming providers directly to gain information on scheduled programs and specials. Following are some addresses and telephone numbers that may be helpful.

**Networks**

- **ABC**
  - 1330 Avenue of the Americas
  - New York, NY 10019
  - 212/887-7777

- **CBS**
  - 51 West 52nd Street
  - New York, NY 10019
  - 212/975-4321

- **NBC**
  - 30 Rockefeller Plaza
  - New York, NY 10020
  - 212/664-4444

**Public Television**

- Corporation for Public Broadcasting
  - 1111 16th Street, NW
  - Washington, DC 20036
  - 202/293-6160

- Public Broadcasting Service
  - 475 L'Enfant Plaza, SW
  - Washington, DC 20024
  - 202/488-5000

- Children's Television Workshop (CTW)
  - One Lincoln Plaza
  - New York, NY 10023
  - 212/595-3456

**Cable Television**

- Nickelodeon
- Warner Amex Satellite
Entertainment Co.
1133 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10036
212/944-5481

Home Box Office
1271 Avenue of the Americas
New York, NY 10020
212/484-1000

The Learning Channel (ACSN)
1200 New Hampshire Avenue, NW
Suite 240
Washington, DC 20036
202/331-8100

Cable Satellite Public Affairs Network (C-SPAN)
400 North Capitol Street, NW
Washington, DC 20001
202/737-3220

The Disney Channel
4111 West Alameda
Burbank, CA 91505
213/840-1874

KidVid Network
ARP Films
342 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10173
212/867-1700

Some Resource Groups
Accuracy in Media
1341 G Street, NW

Washington, DC 20005
202/783-4406

Action for Children's Television
46 Austin Street
Newtonville, MA 02160
617/527-7870

National Black Media Coalition
1802 T Street, NW
Washington, DC 20009
202/387-8155

National Council for Children and Television
20 Nassau Street
Suite 200
Princeton, NJ 08540
609/921-3639

Prime Time School Television
60 East Huron Street
Chicago, IL 60611
312/787-7600

Teachers Guides to Television
699 Madison Avenue
New York, NY 10021
212/688-0033

Telecommunications Research and Action Center
P.O. Box 12038
Washington, DC 20005
202/462-2520
there are over 100,000 libraries in the United States today, routinely patronized by more than half of the country's adult population and most of its young.

Together these far-flung repositories circulate some two billion books, not to speak of vast numbers of tapes, phonograph records, cassettes, pictures, and photographs. Clearly, the American library is a basic fixture of our national life.

Its beginnings go back to a person who contributed so much to our nation's remarkable evolution, Benjamin Franklin. When still in his 20s Franklin proposed to his fellow members of the Philadelphia Junto that they expand their individual libraries by "clubbing our books." Soon afterward he began what he described as his "first project of a public nature, that for a subscription library." Thus in 1731 came the founding of the Library Company of Philadelphia, which some 40 years later Franklin described as "the mother of all the North American subscription libraries, now so numerous."

In effect the subscription library was a corporation, enlisting a monetary contribution from each shareholder for the purchase of books to be used for communal purposes, and establishing the regulations for their circulation and use.

These so-called "social libraries" flourished for over a hundred years, to widespread acclaim. As the years passed, however, politicians, orators, and private individuals alike lost no occasion to point out that the newly formed Republic called for the enlightenment of all its citizens. Surely, they argued,
wealth alone could not be the basis for the diffusion of knowledge. It was in this spirit that in 1803 a New England bookseller and author named Caleb Bingham donated a collection of books for the free use of the children of his birthplace—Salisbury, Connecticut. His project was a landmark, for it so impressed the citizens of Salisbury that they ultimately authorized the town selectmen to expend tax money to maintain and enlarge Mr. Bingham's handsome gift.

Hesitantly, the idea of public support for libraries caught on: New York state in 1835 passed enabling legislation permitting school districts to raise funds for the purchase of books, and within little more than a decade several other states had copied the New York example.

Of greater impact was the adoption of state legislation authorizing cities and towns to establish free, tax-supported public libraries. In 1848, Massachusetts passed a law granting such authorization to the city of Boston, and a year later New Hampshire passed similar legislation applying to any city in the state.

By 1876 American libraries had become so widespread that a national conference was held in Philadelphia to give those responsible for their operation an opportunity to exchange ideas and plan for future developments.

The session was called together by one of the leading librarians in the nation's history—Melvil Dewey. An 1874 graduate of Amherst College, Dewey had remained at the college for two years as a librarian, focusing on the problems of library and cataloging. The result was the Dewey Decimal System, the system of classification used today by most American libraries and by libraries in many countries abroad.

Out of the Philadelphia meeting came a decision to form a permanent organization. Thus was born the American Library Association, with Melvil Dewey devising its motto: "The best reading for the greatest number at the least cost."

Meanwhile the money that had begun to flow to libraries from taxes was for a time outshone by private philanthropy. The greatest contribution came from the donations of Andrew Carnegie, Scottish-born and reared in a Pennsylvania mill town. His benefactions not only helped to establish about 2,800 libraries in the English-speaking world but by stimulating public authorities to provide matching funds, led to a transition from the patrician nature of library support during the nineteenth century to the more egalitarian mode of the twentieth.

As the power of private philanthropy waned, it was perhaps inevitable that the trail of American library development would in time lead to the largest of the public purses, that of the federal government. Congress had itself created the greatest of the nation's libraries, the Library of Congress, and in 1956 enacted the Library Services Act. Signed into law by President Dwight Eisenhower, this pioneer legislation authorized federal funds for the extension of public library services to those communities having fewer than 10,000 inhabitants. Then during the 1960s came federal support for all public libraries regardless of their
for libraries in the colleges and universities (via Title II-A, the Higher Education Act of 1965), and for the development of libraries in the public schools (through Title II, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965). With the exception of those supported by business and industry, all types of libraries were thus covered by federal legislation, though the level of support to be made available each year has been and remains a subject of much debate.

In 1981 the federal program to assist school libraries was included by Congress in the block grant to states created by Chapter II of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act. Along with a number of other elementary and secondary education programs, the school library program thus lost its identity in the pooling of programs and funds. States may use block grant money to assist libraries so long as the activity falls in one of the three broad categories authorized by Chapter II: basic skills instruction, educational improvement and support services, and special projects.

For the college and university library program and the public library program, the Reagan Administration requested zero funding for four consecutive years, 1982-85. Congress in 1982 and 1983 funded the programs at the 1981 levels—$2 million for college and university libraries and $60 million for public libraries. In 1984, Congress eliminated the program serving 2,000 libraries in higher education institutions, instead voting $6.8 million to advance scholarship and train librarians for some 40 major research libraries. However, funding for public libraries rose dramatically, to $80 million in 1984 and $118 million in 1985. A new program—Library Services to Indian Tribes—sets aside 2 percent of the $118 million to improve public libraries operated by Indian tribal councils.

Meanwhile new needs and pressures have been bringing major changes in the character of the library. Americans are confronted by a “knowledge explosion” that has in turn produced what might be called a “publications avalanche.” Drugstores, airline and train terminals, cigar counters, supermarkets, and a vast number of bookstores make reading fare available in amounts that stagger the imagination.

At the same time, while graphic records continue to be important, the impact of television and other electronic media—above all the computer—has made the operation of the library far different than it was only a few decades ago.
Against Mediocrity: The Humanities in America's High Schools, edited by Chester Finr., Jr., a project of the Educational Excellence Network of Vanderbilt University's Institute for Public Policy Studies and supported by the National Endowment for the Humanities, Holmes & Meier Publishers, 30 Irving Place, New York, NY 10003; 276p., $11.50 paper. Contributors to the volume articulate the importance of humanities studies, for students as well as society as a whole. They address such issues as academic discipline versus methodological preparation for teachers, how humanities get lost in the structure of schools, and ideal versus actual offerings currently in English, history and foreign languages.

America's Country Schools, by Andrew Culliford, National Trust for Historic Preservation, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, NW, Washington, DC 20036; 296p., $18.95. For those who attended country schools, this book will have deep personal interest; for those who didn't, it is a “window on the past.” Through more than 400 photographs and a text that describes both the architecture of schools and the learning that took place inside them, the book explains how country schools fit into the fabric of American society. Much of the content is previously unrecorded. A special section deals with country schools as they are today, some restored and some being reused.

Focusing on reading from the middle school years on, this volume examines possible causes for the decline in reading performance and responses to it. A major point is that new technologies, such as the computer, create a dependence on reading, rather than decrease its importance. "Making sense out of print" (their definition of the real meaning of reading) is explored, as is the theme that becoming a good reader is a never-ending process.

*Developing Character: Transmitting Knowledge*, by Edward Wynne, Herbert Walberg and others, Thanksgiving Statement Group, c/o ARL, 2605 West 147th Street, Posen, IL 60649; 36p., $4.00. Endorsed by 27 educators, scholars, and others, the "Thanksgiving Day Statement" calls for schools to reassume their role of teaching morals as part of the learning process. The statement advocates higher academic standards, grouping by ability, and graduate training for teachers.

*Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School*, by Theodore Sizer, cosponsored by the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the Commission on Educational Issues of the National Association of Independent Schools, Houghton Mifflin Company, 2 Park Street, Boston, MA 02108; 241p., $16.95. This report by the former dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, based on two years of visits to public and private schools, emphasizes the point that educational reform begins at the school level.

*Legal Rights of Children*, edited by Robert Horowitz and Howard Davidson, Shepard's/McGraw-Hill, P.O. Box 1235, Colorado Springs, CO 80901; 674p., $70.00 plus postage and tax. Although dealing with a technical subject, the volume is a highly readable description of the law and the issues involved with children's rights. Of particular interest to educators are chapters on the legal rights of adolescents, family child abuse, children living apart from their parents, the juvenile justice system, education rights, and education of handicapped children.

*The Nature of the Child*, by Jerome Kagan, Basic Books, Inc., 10 East 53rd Street, New York, NY 10022; 309p., $22.50. In a blend of science and philosophy, Kagan, professor of developmental psychology at Harvard University, challenges many assumptions about child development. Early childhood experience, for example, does not permanently stamp a person; rather, human beings change constantly, and experiences take on new meanings throughout life. He argues that children are "biologically" capable of acquiring moral standards and that the family has less influence on the experiences of the child than traditionally believed. Throughout the book, Kagan relates his views to situations within schools as well as within families.

With an estimated half-million teachers using television programs off-air in their classrooms, some guidelines seem in order. This book provides a historical perspective on the debate over taping of TV programs—the producer's side as well as the educator viewpoint. Examined are the "fair use" doctrine, the duration of copyright, how to arrange for legal taping, and penalties for illegal taping. Also included are the text of copyright laws, guidelines, a glossary, and a bibliography.

The Paideia Program: An Educational Syllabus, Mortimer Adler, Macmillan Publishing Co., 866 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10022; 238p., $4.95 paper. The third and last book in the Paideia Group project, this one is aimed at teachers who want to adopt the Paideia ideas for their classrooms. The Paideia proposals would provide one track of education for all students, with common learning of a quality curriculum. Different authors explore how to teach English and literature, math, science, history, social studies, foreign language, the fine arts, the manual arts, the world of work, and physical education. Other chapters tell how to structure a Paideia school and grading policies.

Public Schools in Hard Times: The Great Depression and Recent Years, by David Tyack and others, Harvard University Press, 79 Garden Street, Cambridge, MA 02138; 267p., $20.00. In both the Depression and the chaotic changes of today, the basic stability of public education shines through, contend the authors. Fiscal retrenchment in the early 1930s brought school supporters together, and coupled with New Deal policies, the schools became a center for social cohesion, although the policies were showing signs of inadequacy as the nation entered World War II. The authors say the scarcity of resources today, compared to what the country could provide, "threatens to dim the vision" of the schools as an "energizing dream of social justice."

Redefining General Education in the American High School, by Gordon Cawelti and Arthur Roberts; Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 225 North Washington Street, Alexandria, VA 22314; 160p., $8.50. In this summary of the experiences of 17 high schools that formed a network to restructure their core curriculums, the authors point out that careful examination and compromise play an important role in the change process. The report provides guidelines for schools seeking to make long-term curriculum changes.

School Discipline: Order and Autonomy, by Ellen Jane Hollingsworth and others, Praeger Publishers, 383 Madison Avenue, New York, NY 10017; 174p., $24.95. A report of a research study on schools in Wisconsin, the book concludes that serious discipline is uncommon, as perceived by students and teachers, and that discipline systems are "unpredictable," a factor acceptable to the "dynamics of school life." There are problems of enforcing discipline, however, such as
discrimination on the basis of "perceived level of intelligence." Also, schools find it hard to cope with troubled students. The researchers add that the inclination of junior and middle schools to respond to the diversity of their students by enforcing order may be harmful to students.

*Self-Discipline, Schools, and the Business Community,* by Amitai Etzioni for the National Chamber Foundation, 1615 H Street, NW, Washington, DC 20062; 47p., $8.50. Behind many of the employer complaints about the lack of preparedness of high school graduates for work, says Etzioni, lies the absence of "character development." Many of today's young people have not developed enough self-discipline to cope with rules and routines, he says. He makes a distinction between discipline and self-discipline. The former tends to produce "passive, compliant workers," while the latter produces workers who are creative, take the initiative, and become more actively involved in their work. His report suggests steps schools should take to improve self-discipline, including more research on the ways to strengthen character traits such as independence, more challenging curriculum, more opportunities for students to do analytical reasoning, and the improvement of students' study skills and habits.

*Teachers, Their World, and Their Work: Implications for School Improvement,* by Ann Lieberman and Lynne Miller, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 225 North Washington Street, Alexandria, VA 22314; 145p., $9.50. The authors begin with descriptors of the nature of teaching—that style is personalized, rewards are derived from students, teaching and learning links are uncertain, the knowledge base is weak, goals are vague and conflicting, control norms are necessary, professional support is lacking, and teaching, in the final analysis, is an art that cannot be made scientific. The authors explore in detail the environment of an elementary school classroom and a secondary school classroom, with case studies for both. Also examined are the nature of school leadership and what researchers have to say about school improvement. Their theme is that each school is different—ideas may come to the school "and then a host of other factors are unleashed."

*Teacher Unions in Schools,* Susan Moore Johnson, Temple University Press, Broad and Oxford Streets, Philadelphia, PA 19122; 253p., $29.95. The organizational impact of teacher unionization on schools has been considerable, says the author, but it is neither as extreme nor as uniform as many would suppose. Different schools will experience different results from collective bargaining, she says, and teachers and principals tend to remake policies stemming from collective bargaining to suit their past practices or current preferences.

*Teaching Reading and Writing Together,* by Carol Smith and Karin Dahl, Teachers College Press, Teachers College, Columbia
University, 1234 Amsterdam Avenue, New York, NY 10027; 196p., $16.95. Now that computer programs have sparked the linking of reading and writing with young children, this book adds a philosophical as well as practical basis to the interest. By deliberately tying the two together, say the authors, teachers can show students the mutual benefits of thoughts and language. The book provides strategies and specific activities for linking reading and writing "in a natural way."

The Uncertain Triumph: Federal Education Policy in the Kennedy and Johnson Years, by Hugh Davis Graham, University of North Carolina Press, P.O. Box 2288, Chapel Hill, NC 27514; 280p., $22.00. Taking the view that federal policies under Presidents Kennedy and Johnson sought to help the bottom one-fifth of the nation's school children—and basically failed—the author seeks to find out why. These initiatives were "vastly overwhelmed" by the social tides around them, Graham says, and were never funded adequately. However, he says, another contributing factor was that they were accompanied by inhibiting controls.
or the information age of the 1980s, a priority item on the agenda of everyone concerned with education's continued progress is the challenge of winning public commitment and support.

In practice, “public” must be understood to include many “publics,” internal and external. Prominent among them are parents, community leaders, civic officials, taxpayers, teachers, support staff members, and students—the various groups of people whose opinions and feelings directly bear on a school's operation.

Winning the approval of these publics calls for a PR plan developed by each district superintendent or school building principal in concert with his or her total staff, both support and professional. Basically such a plan needs to include these elements:

- The PR messages that are to be communicated to the various publics
- The methods by which each such message is to be conveyed—newsletters, printed announcements, brochures, films, slide/tape presentations, flyers, memos, news releases, speeches, etc.
- Arrangements for internal communications, through such methods as discussions, open house/receptions, parent-teacher conferences, seminars, staff meetings, team projects, telephone conversations, workshops, etc.

The next step, of course, is to execute the plan. A professional public relations person can probably do the job most effectively, but really, PR is a game that almost anyone can play. The basic
requirement is simply a devotion to fact rather than hyperbole. Contrary to a large body of public opinion, sound PR is a matter of reliable, straightforward communication, not con artistry.

In any case, with the messages having been determined, the practice of PR consists of arranging for audiences to hear those messages. The most effective way of reaching mass audiences is through newspaper and TV publicity, and that means establishing contact—a telephone call is all it takes to start the ball rolling—with education editors and reporters.

Plans and messages and press releases and slide programs notwithstanding, good PR for any school or school district or other education entity must begin with the involvement and participation of every person who works in the school building, district agency, association, or whatever. They and their superiors need to be aware that in the long run, they represent "school." They are seen by the public as being both the school’s representative and "an authority" on everything that takes place in the school (or district or agency)—its policies, goals, practices, standards: the works.

“You should know,” people tell them “—after all, you work there.” The “you should know” concept applies to everyone from the principal and building secretary and classroom teachers to the custodian, students, school bus drivers, volunteers, substitute teachers, food service people, and all others who work at the school. A person importantly involved in education becomes in the public eye a spokesman for education—a person to be turned to for inside information and opinion. What such people say to their friends and neighbors can build support for a school or turn people off, create confidence in a district or arouse suspicion.

Building on a foundation of staff support and cooperation, good public relations can be stimulated by means of a number of specific activities.

**Principals Can. . .**
- Put together a slide/tape cassette program about school to show parents and the community.
- Develop a school slogan or theme.
- Produce videotapes of school programs—reading, math, the arts, etc.—for showing to parents, community groups, churches, and service clubs.
- Turn the staff and visitors "on" with unmistakable enthusiasm about the school and the students’ achievements.
- Know what’s going on districtwide and build an informal communications network with other principals and with leaders of parent groups.
- Establish a building newsletter issued on a regular schedule—one full of names and reports of activities.
- Prepare a hand-out map of the school for parents and visitors with teachers’ names and room numbers—and an indication of “Where visitors start—froml”
- Visit the local media and invite representatives to visit the school; emphasize the school’s strong points; don’t assume people know.
- Arrange for members of the board of education and other community
leaders (along with the superintendent) to visit the school and spend some time in the classrooms with students and teachers.

- Regularly keep in touch with state representatives and Members of Congress; send them the school newsletter; invite them to school activities; keep them informed about the impact of school legislation they have been involved with.

Teachers Can...
- Help parents prepare for teacher conferences by sending them a summary of items to be discussed and ask them to prepare a list of questions.
- At open house events, arrange that self-portraits or Polaroid pictures be on students' chairs for the guidance of parents and guests.
- Become involved with parents and the community through social activities, church, athletic events, and membership in local clubs and groups.
- Keep parents abreast of what is going on in the classroom, especially noting such departures from the norm as extra homework or long-term assignments.
- Communicate in simple language—steadfastly avoid educational jargon.
- Be informed about education issues.
- Help students get noticed in the community by arranging for displays of their work (and information about their achievements) in banks, libraries, and other public places.

- During the school year send “happy grams” or “good news bulletins”—or make “good news” telephone calls to parents.
- Make parents feel at ease about asking questions or raising problems, particularly keeping in mind the situation of single parents or two career parent families.

Dealing with the Media
Keep in mind that the media begin with a bias in your direction. The reporters have children, and they want their children to receive the best possible education. So if a school or district or agency is doing good things, they want to know about it. What they do not want is a snow job. Don't try to be cute with the media, and do not seek coverage of a program or event or achievement unless what you are talking about is truly significant.

Here are some tips to consider in regard to media relationships:
- Take the time to get acquainted with the newspaper and TV reporters who cover education in your community. Talk with them about their interests, needs, and requirements. Telephone or visit them regularly, making sure you have something significant to tell them.
- Learn their deadlines and the form in which they want to receive information from you. Talk with them about this.
- Invite reporters and editors to school to tour your operation and discuss the programs with members of the staff and students. Ask the reporters for their suggestions about ways you can help them get a meaty education story.
- Regularly feed the media ideas for stories about the education
program, though be sure the story ideas have substance. Try mailing a weekly tip sheet of story ideas.

- Be positive—tell about the good things the students are achieving and explain in uncomplicated language your plans for helping the students do even better.
- Respond promptly to a reporter’s or editor’s requests for information; don’t stall them in order to have time to write a prepared statement—unless, of course, you are dealing with an especially delicate matter, in which case take all the time the situation calls for.
- Requesting a retraction of a story you feel is incorrect seldom if ever gets results, so instead call the reporter and provide ideas and suggestions of ways you can help the reporter develop accurate stories.
- When a reporter calls, give all your information in a positive and open manner. Answer what you can. Do not try to “go off the record,” in your remarks.
- Invite members of the media to serve on a panel at a PTA or PTO meeting and discuss coverage of school news.
- Remember the old saw that says, “Don’t argue with someone who buys ink by the barrel.” These people are in the business of selling newspapers—not operating schools.

PR for Certain Publics
While the media can do a great deal to help schools, school districts, and other entities get through to their “publics,” much also can be done through direct communication. With regard to schools and those most directly associated with them, worthwhile PR approaches include the following:

For Students
- Provide a “time-out-hour” once a month during which interested students discuss topics of general school concern and develop ideas for submission to the principal.
- Make sure that students receive recognition—through items placed on bulletin boards, certificates of achievement, letters to parents, etc.—and not only for academic contributions to the school or community.
- Establish principal “rap” sessions in individual classrooms.
- Organize a student/faculty exchange day to give students and staff an opportunity to learn how the other half lives.
- Conduct a student attitude survey developed by a joint committee of teachers and students.
- Use the “buddy” system of assigning a student to each new student for the first week; have a packet of information ready to distribute to each newcomer.

For Parents
- Send newsletters and other communications on a regular schedule; build in feedback questions, perhaps providing a coupon.
- Prepare and circulate parent handbooks or flyers on such topics of critical concern as discipline, drug abuse, and parent-teacher conferences, and on district policies, rules, and regulations.
- Invite parents to have lunch at the school cafeteria with the principal and teachers.
- Organize a breakfast club for working parents offering coffee and
222 a Danish with the principal and staff at 7:00 a.m.
- Similarly arrange for special conferences and programs during evening hours.
- Stimulate block “coffees” arranged by parents and attended by the principal and/or teachers to informally talk about the school program.
- Issue tip sheets on ways parents can help their children learn at home, including advice on doing homework.
- Encourage the PTA or PTO to set up a “welcome wagon” to tell new parents and residents about your school.
- Make “good news” phone calls, congratulating parents on their children’s special achievement.

For Nonparents
- Provide realtors in the community with brochures about the school and district and arrange tours, using the theme “To sell a house—sell a school.”
- Identify senior citizens in the school’s area and invite them to participate as volunteers, aides, tutors—helping write newsletters and working with students.
- Provide service clubs with speakers—perhaps including a panel of two or three students talking about the school program or about their feelings about school; invite clubs to hold meetings at the school and then tour the facilities and visit with staff and students.
- Develop a School/Business partnership through an Adopt-a-School program.
- Invite people who live in the immediate vicinity of the school building to attend school affairs and rest their support as school watchers in anti-vandalism campaigns.
- Provide churches with announcements about school activities for their bulletins—join forces with churches to meet critical community concerns.
- Place the school newsletter in barber shops or other places where people gather.
- Encourage a two-way flow of communication between schools and the community by identifying “key communicators” and seeing to it that they receive a steady flow of information about the school as background for alerting you to community concerns.
- Have an outdoor bulletin board—marquee—to “advertise” not just school activities but the school program.

For Board of Education Members
- Be sure members of the board of education are on the mailing list for your newsletter.
- Invite the board members to a potluck supper and informal evening with principal and staff for open-ended discussion.
- Invite board members to visit the school and see a videotape/slide/tape cassette program designed to acquaint parents and the community with the school’s goals and with school activities.
- Send notes of appreciation to board members for particular actions they have taken to help the school.
- Send them copies of school materials—reports about new programs, handbooks, etc.
- Attend board meetings and as appropriate provide information about the school program.
- Invite members of the board to take part in a block "coffee."
- Invite individual board members to discuss their background and their responsibilities on the board with the students in an information session.
- Invite the board to hold one of its regular meetings in your school building and encourage staff, students, parents, and neighbors to attend.

For Support Staff
- Regularly include members of the support staff in meetings of the overall school staff to exchange ideas, review communication plans, etc.
- Include support staff in an awards program that recognizes years of service and contributions to the community.
- Provide inservice training programs for support staff members at which the instructional staff discusses various aspects of the school program.
- Provide human relations training for total staff.
- Provide "coffee break rooms" for all staff—not just teachers and administrators.
- Schedule meetings with support staff to underscore their value to the school district.
- Encourage the cafeteria staff to develop an orientation program for new first graders.
- After field trips, follow-up with school bus drivers; discuss the importance of their relationships with students, parents, and the community at large.
- Include support staff in special school activities.
- Get everyone involved in teacher orientation sessions—for example, ask the school secretary to describe office procedures.

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COLT & COMPANY, Dept. E 7, 5-7-9 West 29th Street, New York.
1635
Establishment of Boston Latin School marked the beginning of public education in North America.

1636
Harvard College, first higher education institution in the English colonies, was founded (primarily to train clergymen).

1642
A Massachusetts Act required compulsory education of children by parents and masters of young apprentices, with instruction to include religious principles, colonial laws, and a useful trade. The law did not, however, provide for schools. By 1671, all New England colonies except Rhode Island had similar laws.

1647
With "Ye Old Deluder Satan" Act, Massachusetts established town schools to redress the legal inconsistency of compelling parents and masters to educate children in the absence of a formal school structure or qualified teachers to do it.

1779
As governor, Thomas Jefferson proposed a statewide system of public schools in Virginia, a proposal defeated by the legislature.

1785
A Land Ordinance for governance of the Northwest Territory set aside a parcel of land in each six-square-mile township for a public school.
1787
The Northwest Ordinance reaffirmed the 1785 Ordinance, holding that "schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged" in the western lands. These land grants for schools are regarded by many as the first general aid to education by the federal government.

1795
The University of North Carolina was chartered as the first state university.

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The University of North Carolina was chartered as the first state university.

1821
Emma Willard founded Troy (N.Y.) Female Seminary as the first women's college in the United States.

1833
Oberlin College admitted women to become the first coeducational college.

1836
William Holmes McGuffey published the first in a series of readers for elementary and secondary pupils stressing moral and ethical values in poetry and prose by distinguished American and English authors. By 1920, 122 million copies had been sold. The book is still in use in some localities, although it has recently been criticized by a number of education organizations for being archaic and sexist.

1837
Massachusetts created the state of education and named state senator Horace Mann as secretary. His eloquent advocacy led to a statewide system of free public schools, a systematic approach to education subsequently adopted by other states.

1845
The nation's first state association of teachers was organized in Rhode Island.

1857
Gallaudet College, this country's only liberal arts college for the deaf, had its beginnings with the establishment in Washington, D.C., of Columbia Institution to serve handicapped students. The name of the private, coeducational college was changed in 1894 to honor Thomas H. Gallaudet, pioneer American educator of the deaf.

1860
Elizabeth Peabody founded the first kindergarten in the United States for English-speaking children after German immigrants introduced the concept in classes taught in German.

1862
The First Morrill Act, sponsored by Congressman (later Senator) Justin Morrill of Vermont, authorized states to sell 10 million acres of federal land and use the proceeds to establish land-grant colleges for research and instruction in agriculture and mechanical arts.

1865
The Federal Freedman's Bureau was founded to care for freed slaves in the South. With grants to
missionary societies to build and staff schools, the bureau provided elementary education to some 250,000 black children and adults before its abolition in 1870.

Shaw University and Virginia Union were founded to provide higher education for black students.

1867 Congress created the Department of Education as an independent federal agency to collect and distribute information on the condition of American education. Heading the department as U.S. Commissioner of Education was Connecticut education reformer Henry Barnard. Fearing federal control of education, Congress in 1868 downgraded the Department of Education to a bureau in the Department of the Interior.

Philanthropist George Peabody established the Peabody Fund with $2 million to improve public schools in the South. By concentrating, in a few established schools, on improvements that could be adopted by others, the fund influenced grant policies of many private foundations.

1873 St. Louis made kindergarten a part of its public school system.

1874 In the *Kalamazoo Decision*, Michigan's Supreme Court upheld the right of a community to tax citizens for support of high schools, ruling that since elementary schools and a state university were already in place, the high school was needed to bridge the gap.

1890 The Second Morrill Act provided annual federal support for land-grant college programs.

1900 Creation of the College Entrance Examination Board provided an instrument for uniformity in college entrance examinations.

1917 The Smith-Hughes Act authorized federal funds to improve vocational education below college level—assistance viewed by many as the first federal categorical aid to education.

1944 The Servicemen's Readjustment Act (G. I. Bill) provided college, technical, and on-the-job training for World War II veterans. Under this and similar bills for veterans of the wars in Korea and Vietnam, 27.5 million ex-servicemen and women were educated.

The Fulbright Act, sponsored by Senator J. William Fulbright of Arkansas, provided fellowships for American students, teachers, and scholars to study abroad.

1953 Having earlier been upgraded from Bureau of Education to Office of Education, the federal education agency became a unit in the new Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.
1954
In *Brown v. Board of Education*, the U.S. Supreme Court ordered districts with dual school systems for black and white children to desegregate with "all deliberate speed."

1955
The first White House Conference on Education was held.

1958
The National Defense Education Act—America’s response to the 1957 Soviet launching of Sputnik, the first earth-orbiting satellite—provided federal aid to improve instruction in physical sciences and infrequently taught foreign languages.

1963
The Higher Education Facilities Act authorized federal aid for construction and rehabilitation of college and university facilities.

The U.S. Supreme Court ruled unconstitutional state laws requiring recitation of the Lord’s Prayer or Bible verses in schools.

1965
Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, ending a 20-year debate on the constitutionality of major federal aid to education. Title I, the largest and most significant section of the Act, addressed the special learning needs of disadvantaged children. By 1980, schools in poor neighborhoods received $3 billion a year to aid 5 million children.

Congress in 1981 reauthorized Title I as Chapter I of the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act. Funding for school year 1983-84 was $3.16 billion.

The Higher Education Act included programs to strengthen academic programs of colleges and universities, including black institutions. The Guaranteed Student Loan Program provided low-interest loans to help financially needy college students.

1966
The International Education Act strengthened education resources in international studies and research.

1972
In an Education Amendments Act, Congress authorized nonrepayable grants to needy students to attend college or postsecondary technical schools. The Education Amendments also included the Indian Education Act to address the special education needs of Indian children and adults.

1973
The Rehabilitation Act (Section 504) prohibited discrimination against physically, mentally, or emotionally handicapped persons in schools and other federally assisted institutions.

1974
In *Lau v. Nichols*, the Supreme Court ruled that schools receiving federal funds must provide appropriate programs to assist Oriental and other non-English-speaking students.
1975
The Education for All Handicapped Children Act (Public Law 94-142) mandated “a free appropriate education” for handicapped children in “the least restrictive environment,” preferably in classrooms with nonhandicapped pupils.

1978
In a landmark reverse discrimination case, the Supreme Court ordered a California medical school to admit Alan Bakke, a white who claimed the quota system for admission of blacks had blocked his acceptance. The Court upheld the affirmative action concept but stressed the need for a more flexible approach.

1980
The Department of Education was established as the 13th Cabinet-level federal agency.

1981
Secretary of Education Terrel H. Bell withdrew bilingual regulations to implement the 1974 Lau v. Nichols decision. Proposed by the Carter administration, the regulations would have required schools to teach an estimated 3.5 million children in their native language until they acquired English proficiency.

Congress enacted the Education Consolidation and Improvement Act. Chapter II consolidated 42 small elementary and secondary education programs with funds totaling some $500 million. These grant funds became available to states and communities for any school activity related to basic skills, school improvement, and special projects. Congress reauthorized Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 as Chapter I of the new legislation but declined to include it in the block grant.

1982
In North Haven Board of Education v. Bell, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 applies to women employees of schools and colleges as well as to students. Title IX prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in any education activity receiving federal aid. The decision upholds the Title IX regulation as originally formulated by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and now administered by the Department of Education.

1983
A number of national studies identified serious problems confronting American education and led to calls for reform at all government levels. Among the studies were:

- A Nation At Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform, by the National Commission on Excellence in Education;
- Action for Excellence, by the Education Commission of the States;
- A Place Called School, by John I. Goodlad;
- Making the Grade, a report of the Task Force on Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Policy,
20th Century Fund; and


Congress voted $20 million to help Chicago desegregate its schools. The vote came after a federal court judge had blocked distribution of student aid and other Department of Education funds until, in his view, the U.S. government lived up to a 1980 commitment to help Chicago with its desegregation costs.

President Reagan vetoed the $20 million appropriation, saying he wanted the higher courts to decide the constitutional issue of whether the judge had the power to hold funds for student aid and other nondesegregation purposes.

1984

Once court-ordered desegregation plans have been carried out, Norfolk, Virginia and other school districts should be allowed to end elementary school busing. So argued the Department of Justice in a brief filed in the Fourth U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals. Norfolk's school board approved a reduced-busing plan in 1983, citing the need to stem white flight. Justice said white flight was a legitimate reason to abandon busing. A federal district court has upheld the plan, and higher court concurrence would provide a precedent to reduce or end busing.

The Department of Education reported positive responses by states to education's problems as outlined in A Nation At Risk and other studies (see 1983 above). Forty-one states have raised high school graduation requirements. Twenty-four states have lengthened the school day or year or devoted more of the standard school day to academic subjects. Forty-two states have raised teacher certification requirements.

Conservative Senate opponents defeated the Civil Rights Act of 1984, which would have reversed the Supreme Court's decision in Grove City College v. Bell. That decision held that federal funds could be denied only to the specific program found to discriminate against women or minorities. Previously, an institution risked losing all federal funds. The Act would have restored institution-wide accountability if one or more programs discriminated.

One day before the veto deadline, President Reagan signed the Department of Education's 1985 appropriation bill. At $17.6 billion, it was the highest ever, some $2 billion more than the Administration requested. Major increases are in college student aid.

Secretary of Education Terrel H. Bell announced his resignation two days after the President's landslide reelection victory. As his successor, President Reagan selected William J. Bennett, chairman of the National Endowment for the Humanities. He supports stronger school discipline, tuition tax credits, merit pay and competency tests for teachers, and greater emphasis on a liberal arts curriculum.
Pathfinders in Education

Daniel Adams, 1773-1864: Massachusetts physician. Adams became alarmed by the lack of adequate school textbooks and wrote the most widely used arithmetic texts of those available in the early 1800s.

Henry Brooks Adams, 1838-1918: Great-grandson of John Adams. Henry Adams became famous as a historian and for his autobiography, *The Education of Henry Adams*, and also made significant contributions to education. As professor of medieval history at Harvard, he developed modern historical research techniques and introduced the seminar method of teaching.

Louis Agassiz, 1807-1873: Swiss emigrant; zoology teacher at Harvard. Agassiz believed that students should learn from personal observations of plant and animal life, not just from books. Virtually every outstanding teacher of natural history in the late nineteenth century was an Agassiz pupil or disciple.

Amos Bronson Alcott, 1799-1888: Father of Louisa May Alcott (Little Women). Alcott founded schools that stressed spiritual values as a means of "awakening the soul" of students. His approach was not well received in Massachusetts in the 1830s, yet Ralph Waldo Emerson called him the greatest man of intellect he had known.

William Andrus Alcott, 1798-1859: Considered the father of health education. William Alcott replaced crude wooden benches with seats and established ventilated classrooms, edited the first weekly periodical for children, and wrote the first health book in language that children could understand.

sponsored scientific research in the psychology of blindness and sought to elevate teaching of blind students to a professional level.


**Catherine Beecher, 1800-1878:** Advocate of education for women. Catherine Beecher founded Hartford Female Seminary, an institution that emphasized small classes, the relationship of general principles across disciplines, and motivation of students to seek learning outside textbooks.

**Alexander Graham Bell, 1847-1922:** American inventor and educator. Although his fame as inventor of the telephone overshadowed his contributions to the education of the deaf, he was also teacher and principal in a school for deaf students. Bell developed improved teaching techniques and became the leading authority on education of the deaf in the United States and England.

**Terrel H. (Ted) Bell, 1921-** American educator. Now a professor of Education at the University of Utah, Bell was U.S. Secretary of Education from 1981 to 1984. In that position he created the task force whose report on *A Nation At Risk* was a key element in touching off a national education reform movement. He is a former Commissioner of Higher Education for Utah and was that state's Superintendent of Public Instruction from 1963 to 1970.

**Mary McLeod Bethune, 1875-1955:** The fifteenth and first freeborn of 17 children of former slaves. Bethune received scholarships to go to college and dedicated her life to the education of black children. In 1904, she founded a school for black girls in Daytona, Florida, later known as the coeducational Bethune-Cookman College. She served as adviser on black issues to Presidents Roosevelt and Truman and as a United States representative to the founding United Nations conference in San Francisco.


**Nicholas Murray Butler, 1862-1947:** President of Columbia University for 44 years. Butler had a central role in founding its Teachers College and enhancing the professionalism of teacher education.
George Washington Carver, 1864?-1943: Agronomist and agricultural chemist. Carver was born to slave parents and worked his way through college. He was invited by President Booker T. Washington of Tuskegee Institute in Alabama to become the institute's director of agricultural research. Carver's experiments in soil management and crop production convinced farmers that they should grow sweet potatoes and peanuts to replenish soil nutrients depleted by cotton. In this way he helped to save the agricultural economy of the South. He also produced hundreds of peanut by-products, including ink, dyes, linoleum, synthetic rubber, and plastics. His example encouraged young blacks to complete their higher education and enter scientific fields.

Kenneth B. Clark, 1914-1983: Psychologist. Kenneth Clark earned a doctorate in psychology from Columbia University in 1940, taught at Hampton Institute, and examined—with Gunnar Myrdal at Hampton Institute—the role of blacks in the United States, a project that resulted in the monumental study entitled An American Dilemma. In 1950, Clark published a report showing that school segregation impeded the educational and social progress of both black and white children. The Supreme Court prominently cited the report in its Brown v. Board of Education decision (1954) outlawing school segregation.


John Dewey, 1859-1952: America's best known education philosopher of the twentieth century. Dewey believed that education must build on the child's interests, provide classroom flexibility to enable students to do their own thinking, and allow teachers to serve as guides and helpers rather than as taskmasters. Teaching at the University of Chicago and later at Columbia University, he revolutionized education by stressing the need to foster all facets of a child's mental growth.

W.E.B. Du Bois, 1868-1963: Educator, editor, historian, and advocate for black equality. After earning a PhD from Harvard University, Du Bois taught history and economics at several colleges, gaining a national reputation as an eloquent champion of full social and economic equality for blacks. He used his compelling powers of persuasion as an educator—later as a writer, editor, and political adviser to black leaders—to promote the civil rights cause. Du Bois was recipient of honorary degrees from several American universities and was the first black to be elected to
the National Institute of Arts and Letters (1943). Disillusioned by American policies towards blacks, he moved to and became a citizen of Ghana at age 94.

Charles W. Eliot, 1834-1926: President of Harvard for 40 years. At that institution, Eliot demanded that science as well as humanities be a part of liberal education. He abolished required courses and introduced the elective system—an approach modified by his successors—and raised entrance standards. As other colleges followed suit, high schools were required to raise their standards. Eliot advocated foreign languages and mathematics in the student's seventh school year, an idea adopted by junior high schools nationwide.

Thomas H. Gallaudet, 1787-1851: Pioneer in education of the deaf. Having studied the sign method of communication in Europe, Gallaudet founded the first school in the United States for the deaf: American Asylum for Deaf Mutes in Hartford. For a half century, his school was the primary training center for teachers of the deaf. Gallaudet College, founded in 1857 and still the only liberal arts college for the deaf in America, was named in his honor.

John W. Gardner, 1912-: Psychologist, teacher, author, government adviser, Cabinet officer, and citizens' advocate. John Gardner has been a major force in improving the quality of the American experience. In education, he has combined a commitment to excellence in the classroom with leadership in school desegregation and standards of excellence. During his presidency of the Carnegie Corporation (1955-65), that organization funded James B. Conant's study of the American high school and development of the "new math." As Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, he was the architect of numerous "Great Society" education programs.

John I. Goodlad, 1920-: American educator. Dean of the Graduate School of Education, University of California at Los Angeles, and Director of Research, Institute for Development of Educational Activities, Inc., Goodlad is the author or coauthor of more than 15 books on educational issues, of which the most recent is *A Place Called School*.

William Rainey Harper, 1856-1906: Founder of the junior college movement. As president of the University of Chicago, Harper divided it into a senior college for juniors and seniors, and a junior college for freshmen and sophomores. Suggesting to school officials in nearby Joliet, Illinois, that they provide two years of classroom work beyond high school, he inspired them to begin such a program. He accepted graduates of the two-year program in the university's senior college.

William Tony Harris, 1835-1909: School administrator. As St. Louis school superintendent, Harris was one of the most foresighted administrators of the late nineteenth century. He introduced art, music, and industrial arts into
the school curriculum and made St. Louis the first school system to add kindergartens. He served longer as U.S. Commissioner of Education (1889-1906) than did any other person to hold that position.

**Mark Hopkins**, 1802-1887: A graduate physician turned professor philosophy at Williams College. Later president of that institution, Hopkins was famed not only as a scholar and writer but especially as a teacher. He was in fact the hero of the statement by President James A. Garfield that "the ideal college is Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and a student on the other."

**Harold Howe II**, 1918- : American educator. Known for his dedication to academic rigor and reform as teacher, principal, superintendent, and research institute director, Howe served as U.S. Commissioner of Education (1966-68) during the period of rapidly expanding federal aid to education that began with passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Later Howe was the Ford Foundation's vice president for education; since 1982, he has been senior lecturer at the Harvard Graduate School of Education.

**Francis Keppel**, 1916- : Innovator in teacher training. Keppel was Dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education (1948-62) and U.S. Commissioner of Education (1963-65). As commissioner, he was able to mediate the differences between parochial and public school groups and frame the legislation that became the landmark Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965.

**Horace Mann**, 1796-1859: Father of America's public school system. Horace Mann was the first chief state school officer in Massachusetts (1837-1848), where he began his effort to educate rich and poor alike in neighborhood schools run by qualified teachers. His eloquent advocacy led to greater tax support for the public schools, higher teacher salaries and standards, and compulsory attendance laws. By 1848, 24 of 30 states in the Union had followed the Massachusetts example and named a chief state school officer to improve public education.

**Benjamin Mays**, 1895-1984: Teacher and religious leader. Mays, son of slave parents, served for 27 years (1940-67) as president of Morehouse College. He was spiritual and education adviser to Martin Luther King, Jr., and others who later led the civil rights movement.

**William Holmes McGuffey**, 1800-1873: American educator and clergyman. McGuffey influenced generations of children through his readers, which emphasized moral and ethical values as expressed in poetry and prose by distinguished American and English authors. By 1920, 122 million copies had been sold. The book is still in use in some areas, despite criticisms by a number of educators that it is outdated.

**Antonia Pantoja**, 1922- : Champion of civil rights and educational opportunity for Puerto Ricans, both at home and on the U.S. mainland. Pantoja established ASPIRA (to aspire) in New York City
in 1961 to help Puerto Rican youth develop leadership skills oriented toward service and social change in their communities. She is the author of numerous studies and articles, and creator of a publishing house that produces textbooks for elementary schools or Puerto Rican contributions to American life. In 1978, she cofounded the Graduate School for Community Development in San Diego; she is president of that school.

Elizabeth P. Peabody, 1804-1894: Founder of the first kindergarten in the United States (in Boston, in 1860). Peabody studied in Europe the early childhood education methods of Friedrich Froebel, founder of the kindergarten movement, and devoted her life to starting public and private kindergartens and lecturing and writing on the subject.

Joseph Mayer Rice, 1857-1934: Physician and educator. Rice was one of the first education researchers, studying school systems in the United States and Europe to assess teaching methods, particularly as they related to the time students spent on each learning task. He believed research could help schools better reward children for their efforts to learn by analyzing how teachers presented subject matter.

Ellen H. Richards, 1842-1911: First Woman admitted to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. Ellen Richards remained at M.I.T. to develop and teach a sanitary engineering program and to establish home economics as an academic discipline.

George I. Sanchez, 1906-1972: Elementary school teacher, college professor, author, textbook editor, and federal government adviser. During the 1930s and '40s, Sanchez worked virtually alone for bilingual education for Spanish-speaking children in the schools of Texas and other southwestern states. During his 32 years as professor of Latin American education at the University of Texas, he saw bilingual education become an integral part of public education, not only in the Southwest but across the nation.

Sequoyah, 1770?-1843: Cherokee linguist. Sequoyah made it his lifework to develop a system of writing for the Cherokee people. The system he devised proved so simple to learn that thousands of children were able to read and write in a few months. So great was his contribution to Indian literacy that Oklahoma chose his statue to represent the state in Statuary Hall in the nation's capitol building. The giant redwood trees in California are named sequoias in his memory.

Anne Sullivan, 1866-1936: Teacher. Partially blind herself and a teacher of genius at Perkins School for the Blind in Boston, she taught Helen Keller, both blind and deaf, to read and write Braille within two years by repeatedly pressing the manual alphabet into her palm.

Lewis B. Terman, 1877-1956: Father of the testing movement in the United States. Terman introduced the IQ test and pioneered the study and testing of gifted children.
Edward L. Thorndike, 1874-1949: Father of education psychology. Thorndike saw measurement as the key to scientific progress in education and developed methods to measure student memory, rate of learning, conditions for effective learning, and the influence of heredity on intelligence.

Ralph W. Tyler, 1902-: Pioneer in applying scientific methods to educational research. Tyler developed both the concept and research model for the National Assessment of Educational Progress, the federally funded program that gives the nation an ongoing profile of student achievement. In 1953 he became director of the Center for Advanced Study in Behavioral Sciences, Stanford University, California, where he is now director emeritus.

Booker T. Washington, 1856-1915: First president of Tuskegee Institute in Alabama. Washington built that institution into a citadel of higher education for black students. He championed vocational education and for a generation was the most influential spokesman for black Americans.

Annie Dodge Wauneka, 1910-: Navajo educational advocate. Wauneka was famous for her efforts to bring education and modern health care to the Navajo reservation, and worked throughout the 1930s and '40s to establish day schools there so that young children would no longer have to go to distant boarding schools. In 1964, she was elected to the Navajo Tribal Council and fought for better educational programs, tribal control of schools, and roads to make schools accessible. In 1964, she was awarded the Presidential Medal of Freedom, the nation's highest civilian honor.

Noah Webster, 1758-1843: Educator, journalist, and compiler of Webster's Dictionary. As a teacher in Goshen, New York, Webster was unhappy with texts for students because they ignored American culture and ideas. He began a lifelong effort to encourage education based on the American experience. His "Blue-Backed Speller" (1783) has never been out of print, and his American Dictionary of the English Language (1828), which included spelling and grammar that reflected the living language rather than artificial rules, gave American English its own identity and vitality.

Emma Hart Willard, 1787-1870: Early advocate of higher education for women. In 1821, Willard founded the first women's college, Troy Female Seminary in New York, and by quiet but firm persuasion convinced the legislature to fund women's colleges throughout the state.

Ella Flagg Young, 1845-1918: First woman to be elected president of the National Education Association. Ella Young was one of few women school administrators in the late nineteenth century, and was Chicago's superintendent of schools when she assumed the NEA post.
### Special Occasions for 1985

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>January</th>
<th>New Year's Day</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 1</td>
<td>New Year's Day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 14</td>
<td>Ratification Day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 15</td>
<td>Birthday of Martin Luther King, Jr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 17</td>
<td>Birthday of Benjamin Franklin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 19</td>
<td>Birthday of Robert E. Lee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 21</td>
<td>Inauguration Day</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**January**

- **Jan. 1**: New Year's Day
- **Jan. 14**: Ratification Day
  - Anniversary of the ratification in 1784 of the Treaty of Paris, which officially ended the American Revolution and established the United States as a sovereign power.
- **Jan. 15**: Birthday of Martin Luther King, Jr.
  - Civil rights leader, winner of 1964 Nobel Peace Prize. b. 1929; assassinated April 4, 1968. Beginning in 1986 will be a federal holiday celebrated the third Monday in January.
- **Jan. 17**: Birthday of Benjamin Franklin
  - Oldest signer of the Declaration of Independence, scientist, author, philosopher; b. 1706, d. 1790.
- **Jan. 19**: Birthday of Robert E. Lee
  - Confederate general; b. 1807, d. 1870.
- **Jan. 21**: Inauguration Day
  - Terms of the President and the Vice President end at noon and terms of their successors begin.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Jan. 30</td>
<td>School Nurse Day</td>
<td>Sponsored by the National Association of School Nurses, Inc., 7395 S. Krameria St., Englewood, CO 80112.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 1</td>
<td>National Freedom Day</td>
<td>Commemorates the 1865 signing of the Thirteenth Amendment abolishing slavery.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 2</td>
<td>Groundhog Day</td>
<td>Some have it that on this day, if the groundhog sees its shadow, six weeks of winter will follow; otherwise expect spring weather.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 6</td>
<td>Birthday of Ronald Reagan</td>
<td>Fortieth president of the U.S.; b. 1911.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 8</td>
<td>Boy Scouts of America Day</td>
<td>Commemorates organization's founding in 1910.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 10-16</td>
<td>National FHA/HERO Week</td>
<td>To focus attention on the activities and goals of the Future Homemakers of America, 1910 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 12</td>
<td>Birthday of Abraham Lincoln</td>
<td>Sixteenth president; b. 1809, assassinated 1865. Observed on different dates in February in some states.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 14</td>
<td>St. Valentine's Day</td>
<td>Reaper and advocate of women's suffrage; b. 1820, d. 1906.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 15</td>
<td>Birthday of Susan B. Anthony</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Sponsor</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 16-23</td>
<td>Future Farmers of America Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by the Future Farmers of America, Box 15160, Alexandria, VA 22309.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 17</td>
<td>PTA Founders' Day</td>
<td>Sponsored by the National PTA, 700 N. Rush St., Chicago, IL 60611.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb. 20</td>
<td>Anniversary of Glenn's Space Flight</td>
<td>On this date in 1962 John Glenn became the first American to orbit the earth, in spacecraft Friendship 7.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb 20</td>
<td>Frederick Douglass Day</td>
<td>American journalist and antislavery leader; d. 1895; birthdate unknown.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb 22</td>
<td>George Washington's Birthday (Traditional)</td>
<td>Observance on the third Monday in February is set by federal law; actual birthday is February 22; b. 1732, d. 1799.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feb 24</td>
<td>Gregorian Calendar Day</td>
<td>Pope Gregory XIII issued a Papal Bull on Feb. 24, 1582, correcting the Julian Calendar. The new calendar, which was named for him, became effective on Oct. 4, 1582. It is the most widely used calendar today.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 1-31</td>
<td>National Music in Our Schools Month</td>
<td>Sponsored by the Music Educators National Conference, 1902 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar 1-31</td>
<td>National Nutrition Month</td>
<td>Sponsored by the American Dietetic Association, 430 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, IL 60611.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 1-7</td>
<td>National Physical Education and Sports Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by the National Association for Sport and Physical Education, 1900 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 3</td>
<td>Adoption of National Anthem</td>
<td>On this date in 1931 “The Star Spangled Banner” was adopted as our national anthem. Written 1814 by Francis Scott Key.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Details</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 4</td>
<td>Birthday of Casimir Pulaski</td>
<td>Polish-born brigadier general and chief of cavalry in the American Revolution; b. 1748, d. 1779.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 11</td>
<td>Johnny Appleseed Day</td>
<td>Honors John Chapman, better known as Johnny Appleseed, planter of orchards and conservationist.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 17 23</td>
<td>Camp Fire Founders' Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by Camp Fire, Inc., 4601 Madison Ave., Kansas City, MO 64112.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 17</td>
<td>St. Patrick's Day</td>
<td>Commemorates Ireland's patron saint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mar. 20</td>
<td>First Day of Spring</td>
<td>Vernal equinox occurs at 11:14 a.m. Eastern Standard Time.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

April

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 1</td>
<td>April Fools’ Day</td>
<td>Celebrated on Hans Christian Andersen's birthday; information from Children's Book Council, 67 Irving Place, New York, NY 10003.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 2</td>
<td>International Children’s Book Day</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 5</td>
<td>Good Friday</td>
<td>Commemorates Christ's crucifixion, death, and entombment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 6-7</td>
<td>Pesach, or Passover (First Days)</td>
<td>First day of eight-day Jewish celebration of the deliverance of the Jews from slavery in Egypt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 7</td>
<td>Easter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 13</td>
<td>Birthday of Thomas Jefferson</td>
<td>Third president; b. 1743, d. 1826. Proclaimed education by the state a fundamental article of democratic faith.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
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<td>Details</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 14-20</td>
<td>Bike Safety Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by Optimist International, 4494 Lindell Blvd., St. Louis, MO 63108.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 14-20</td>
<td>Mathematics Education Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1906 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 14-20</td>
<td>National Boys Club Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by the Boys Clubs of America, 771 First Ave., New York, NY 10017.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 14-20</td>
<td>National Library Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by the American Library Association, 50 E. Huron St., Chicago, IL 60611.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 15</td>
<td>Patriot’s Day</td>
<td>Commemorates Battle of Lexington and Concord in 1775.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 18</td>
<td>Paul Revere’s Ride</td>
<td>The “midnight ride” of Paul Revere started at about 10 p.m. on this day in 1775.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 21-27</td>
<td>National YWCA Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by the National Board of the YWCA, 726 Broadway, New York, NY 10003.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 23</td>
<td>Birthday of William Shakespeare</td>
<td>William Shakespeare, poet and dramatist in Elizabethan England, was born on this date in 1564 and also died on this date in 1616.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 26</td>
<td>Arbor Day</td>
<td>A day designated for planting trees. Sponsored by the National Arbor Day Foundation, 100 Arbor Ave., Nebraska City, NE 68410.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 28</td>
<td>Daylight Saving Time Begins</td>
<td>At 2:00 a.m., clocks should be advanced one hour, except where state legislatures provide exemption.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May 4</td>
<td>Birthday of Horace Mann</td>
<td>Honors the “father” of the American public school system; b. 1796, d. 1859.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
May 5-11 Teacher Appreciation Week  
Sponsored by the National PTA, 700 N. Rush St., Chicago, IL 60611 to honor the important contribution of teachers in educating children.

May 5 First Manned American Space Flight  
On this date in 1961, Alan B. Shepard, Jr. became the first American in space.

May 8 Teachers' Day  
Sponsored by National Education Association, 1201 16th St., NW, Washington, DC 20036. Observed in Florida on third Friday in May.

May 8 VE Day  
Germany surrendered to Allied forces in 1945, ending World War II in Europe.

May 8 World Red Cross Day  
Honors Jean Henri Dunant, who originated the idea of the Red Cross. Sponsored by the American Red Cross, 17th and D Sts., NW, Washington, DC 20006.

May 11 Native American Day  
Formerly American Indian Day.

May 12-18 Girls Club Week  
Sponsored by the Girls Clubs of America, Inc., 205 Lexington Ave., New York, NY 10016.

May 12 Mother's Day  
Since 1914 observed on the second Sunday in May.

May 18 Armed Forces Day  
Observed by presidential proclamation.

May 20 Victoria Day  
Canadian national holiday.

May 21 Ramadan I  
Beginning of Moslem Holy Month commemorated by fasting.

May 25 Birthday of Ralph Waldo Emerson  
American author and philosopher; b. 1803, d. 1882.

May 27 Memorial Day  
Observed in remembrance of those who died in war.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>May 29</td>
<td>Birthday of Patrick Henry</td>
<td>American Revolutionary leader and orator known for his declaration: “I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!” b. 1736, d. 1799.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 9</td>
<td>Children’s Day</td>
<td>Observed the second Sunday in June to focus attention on the needs of America’s children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 14</td>
<td>Flag Day</td>
<td>America’s Stars and Stripes flag was adopted by the Continental Congress on this day in 1777.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 15</td>
<td>Magna Carta Day</td>
<td>Anniversary of the signing by King John in 1215 of the Magna Carta, the first charter of English liberties.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 16</td>
<td>Father’s Day</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 21</td>
<td>First Day of Summer</td>
<td>Summer solstice occurs at 6:44 a.m. Eastern Daylight Time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 28</td>
<td>Treaty of Versailles</td>
<td>Formal ending of World War I in 1919.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July</td>
<td>Canada Day</td>
<td>Also called Dominion Day, celebrates the confederation of Canadian provinces into the Dominion of Canada in 1867.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 14</td>
<td>Bastille Day</td>
<td>Commemorates capture of the Bastille in France in 1789.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<tr>
<td>July 16</td>
<td>First Atomic Bomb Exploded</td>
<td>At 5:30 a.m. on this date in 1945, the first atomic bomb was detonated at the Alamagordo Air Base in New Mexico.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 27</td>
<td>Birthday of José Celso Barbosa</td>
<td>Honors eminent Puerto Rican doctor, patriot, and educator; b. 1857, d. 1921.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug. 14</td>
<td>VJ Day</td>
<td>Commemorates the surrender in 1945 of Japan to the Allies ending World War II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aug. 26</td>
<td>Women’s Equality Day</td>
<td>Marks certification in 1920 of the Nineteenth Amendment to the U.S. Constitution, prohibiting sex discrimination with regard to voting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 1</td>
<td>PTA Membership Month</td>
<td>Sponsored by the National PTA, 700 N. Rush St., Chicago, IL 60611.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 2</td>
<td>Labor Day</td>
<td>Legal holiday in all states and Canada in honor of working men and women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 3</td>
<td>Anniversary of Treaty of Paris</td>
<td>Signed in Paris on this day in 1783 to end the Revolutionary War.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 5</td>
<td>Anniversary of First Continental Congress</td>
<td>Assembled in Philadelphia in 1774, attended by 56 delegates representing 11 colonies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 8</td>
<td>Grandparents’ Day</td>
<td>A day for showing appreciation to grandparents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 15 16</td>
<td>Mexican Independence Days</td>
<td>Celebrates Mexico’s independence from Spain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t. 16</td>
<td>Hijriat Year or New Year</td>
<td>Moslem New Year’s Day.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Description</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 16</td>
<td>Mayflower Day</td>
<td>The “Mayflower” departed this day from Plymouth, England, in 1620.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 16-17</td>
<td>Rosh Hashanah</td>
<td>Jewish New Year.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 17</td>
<td>Citizenship Day and Constitution Week</td>
<td>Marks the adjournment of the Constitutional Convention on September 17, 1787. Presidential proclamations set aside this day and week for observance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 22</td>
<td>First Day of Autumn</td>
<td>Autumnal equinox occurs at 10:07 p.m. Eastern Daylight Time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sept. 25</td>
<td>Yom Kippur</td>
<td>Holiest Jewish observance; Day of Atonement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 6-12</td>
<td>Fire Prevention Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by the National Fire Protection Association, Batterymarch Park, Quincy, MA 02269.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 6-12</td>
<td>National Metric Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, 1906 Association Dr., Reston, VA 22091, to encourage the use of the metric system.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 6-12</td>
<td>National School Bus Safety Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by the National School Transportation Association, P.O. Box 2639, Springfield, VA 22152.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 12</td>
<td>Columbus Day (traditional)</td>
<td>Anniversary of Columbus' sighting of New World in 1492.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 13-19</td>
<td>National Handicap Awareness Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by the National Easter Seal Society, 2023 W. Ogden Ave., Chicago, IL 60612.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Information</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 14</td>
<td>Canadian Thanksgiving</td>
<td>Honors Columbus and all other discoverers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 14</td>
<td>Columbus Day, observed</td>
<td>Honors Columbus and all other discoverers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 24</td>
<td>United Nations Day</td>
<td>Set aside by annual presidential proclamation to commemorate the founding of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>the U.N. in 1945.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oct. 31</td>
<td>National UNICEF Day</td>
<td>By presidential proclamation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sponsored by U.S. Committee for UNICEF, 331 E. 38th St., New York, NY 10016.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 5</td>
<td>Election Day</td>
<td>Anniversary of Armistice ending World War I; honors veterans of all American</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 11</td>
<td>Veterans Day</td>
<td>American wars.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 11-17</td>
<td>National Children's Book Week</td>
<td>Sponsored by the Children's Book Council, Inc., 67 Irving Place, New</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>York, NY 10003.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 17</td>
<td>American Education Week</td>
<td>Calls attention to the needs and achievements of American schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nov. 28</td>
<td>Thanksgiving Day</td>
<td>Calls attention to the needs and achievements of American schools.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dec. 8-15</td>
<td>Hanukkah</td>
<td>Jewish Feast of Lights, lasting 8 days.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dec. 10  Human Rights Day  Commemorates the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948.

Dec. 15  Bill of Rights Day  Anniversary of the adoption of the first ten amendments to the U.S. Constitution in 1791.

Dec. 17  Wright Brothers First Powered Flight  On this day in 1903, brothers Wilbur and Orville Wright flew the first powered aircraft. Orville Wright made the first successful flight, near Kitty Hawk, NC.

Dec. 20  Louisiana Purchase Day  Anniversary of the sale by France in 1803 of its 827,987 square-mile Louisiana Territory, a deal by which the United States nearly doubled in size.

Dec. 21  First Day of Winter  Winter solstice occurs at 5:08 p.m. Eastern Standard Time; shortest day of the year.

Dec. 25  Christmas Day
The National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) is a continuing national survey of the knowledge, skills, understanding, and attitudes of young Americans in major areas of learning taught in school.

NAEP was brought into being in 1968 following three years of deliberation by an exploratory committee appointed by the Carnegie Corporation of New York and chaired by one of education's most distinguished statesmen, Ralph W. Tyler, now Director Emeritus of the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences.

Funding came initially from Carnegie and later from the Ford Foundation. Today NAEP is supported entirely by the U.S. Department of Education and is run by an independent assessment policy committee made up of representatives of state and local education agencies, state legislatures, professional education associations (including NAESP), and the business community.

The National Assessment gathers information concerning the degree to which educational goals are being met and makes this information available to the public—particularly to persons in the field of education—so that problem areas can be identified, priorities established, and progress over a period of time determined.

NAEP's Purpose
NAEP's primary purposes are to carry out the assessment of the performance of children and young adults in the basic skills of reading, mathematics, and communications; and to disseminate the information to the federal government, the general public, and other priority...
audiences. To achieve this end, the National Assessment carries out the following activities:

- Collects and reports at least once every five years data assessing the performance of students at various age or grade levels in reading, writing, mathematics, and seven other areas;
- Periodically reports data on changes in the knowledge and skills of students and adults over time;
- Prepares special research reports on educational issues as the need for additional nationwide information arises;
- Provides technical assistance to state and local education agencies in using National Assessment data.

Why an Assessment?
Every year billions of dollars are spent on education in the United States—but facts about the effectiveness of this expenditure are sparse. National Assessment is designed to gather information that will help legislators, educators, and other policymakers arrive at informed decisions.

NAEP's Governance
NAEP is managed by the Center for the Assessment of Educational Progress, an activity of Educational Testing Service (ETS) on behalf of the Department of Education's National Institute of Education. Responsibility for the design and conduct of the assessment lies with the assessment policy committee.

Student Participation
National Assessment exercises are divided into booklets at each age, and each exercise for an age and grade group is administered to about 2,600 respondents. Depending on the total number of exercises included in the assessment, this means that between 60,000 and 90,000 individuals participate in an assessment.

Six groups of students are included in each assessment: 9-year-olds, 13-year-olds, 17-year-olds, and students in grades 4, 8, and 11. Periodically, NAEP also surveys the performance of out-of-school 17-year-olds (early graduates and dropouts) and adults aged 26 to 35.

Over a period of time, achievement trends can be discerned that provide important information for the decision-making process.

NAEP Reports
Results are reported nationally—for example, the percentage of all 9-year-olds responding correctly—for each exercise assessed at an age. In addition, results are provided for other categories: sex, race, geographic regions, community size, community type, and level of parental education.

More than 125 National Assessment reports have been produced and more are in the process all the time. The reports and information about current publications are available from the National Assessment Offices, Princeton, NJ 08541. Some are available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, in Washington, DC.

In addition, all reports are entered in the ERIC system and are available at 600 ERIC depositories around the country.
The need is easily stated and disarmingly simple. Along with all the reports and studies, the media attention, and the spate of statistics, a set of easily understood education indicators is needed to summarize how education is doing. Are our schools getting better or worse? Are students today learning more or less? Are we moving toward excellence or heading for trouble?

We need reliable benchmarks of our progress. Some note that Scholastic Aptitude Test scores just measure college aptitude, not school system success—but they are used anyway as an overall measure of educational excellence. High school graduation rates are cited one day and dismissed the next. Employers say young people can't add and subtract, while experts say our technology leads the world. People responding to opinion polls characteristically say that schools nationwide are pretty dismal but that their local schools are very good.

What is the truth? What should we be looking for? Which facts and figures make a difference and which don't, and what should we be reporting to the public to help them understand? How can we tell what to fix if we don't know what's broken?

Those are the questions that led the Educational Leaders’ Consortium, a group of 16 major national education associations, to appoint a task force to work with the National Center for Education Statistics to identify some key indicators of educational progress. After extensive study, initial recommendations were made in 1984 and the task force began working with Department of Education (ED) staff members charged with publishing an initial draft of indicators for public comment.

The goal might very roughly be described as the development of a tool for measuring education’s "Gross National Product," an instrument that might be as useful in examining the progress of our schools as such indicators as the
Dow Jones Average and the Standard and Poors Index are in indicating the condition of the financial markets.

Indicators being considered by the Department of Education Task Force provide an interesting summary of facets of schooling regarded by a group of prominent analysts as important. They include the following:

- National Assessment of Education Progress results in reading, mathematics, and science
- Public/private school achievement
- SAT and ACT scores, national trends
- SAT and ACT scores, state trends
- International comparisons in reading
- International comparisons in mathematics
- Syntheses of state assessment results
- Carnegie units earned (by subject)
- High school graduation rates
- Secondary education attainment (by state)
- Plans for seniors for first year after high school
- Adult literacy
- Remedial education at postsecondary level
- Current expenditures per pupil
- Public school fiscal efforts
- Current expenditures in comparison with other countries
- Pupil/teacher ratios
- Pupil/staff ratios
- Class size
- Teacher verbal ability—SAT scores
- Teacher verbal ability—GRE scores
- Profile of the teaching force supply/demand and shortage (by field)
- Average teacher salaries
- Teacher earnings—comparisons with other professions
- Public school library stock—books per pupil
- Microcomputers in public schools
- Public opinion ratings
- Comparison of public and teacher opinions of problems
- Leader: hip/expectations/climate
- Teacher job satisfaction
- Student attendance
- Crime/violence
- Use of time outside the school
- Homework and student cumulative grade averages
- Enrollments by type of curriculum
- Student mobility
- Student population characteristics
- Student enrollments by age
- State required Carnegie units—national trends
- State required Carnegie units—by subject areas
- High school graduation—national trends
- Testing in grades 1-6 and high school graduation (by state)
- Teacher certification requirements
- Teacher competency testing
- Teacher incentives
- Teacher attendance
- Student enrollments—percentages of school age population
- Span of administrative responsibility
- Community participation
- School bond and levy passage rates
- Instructional process
- Academic learning time
- Functional literacy
- Computer literacy
Each spring one person is selected from among several million American elementary and secondary classroom teachers to illustrate excellence in teaching. This National Teacher of the Year, who is chosen in order to honor sound teaching practices rather than any single "best" teacher, is recognized at a White House ceremony.

The search for National Teacher of the Year begins at the state level. Within each state, any school—elementary through secondary—can nominate a candidate for state teacher of the year. States generally have their own methods for selection, but a committee of distinguished educators is the typical route. These 50 state teachers of the year become the candidates for the National Teacher of the Year. Once the candidates are known, the Council of Chief State School Officers (a national sponsor along with the Encyclopaedia Britannica Companies and Good Housekeeping magazine) appoints a committee to review these state nominees. The committee then chooses four finalists, conducts intensive interviews, and names one as National Teacher of the Year. The teacher is notified each year in March.

Information about the program is available from the Council of Chief State School Officers, 379 Hall of the States, 400 North Capitol Street, Washington, DC 20001, (202) 624-5883.
After World War I, America's Selective Service Agency came up with two dismal statistics: about 25 percent of our draftees were illiterate and another 29 percent were physically unfit. To bring these and other education-related problems to national attention, a campaign was begun in 1919 by the American Legion, the National Education Association, and the U.S. Office of Education.

In 1923, the campaign became an annual observance known as American Education Week, celebrated on the first full week preceding Thanksgiving. Two more sponsors have since joined the effort: the PTA in 1938 and the National School Boards Association in 1980.

The observance begins with a national proclamation drawing on to the needs and achievements of American schools. Usually, the National Education Association announces a theme for the week. How the seven days are observed is largely a local matter. Schools and school districts use the week in many ways: to bring parents into the school, make students more aware of what schools are doing for them, and strengthen community support. Also, the week gives educators and citizens an opportunity to air issues affecting local schools such as budget decisions, curriculum, and student discipline.

Whether used as an occasion to reaffirm support for the schools or as a platform for public discussion, American Education Week is essentially a national occasion for acknowledging the value of education.
National Distinguished Principals Program

Jointly organized and sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education and the National Association of Elementary School Principals, the National Distinguished Principals program is based on two important research findings:

First, that children's taste for learning is essentially set in the beginning school years; and second, that more than any other single factor, it is the leadership of the principal that determines a school's quality.

The program honors principals from every state and the District of Columbia chosen by their peers in NAESP's state affiliates as being representative of exemplary K-8 leadership. Also honored are 266 principal from Puerto Rico and two each from private education, Department of Defense Overseas Schools, and schools abroad associated with the U.S. Department of State—all chosen by panels representing those entities.

The call for nominations is issued in early spring by the U.S. Secretary of Education and the Executive Director of NAESP. Selections are made by mid-June and those chosen attend an awards banquet and other ceremonies in Washington, D.C. in October.

While nominations are handled only by NAESP's state affiliates, general information may be obtained from NAESP itself at 1920 Association Drive, Reston, VA 22091, (703) 620-6100.
The Pledge of Allegiance to the Flag

I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States of America and to the republic for which it stands, one nation under God, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all.

Using this current official version, or slightly different wording, schoolchildren for generations have repeated the stirring pledge to the flag, an affirmation of faith in America. Most states by law call for its use on appropriate occasions in public schools, though exceptions on religious grounds have been upheld by the U.S. Supreme Court.

The pledge first appeared in a September 1892 issue of Youth's Companion, a weekly magazine published in Boston. A month later, it was used in the dedication ceremony for the World's Fair Grounds in Chicago. Two national flag conferences (1923-1924) changed the wording slightly. For example, "my flag" became "the flag of the United States of America." Congress officially endorsed the pledge in 1945. President Eisenhower in 1954 signed a law adding the words "under God." No changes have since been made.

Authorship was debated for many years, and standard references still differ on the subject. Youth's Companion claimed in 1917 that the original draft had been written by one of its executives, James B. Upham, who later condensed and refined it with staff assistance. Francis Bellamy, a former editorial writer on the magazine, claimed authorship in 1923. The United States Flag Association (1939) and the Library of Congress (1957) supported Bellamy's claim.

Whoever wrote it, the pledge is a rousing tribute to the Stars and Stripes, which first became associated with our education system when it was flown over a schoolhouse in Colrain, Massachusetts, in 1812.
The parents of a kindergarten student were greatly upset because their little boy had not yet uttered a word. After consulting with the child's teacher, principal, school psychologist, and their own medical specialists, the parents had almost given up hope that their child would ever speak. One morning, however, the child said matter of factly, "This oatmeal is too hot." The parents jumped for joy, shed tears of happiness, hugged their son, and then asked him why he hadn't said something before. He replied, "Up to now everything's been all right."

Some time ago a businessman told the story of his return to visit a one-room schoolhouse in upstate New York after having been away for more than 25 years. He drove out to the spot where he remembered the schoolhouse to be, and there it was, looking just as it had when he was a pupil there. He looked in the front window, and who should he see but his old teacher, Mrs. Franklin, standing in front of the room. Taking a deep breath, he opened the door, walked down the room, and stood in front of the teacher's desk. She looked him over with a cold eye and said, in a voice he remembered well, "Bob Jackson, the next time you are excused to go out back, don't stay so long."

If a principal's bookshelf contained a row of volumes that were collected at the rate of one a year for each year of his career, they might read, from left to right: Teaching As a Career; The School-Aged Child; Practical Child Psychology; Fathoming the Grade School Mind; Whither Our Children? Administration and Supervision for Better Schools; The Urban Principal; Peace of Mind Can Be Yours; How to Come to Terms with Life; Ulcers—Cause, Detection, and Treatment; How to Retire at an Early Age.

A kindergarten teacher was lining up her children to go to an assembly and one little boy was really bugging her. She was trying to be as pleasant as possible, but pretty soon she lost patience with him and said, "Johnny, I want you to go to the end of the line." He turned around and she got busy with something else but a minute later he was right beside her again. "Johnny," she said, "I thought I told you to go to the end of the line." He looked at her and replied, "I tried to but there was already somebody there."
The board of education was interviewing for the position of superintendent. They had three finalists—a philosopher, a math major, and a business manager. The last question they asked was, “How much is two and two?” The philosopher went into a long discourse on the philosophy of mathematics and the closest he could come was somewhere between four and five. The math major got out his calculator and said, “Ladies and gentlemen, I can unequivocally state that it’s four.” The business manager got up and whispered in the board chairman’s ear, “Come on out in the hall.” Once they were there, he said to the board chairman, “This two and two, what do you want it to add up to?”

One principal recently told the story about the husband of a newly married teacher. Upon introducing the substitute teacher who had taken over his wife’s class while the young couple were on their honeymoon, the husband made this remark: “Meet Miss Anderson. She substituted for my wife while we were on our honeymoon.”

A youngster went fishing for the first time with his father, a principal. They anchored their boat near the middle of the Ohio River, and the father remarked to the son, “I certainly hope we find a school of fish.” When the fish began to bite a short time later, the youngster said, “Dad, do you think we are in a school of fish?” The father said, “Yes.” A few minutes later the youngster hauled into the boat one of the ugliest, meanest looking river mud cats ever caught and said proudly, “Dad, I think I’ve caught the superintendent.”

A superintendent from a western state had quite a large hill, almost a mountain, behind his office. Sometimes he would stand just at the edge of a sheer precipice contemplating the world and its problems and how things were going in the education business. One day while standing on the edge of this precipice, he slipped and started to fall. Just as he went over the edge, he grabbed a tiny, little branch. There he was hanging over this sheer cliff with nothing between him and a long fall but this branch; nobody else was up there. He didn’t know what to do, so he kept hanging on with both hands to that twig. Eventually, out of desperation, he looked up toward the sky and asked, “Is there anybody up there that can help me?” Much to his surprise, a voice answered, “Yes, my son, I can help you.” Vastly relieved, the superintendent said, “Well, help me, help me.” And the voice said, “First, my son, I will need to know if you have faith.” Well, the superintendent was no dumb bunny; he said, “Yes, yes, I have faith. Help me.” The voice said, “My son, if you have faith, let go of the twig.” The superintendent thought about that awhile, looked up toward the sky and implored, “Is there anybody else up there that can help me?”

In working with the state department of education and with its seemingly endless red tape, one school administrator noted that the perfect department of education bureaucrat is the man who manages to make no decisions and escape all responsibility.
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