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ISSUES FACING AMERICAN EDUCATION

As we try to reestablish the historical relationships between the States and the Federal Government in the area of education, there are a number of important issues that face the educational system in the United States. These are an outgrowth of the Government-sponsored programs that began with the Great Society and of the expectations that these engendered in a large part of the American public. This brief paper will discuss five issues that are important in 1982 -- the quality of education; the financing of education; education in mathematics and science; technology in education; and the values presented in education.

QUALITY

The declining quality of American education is well documented. One of the most widely viewed indicators, although not the only one, is the decline in the Scholastic Aptitude Test scores, since these examinations are taken annually by almost all students desiring to go to college. In the last twenty years, the average test scores in mathematics have dropped from 502 in 1963 to 466 in 1980, while the average test scores in verbal ability have declined from 478 to about 430 over the same period.

There are at least two reasons for this decline. First, there has been an emphasis on modifying the goals of our schools. Prior to 1960, the major concern of the schools was the preparation of the student in reading, writing, thinking, communicating skills and factual knowledge. After 1960, stimulated by the large increases in Federal support for education, the goals became much broader to include the child's social and psychological development and assist him or her adjust to life. There was a decrease in the teaching of the traditional core subjects and an increase in special interest topics, such as film making, the lyrics of rock music, shop, and television viewing.

The second major factor was the emphasis on equality in education. Although very few people reject the concept of equality, and Americans

traditionally have been concerned with giving everyone an equal chance to excel, the concept of equality has changed over the last two decades. At the beginning of the 1960's as the size and number of Federal programs began to increase, equality meant providing everyone an equal opportunity to do well. Later, the concept changed to mean equality of results. This led first to the support of remedial and other assistance types of programs, then to supplemental funding for schools in economically-deprived areas, then to busing for racial equality, and finally to preferential treatment for those who historically had been deprived. The result was to develop programs for the low achieving student rather than gearing programs for the more academically advanced, to deemphasize advancement based on achievement and replace it in many instances with social promotions, and to substitute socialization activities and broad-based courses for the more traditional, and often more rigorous, courses in the curriculum.

There are a number of issues that must be explored as we reemphasize quality of education. How do we define quality? How do we put more stress on content when our schools are staffed by teachers who have been trained more in methods than content? What are the respective roles for the local community, the State and the Federal Government in defining, implementing and operating a quality program? What lessons can America learn from other advanced countries that are acknowledged to have high-quality education programs, and how do their approaches match the social, political and historically-rooted system of the United States?

FINANCE

Until the 1960's schools operated largely within the framework of local decision-making. Local control meant that all concerned elements in a community -- parents, teachers, business, civic and church leaders -- could meet and reach a consensus on the support for and operation of local schools. Further, there usually was agreement among these elements as to what should be taught in a basic curriculum. This has changed to a large extent with the vast expansion of Federal Government programs. As the money to develop new programs, introduce curriculum changes, train teachers, and support students

has come to a greater extent from the Federal Government, that Government has very naturally exercised more control over the schools.

Freedom of choice, which has been at the heart of American education, only exists when meaningful alternatives are available. If there are no acceptable options or if one cannot afford to exercise them, one does not have a choice. Finance is the key to the creation of a pluralistic system. If parents have the power to determine who receives the money to educate their children, then they possess a strong motivator to have the schools respond to their wishes and needs. Tuition tax credits and educational vouchers are two means for giving parents more economic control to create and exercise choice in education. This is true at the elementary and secondary level where there is a strong similarity among public schools, as well as at the college and university level where students' options are limited because of the high and rapidly rising costs of education.

There are a number of issues that should be explored, including: What would be the costs of these programs to the Federal Government, to the States, and to the local communities? What effects would these types of financing arrangements have on the stability of local schools? How would parents exercise their economic power? Would these programs decrease the cost to parents for education in the private schools or would it cause the schools to increase their tuitions? How would the free-market concepts actually work in education?

MATH AND SCIENCE

Only one-third of the high school students in the United States take three years or more of mathematics. Among high school students in college-preparatory programs only 19% take physics and 37% chemistry; among students in general or vocational programs the percentages are much lower. Not only is the amount of preparation in these subjects very low, the United States does not have an adequate number of teachers trained in these subjects to carry out the increased instruction, even if we chose to do so. In Chicago, for example, it is reported that there is only one qualified science

teacher for every two high schools in the city. In 1981-82, of the teachers employed nationwide to teach science and mathematics, 50 percent were unqualified or were teaching with emergency certificates; for the Pacific states this percentage rises to 84 percent. In 1980-81, five times as many mathematics and science teachers left teaching for employment in non-teaching jobs than retired.

In contrast, the USSR, East Germany, France, Japan and the People's Republic of China, countries we are competing with either militarily or economically, all place a great emphasis on mathematics and science education in the elementary and secondary schools. Science and math education begin in the first grade in these countries and continue through elementary and secondary schools, with all students required to take courses in biology, chemistry, physics and earth science, as well as mathematics. The time spent on these subjects, based on class hours, is approximately three times that of a student in the United States who elects four years of science and mathematics in secondary school. Science education is considered so important in the People's Republic of China that policies for it are written into the country's constitution. Many of the leading scientists and mathematicians in the USSR, including the astronaut Yurie Gagarin and the world-famous mathematician A.N. Kolmogorov, teach children at least part-time in Soviet schools. This does not say that the United States should copy the programs of other countries, but we should seriously consider them for the lessons we may learn. This is especially true because technology, and the mathematics and science knowledge needed to deal with technology, underlie the military security and economic well being of every advanced nation.

Questions that should be explored include: How do we improve the quality and amount of education in mathematics and science in the elementary and secondary schools? How do we encourage qualified people to teach precollege mathematics and science, and how do we retain them after they begin? How do we develop mathematics and science courses for our high schools that are of interest and benefit for the general citizen, and serve not only the preprofessional needs of those desiring careers in mathematics, science or engineering? This is essential so that the citizens of the United States can be educated to a level that would allow them to participate wisely in the

affairs of our science- and technology-based society. There are a series of other constraints, such as school financing, declining enrollments, teacher tenure, teacher salaries and differential pay, and the broader purposes of a general education that also should be studied, as the teaching of precollege mathematics and science is explored.

TECHNOLOGY

There is a growing movement in this country to apply technology to the problems of education. If the Technology Education Bill, which has gained widespread support in Congress, is passed, every elementary and secondary school in the country will receive a microcomputer from the manufacturers. The Secretary of Education has set technology as one of his two programmatic priorities, and expects to mount a \$16 million program in this area. There is no doubt that technology can bring significant benefits to education. At the same time, if the technology is not properly developed, applied and adopted, it can bring about greater problems than it solves. The use of technology can, in particular, clash with our need for diversity, a concept that is fundamental to the practice of democracy. Diversity is especially important in education since education shapes a person's values and thus has a major effect on his future actions. While technology has often had the long-term effect of expanding the number of options available, in the initial stages of its application the need for large capital investments has often led to a centralization of control and a reduction of meaningful options.

In order for technology to be effective, especially since the media rather than the "live" instructor carries the burden of presenting the instruction, technology requires the development of high-quality materials. These are time consuming and expensive to produce. High-quality TV programming, for instance, costs several thousand dollars per minute to produce; even a moderate-quality program on a computer can cost several thousand dollars for each instructional hour. Further, high levels of expenditures are also required for the hardware and facilities, for support of the personnel, and for the training of those personnel as materials producers, media specialists, instructional designers and managers, and

utilization specialists. Simultaneous with the rising costs are the continuing trends toward school consolidation and the centralization of decision-making for purchases, funding and resource allocation.

Centralized financing and the centralized control which generally follows from it do not necessarily imply an increase in uniformity of programs or a curtailment of individual rights or local decision-making. The point is that the centralization of financing and control offers more potential for abuse and for less responsiveness to local needs and desires. This does not mean we should ignore the use of technology in education. We cannot. We must develop and apply technology to improve the quality and availability of education throughout the country, while assuring that people at the local level can choose how and whether it should be used.

A series of points should be investigated with respect to the promotion of technology in education. What role should the Federal Government have in this activity? How can technology be developed and applied to increase the choices people have rather than reducing them? What is the appropriate relationship among the Federal Government, the States and private enterprise in the development and promotion of technology-based instructional materials? What sort of legal, administrative, policy and political safeguards exist to protect the rights of parents and students as technology is introduced?

VALUES

Perhaps no issue is more divisive and causes more controversy in education than the teaching of values. Every educational system in every country tries to instill values in its students in addition to educating them in subject matter. In America, these values have traditionally included respect for authority, good manners, a sense of decency, love of country and the elements of good citizenship. Recently, however, values education (also termed values clarification or moral education) has become a specific educational discipline, a discipline based on moral relativism.

The techniques being promoted today are based exclusively on materialistic concerns found in human nature, and ignore the moral order based on the existence and concern of a personal God. In the attempt to obey the First Amendment and to assure separation of Church and State, the courts, and the educators who have interpreted the courts' decisions, have eliminated all forms of religious recognition from the schools. Prayers, no matter how universal, have been banned; the singing of Christmas carols have been stopped; and even as commercial a symbol as a Christmas tree has been eliminated in certain schools. The effects in the curriculum and textbook areas have been even more severe. The result has been the establishment of a humanistic atmosphere, totally devoid of any reference or acknowledgement of the existence of God, no matter how God is viewed and worshipped.

The absolute refusal to acknowledge God, however, is the promotion of values based on the absence of God, that is, on secular humanism. Centuries ago the Arabs made a major contribution to intellectual thought by inventing the number zero to represent the absence of any quantity. They recognized that the absence of something should be treated the same as the presence of something, so that the number zero is as valid and is treated mathematically the same as any number representing the presence of quantity. A belief based on the total absence of an Almighty Being is as much a belief as one based on the presence of one; secular humanism is as much a religion as any of the God-centered religions of the world.

There are a number of important questions that should be explored in this area. How do you protect the rights of the minority in theistic matters, without infringing on the rights of the majority? How do you assure that public schools do not advocate a particular religious belief without promoting secular humanism? What are the legal opinions regarding school prayer and the discussion of God in the classroom, and how can these be implemented in harmony with the rights of parents and the mores of the community? How do you assure that those who are affected by the education provided -- parents, students and others -- can develop the goals for which the education is offered, so that the education is based on their needs, desires, values and beliefs, while allowing the teachers and school administrators the opportunity to choose the means to carry out the

established goals? When parents reject the public school system and establish their own schools, as in the Christian School movement, what sort of minimum standards must they maintain? How much authority does the local or State school board have to impose minimum standards? What right does a student have to be omitted from a school activity, as differentiated from his right to be included? What are the long-term effects of programs like values clarification and moral education on the home-instilled values of the student? If secular humanism is accepted as a system of religious beliefs, what authority does the Federal Government have to support programs in this area?

June 18, 1982

RECENTLY APPOINTED NIE EXCEPTED SERVICE STAFF

Tom Ascik: Director of Planning and Program Development, Office of the Director

Tom earned his B.A. at St. John's College in Annapolis, Maryland, and then served as an officer in the Marine Corps, where one of his duties was the teaching of high school equivalency courses. Following the Marine Corps, he taught high school English. Subsequently Tom worked at the Heritage Foundation as public policy analyst for four years. He then accepted a position as Special Assistant to the Director of the Executive Secretariat in the Office of the Secretary of Education.

Mike Brunner: Senior Associate, Teaching and Learning Program

Mike received his B.S. in music history from the University of Texas and his M.L.S. in library science from North Texas State University and completed a year of postgraduate study at the University of Vienna. He taught library science for six years at Central Washington University and East Tennessee State University. Mike was a Title I consultant for the Idaho State Department of Education for eight years and, in addition, provided extensive inservice training for teachers in a number of other states. He also planned and coordinated state, regional and national conferences on reading and Title I and conducted workshops for the Idaho Reading Council and the Idaho Council for the Teaching of English.

Dennis Cuddy: School Finance Program, Educational Policy and Organization Program

Dennis earned his B.A. in history with credits equivalent for a minor in mathematics from North Carolina State University. He was permitted to skip the M.A. program and earned his Ph.D. in American history and political science in 1976. Dennis has since divided his time between teaching at the University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, writing and conducting political risk analysis for the international consulting firm, Frost and Sullivan. He has been certified in computer science and social statistics, and he has published four books and 40 articles in addition to preparing a paper for the State of North Carolina on the functions and services of that State's Department of Public Instruction.

Paul Goldsmith: Senior Associate for Special Projects, Office of the Director

Paul received his B.A. from the University of Michigan and his M.A. from the M.I.T. Sloane Business School. He was an industrial relations specialist at the Raytheon Company and at CBS; he also worked in training, development and organization at the corporate headquarters of the Sylvania Company in New York City. He was chairman of the Business and Education Committee of the Business and Industry Association of New Hampshire and a member and chairman of the New Hampshire Governor's Council on Vocational and Technical Education. Paul presently serves as an Advisory Trustee for the National School Committee for Economic Education. He is the President of Education, Evaluation and Research Services, Inc., and the Director of Basic Economics and Free Enterprise Studies, two non-profit corporations located in New Hampshire.

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Sharon received her B.A. at the University of California at Davis and her M.A. in education from the University of San Francisco. She taught math and social studies for eight years in junior high and high schools. She was a speaker at conferences on math teaching and at California State teacher conventions. Sharon also helped develop math curriculum for low ability minority students in California.

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Patricia received her B.A. in English from the University of South Carolina and her M.A. in English from the University of Virginia. She taught junior high and high school English composition and literature, and twice headed the committee to determine junior high English curriculum. After several years in management in private industry, she returned to teaching at the University of South Carolina. Patricia also wrote and produced documentaries for educational television in South Carolina.

Sharon Horn: Associate Director, Educational Policy & Organization Program

Sherry received her B.A. in business administration from the University of Georgia, her M.Ed. in curriculum and instruction from Texas A&M University, and her Ph.D. in curriculum and instruction, with a concentration in economics and curriculum development from the University of Texas at Austin. She taught undergraduate courses in business and economics at Southwest Texas State University and undergraduate and graduate courses

in economics in the MBA program at the University of Texas. She has also served as a consultant in the area of economic education for a number of local public school districts throughout Texas.

Dorothy Parker: Deputy Associate Director, Teaching and Learning Program

Dorothy received her B.S. from Cheney State College and her M.Ed. from Temple University, both in Pennsylvania, and her Ed.D. in educational administration from Vanderbilt University. She taught at the elementary level for 17 years in Pennsylvania, Washington, D.C., and Virginia. In Fairfax County, Virginia, Dorothy participated in the Elementary Education Advisory Council, Faculty Advisory Councils, and served as faculty sponsor for various student committees.

Roan Garcia-Quintana: Deputy Associate Director, Dissemination & Improvement of Practice

Roan received his B.S. in mathematics from Armstrong State College and his M.S. in probability and statistics from the University of South Carolina. He is a Ph.D. candidate in educational research and measurement/applied statistics at the University of South Carolina. He worked for four years in the South Carolina Department of Youth Services' Office of Research, Planning and Evaluation as a statistician. The following four years he worked in the South Carolina Department of Education Office of Research as a statistician. Roan was in charge of South Carolina's psychometric analysis of its Basic Skills Assessment program. He is a member of and made presentations at meetings of the American Educational Research Association, National Council of Measurement in Education, the Southeastern Psychological Association, the American Statistical Association, and the Eastern Educational Research Association.

Betty Ruppert: Deputy Associate Director, Educational Policy and Organization Program

Betty received her Ph.D. from American University in special education. Her outside field of concentration was clinical psychology. After working as editor-in-chief of Author and Journalist magazine, she taught elementary school. She received an M.Ed. in counseling and worked as an elementary school counselor in Prince George's County, Maryland. Betty has worked with programs involving desegregation, busing, and career education. She has conducted workshops in transactional analysis as well as in the areas of principal/teacher and teacher/student interactions. As a member of the Fairfax County/Falls Church Mental Health and Mental Retardation

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Carol earned her B.S. in merchandising and her M.S. in guidance and counseling from Barry College in Florida. Carol was the Director of Guidance at Immaculata-LaSalle High School in Miami and has ten years teaching and administrative experience in the Archdiocese of Miami. She worked in the Women's Equity Act Program as an Education Program Specialist monitoring grants relating to the needs of minority women. Carol is a member of the American Personnel and Guidance Association.

HUDSON INSTITUTE

U.S. PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOL EDUCATION:
PAST, PRESENT & IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

by

Frank E. Armbruster

Prepared for

"Our Children's Education: A Time for Reform"
Sponsored by
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WITH SOME EXCEPTIONS, THE TREND IN ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT IN OUR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS DURING THE LATE 1960S AND 1970S WAS DOWNWARD, FOR ALL SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND COMPETENCE LEVELS.

THE AVERAGE ACADEMIC COMPETENCE OF THE BRIGHTER STUDENTS, AND THOSE FROM AFFLUENT NEIGHBORHOODS, WITH WELL-EDUCATED PARENTS AND HOMES FULL OF BOOKS, OFTEN FELL FASTER THAN DID THAT OF LESS BRIGHT STUDENTS AND THOSE FROM USUALLY LESS AFFLUENT CENTRAL CITIES.

CALIFORNIA STATE TESTING PROGRAM RESULTS

GRADE 6

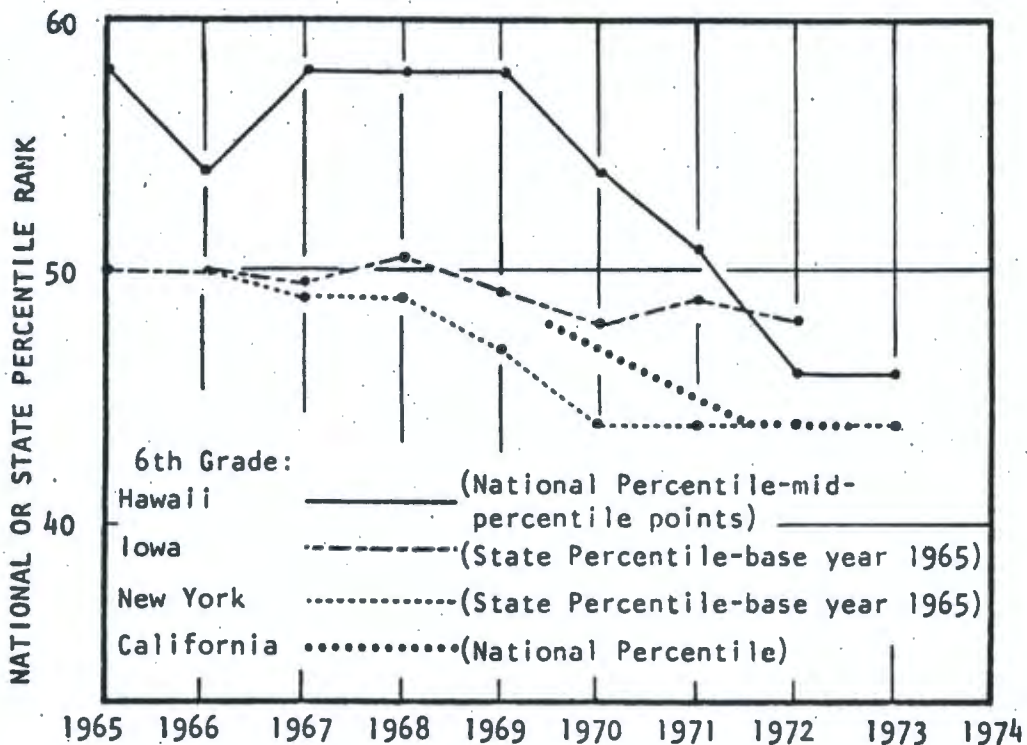
	Reading				Language				Spelling				Arithmetic			
	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972	1972-1973	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972	1972-1973	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972	1972-1973	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972	1972-1973
75TH PERCENTILE	71.8	71.4	70.5	70.6	68.4	67.9	66.5	66.7	25.7	25.7	25.5	25.4	84.8	83.2	81.5	81.6
State Raw Score																
Publisher's Percentile Rank	74	72	72	72	68	68	65	65	73	73	73	64	74	68	65	65
25TH PERCENTILE	45.7	45.3	43.7	44.3	44.3	43.2	41.0	41.2	17.6	17.3	16.4	16.3	58.9	56.1	52.9	53.6
State Raw Score																
Publisher's Percentile Rank	24	23	21	21	21	19	17	17	22	19	16	16	24	21	18	19

GRADE 12

	Reading				Expression				Spelling				Quantitative			
	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972	1972-1973	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972	1972-1973	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972	1972-1973	1969-1970	1970-1971	1971-1972	1972-1973
75TH PERCENTILE	29.8	29.4	28.8	28.1	50.8	49.8	48.4	47.3	11.1	11.0	10.7	10.5	19.0	18.7	18.4	18.3
State Raw Score																
Publisher's Percentile Rank	74	71	71	67	68	65	60	57	72	72	72	72	77	77	74	74
25TH PERCENTILE	15.4	15.1	14.9	14.6	30.3	29.6	28.6	27.7	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.0	8.8	8.6	8.5	8.4
State Raw Score																
Publisher's Percentile Rank	24	24	24	24	22	22	21	19	26	26	26	26	25	25	25	20

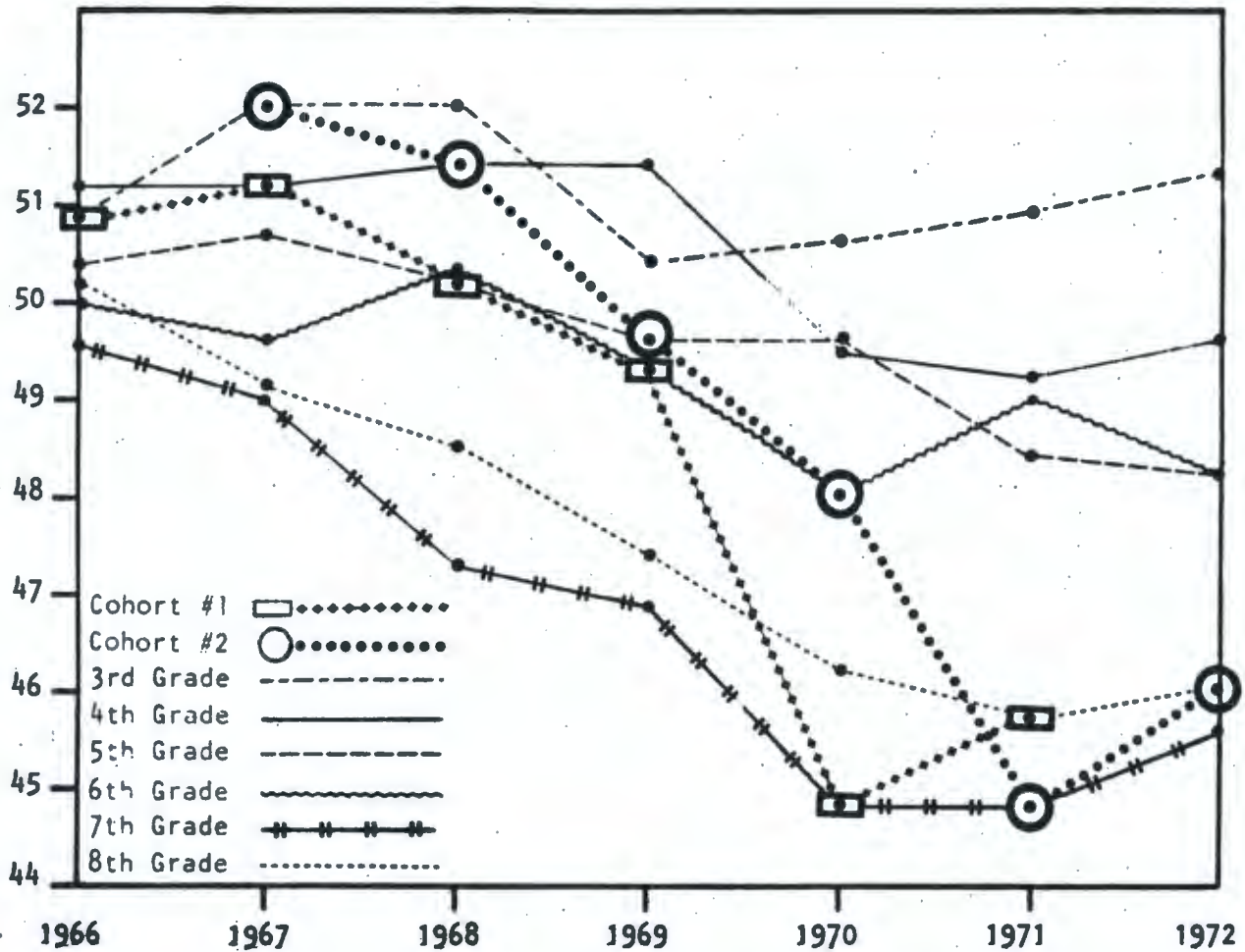
California State Testing Program 1971-72 & 1972-73, California State Department of Education, Office of Program Evaluation and Research, 1974

READING ACHIEVEMENT SCORES OF SIXTH GRADES, 1965-1973*



Summary Report of Statewide Testing Program 1972-1973, Report No. 83, Office of Instructional Services, Evaluation Section, Hawaii State Department of Education, October 1973; Iowa Basic Skills Testing Program, The University of Iowa; The University of the State of New York, State Education Department, Bureau of Testing and Advisory Services, Pupil Evaluation Program; California State Testing Program 1971-72 & 1972-73, California State Department of Education, Office of Program Evaluation and Research, 1974

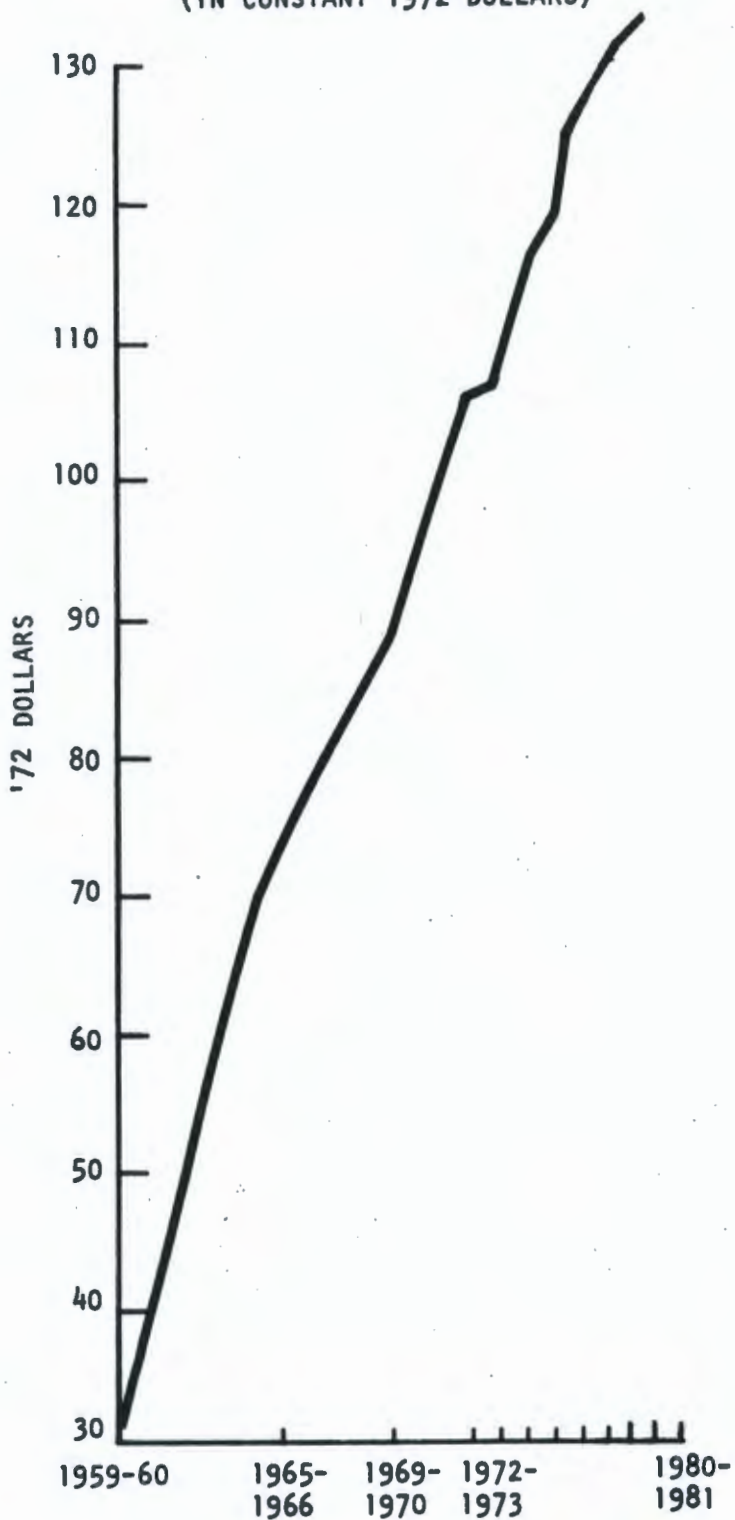
READING SKILL PROGRESS OF PUPIL COHORTS AND TRACES OF READING ACHIEVEMENT SCORES FOR THIRD THROUGH EIGHTH GRADES, IOWA, 1966-1972 (1965 "BASE-YEAR" PERCENTILE RANKS*)



*The fiftieth percentile point for each grade in 1965 is the starting point.

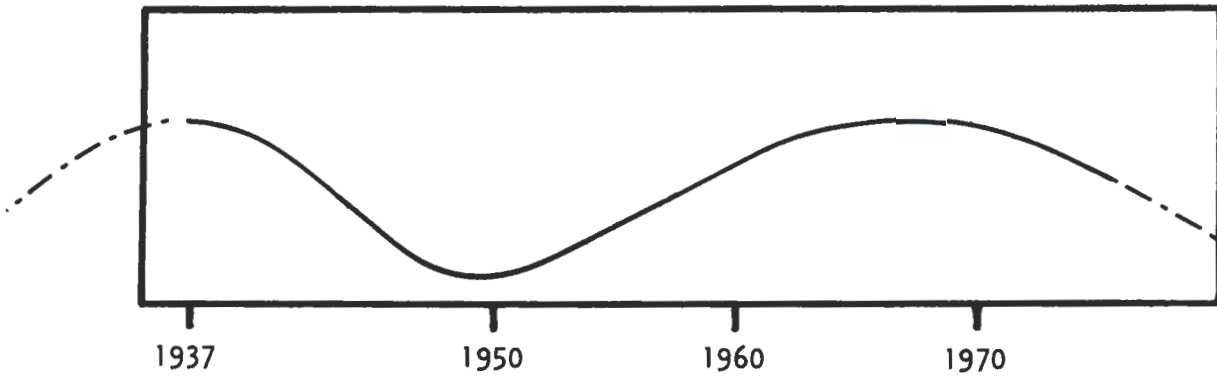
Iowa Basic Skills Testing Program, The University of Iowa.

FEDERAL EXPENDITURES PER PUPIL IN AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE
IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS
(IN CONSTANT 1972 DOLLARS)

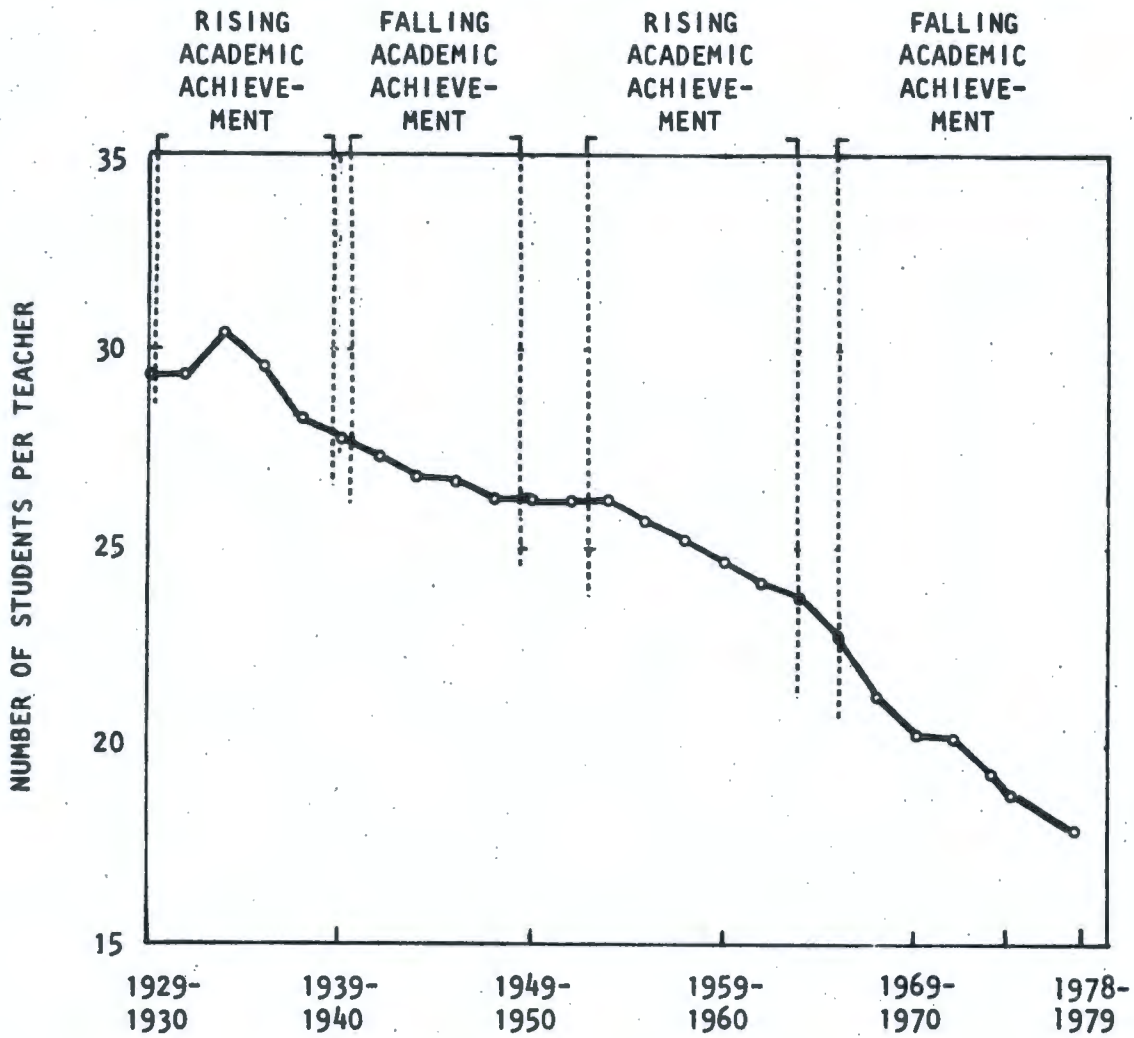


SOURCE: U.S. STATISTICAL ABSTRACT 1979,
TABLE NO. 215, P. 137; DIGEST OF
EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS, TABLE 33,
P. 40. RECENT DATA SUPPLIED BY
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS.

APPARENT LONG-TERM CYCLICAL ACHIEVEMENT CURVE



U.S. STUDENT/TEACHER RATIO IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY
AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS, AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE, 1929-30 - 1978-79

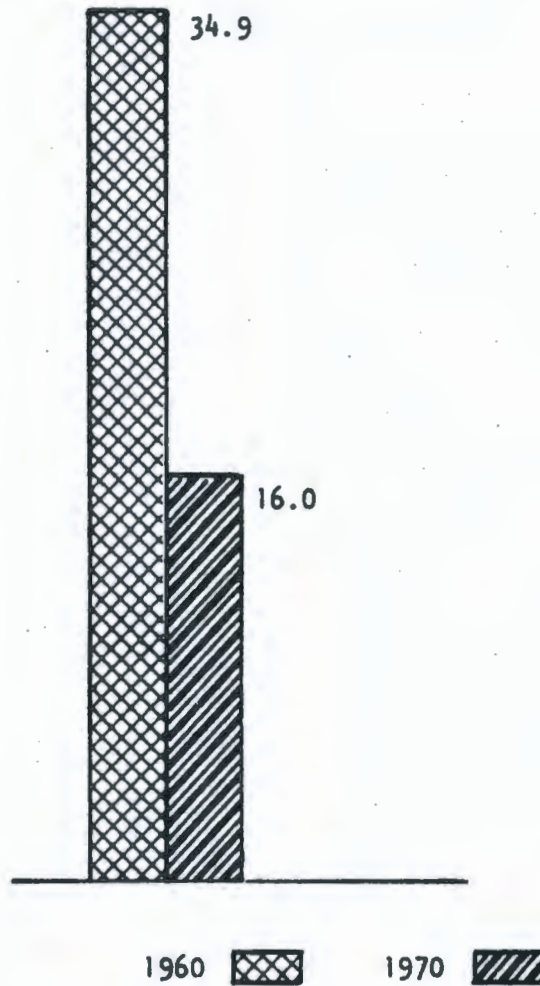


WEST VIRGINIA

SPENT ONLY \$1,100 PER PUPIL ANNUALLY IN 1975-76 (COMPARED TO \$2,234 FOR NEW YORK AND \$1,318 FOR CALIFORNIA).

IS ONE OF THE FEW SCHOOL SYSTEMS WHICH MAINTAINED THEIR STANDING THROUGH 1970-1974 IN GRADES 3, 6, 9 AND 11 AND ALSO WAS NOT FAR FROM 1965 NATIONAL AVERAGE OF ACHIEVEMENT ACCORDING TO A NATIONALLY ADMINISTERED TEST.

PERCENT OF COHORT KEPT BACK
ONE YEAR AND/OR DROPPED OUT
BY THE ELEVENTH GRADE



U.S. BUREAU OF THE CENSUS, STATIS-
TICAL ABSTRACT OF THE UNITED STATES:
1973 (WASH.: G.P.O. 1973), P. 121.

TRADITIONAL ACADEMIC REQUIREMENTS FOR MANUAL ARTS PROGRAM
IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF LARGE EASTERN STATES IN THE 1930S

- 2 YEARS OF HIGHER MATH (ALGEBRA AND GEOMETRY)
- 2 YEARS OF A FOREIGN LANGUAGE (LATIN, FRENCH,
GERMAN, SOMETIMES SPANISH)
- 2 YEARS OF SCIENCE (GENERAL SCIENCE AND BIOLOGY)
- 3 YEARS OF HISTORY (ANCIENT, EUROPEAN AND AMERICAN)
- 4 YEARS OF ENGLISH (GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION,
CLASSICAL ENGLISH AND AMERICAN LITERATURE, ETC.)
- 1 YEAR OF GOVERNMENT

THEN THE STUDENT COULD TAKE MANUAL ARTS COURSES.

ACADEMIC PROGRAM REQUIRED 4 YEARS OF SCIENCE, ETC.
STUDENTS IN THE ACADEMIC PROGRAM WERE ENCOURAGED TO TAKE
(AND ALL STUDENTS--EVEN BUSINESS AND MANUAL ARTS STUDENTS
--COULD TAKE) 4 YEARS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE, MATHEMATICS, ETC.

WHICH THREE OF THESE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS WOULD YOU LIKE YOUR LOCAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (GRADES 1-6) TO GIVE MORE ATTENTION TO (IN ORDER OF MENTION):

- 1. TEACHING STUDENTS THE SKILLS OF READING, WRITING, AND ARITHMETIC
2. TEACHING STUDENTS HOW TO SOLVE PROBLEMS AND THINK FOR THEMSELVES
3. TEACHING STUDENTS TO RESPECT LAW AND AUTHORITY
4. TEACHING STUDENTS HOW TO GET ALONG WITH OTHERS
5. TEACHING STUDENTS THE SKILLS OF SPEAKING AND LISTENING
6. TEACHING STUDENTS VOCATIONAL SKILLS
7. TEACHING STUDENTS HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION
8. TEACHING STUDENTS ABOUT THE WORLD OF TODAY AND YESTERDAY (THAT IS, HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY AND CIVICS)
9. TEACHING STUDENTS HOW TO COMPETE WITH OTHERS

GALLUP OPINION INDEX, REPORT 87, SEPTEMBER 1972.

THE ACCOUNTABILITY OF THE SCHOOL FOR STUDENTS' PROGRESS

WOULD YOU FAVOR OR OPPOSE A SYSTEM THAT WOULD HOLD TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS MORE ACCOUNTABLE FOR THE PROGRESS OF STUDENTS?

	NATIONAL TOTALS	NO CHILDREN IN SCHOOL	PUBLIC SCHOOL PARENTS	PAROCHIAL SCHOOL PARENTS	HIGH SCHOOL JUNIORS AND SENIORS
FAVOR	67%	66%	68%	71%	65%
OPPOSE	21	21	21	19	29
NO OPINION	12	13	11	10	6
	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>	<u>100</u>

GALLUP OPINION INDEX, REPORT NO. 66, DECEMBER 1970, P. 18

MAJOR PROBLEMS CONFRONTING THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN 1972

BASED UPON THE NUMBER OF MENTIONS TO THE OPEN QUESTION, "WHAT DO YOU THINK ARE THE BIGGEST PROBLEMS WITH WHICH THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN THIS COMMUNITY MUST DEAL?", THE TOP PROBLEMS ARE AS FOLLOWS:

1. LACK OF DISCIPLINE
2. LACK OF PROPER FINANCIAL SUPPORT
3. INTEGRATION-SEGREGATION PROBLEMS
4. DIFFICULTY OF GETTING "GOOD" TEACHERS
5. LARGE SCHOOL, TOO LARGE CLASSES
6. PARENTS' LACK OF INTEREST
7. LACK OF PROPER FACILITIES
- 8. POOR CURRICULUM
9. USE OF DOPE, DRUGS

GALLUP OPINION INDEX, REPORT 87, SEPTEMBER 1972, P. 17.

INCREASED EXPENDITURES ON SCHOOLS MIGHT NOT ONLY HAVE BEEN NON-PRODUCTIVE, OFTEN THEY MIGHT ACTUALLY HAVE BEEN COUNTER-PRODUCTIVE. SOME CAUSED ALREADY-REDUCED ACADEMIC INSTRUCTION TIME TO BE USED FOR NON-ACADEMIC, OR LOW-ACADEMIC CONTENT ACTIVITIES. OTHERS TENDED TO SUPPORT THE "GIMMICKRY" WHICH ACTIVIST EDUCATORS SPONSORED AND WHICH ALLOWED THEM TO CLAIM THEY WERE IMPROVING EDUCATION, THUS DIVERTING ATTENTION FROM, AND AVOIDING MEETING HEAD-ON, THE MORE DEMANDING WORK OF TEACHING CHILDREN THE SUBJECTS THEY MUST KNOW TO GET ALONG IN LATER LIFE.

FEDERAL, STATE AND LOCAL EXPENDITURES, THE INPUTS TO SCHOOLS, SHOULD BE JUDGED BY THEIR EFFECT ON THE OUTPUT OF THE SCHOOLS, THE ACADEMIC COMPETENCE OF THE PUPILS LEAVING THEM, ACCORDING TO NORM-REFERENCED STANDARDIZED TESTS. THIS SHOULD BE DONE BY COMPARING THE ENTIRE SCHOOL POPULATION OF A STATE OR A SCHOOL DISTRICT WITH ITSELF OVER TIME, AND CLOSELY MONITORING THE TRENDS IN ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT. IF THE TREND IS DOWN, OR PERHAPS EVEN NOT UP THESE DAYS, THE CURRICULA AND INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF SHOULD BE CAREFULLY EXAMINED BEFORE MORE MONEY IS PROVIDED TO A SCHOOL SYSTEM TO CONTINUE ITS CURRENT "PROGRAM." THE TAXPAYERS, PARENTS AND MOST RESPONSIBLE EDUCATORS FAVOR SUCH ACTIONS, AND ANOTHER GENERATION OF PUPILS NEEDS THEM AS QUICKLY AS POSSIBLE, LEST MANY OF THEM, TOO, ARE TO BE ACADEMICALLY DEPRIVED CITIZENS.

SPECULATION ON SOLUTIONS
(CONT.)

PUSH INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS TO ACHIEVE AT THEIR COMPETENCE LEVEL.

SPEND MORE TIME EACH DAY ON FUNDAMENTAL ACADEMIC SUBJECTS.

ASSIGN MORE TEACHER-CORRECTED HOMEWORK, QUIZZES AND TESTS. HAVE THE CHILDREN USE THE BLACKBOARDS. HAVE TEACHERS STAY AFTER SCHOOL MORE OFTEN TO HELP THE SLOW LEARNERS KEEP UP WITH THE CLASS (EVEN IF IT MEANS OVERTIME PAY). PERHAPS INCREASE THE DAYS IN A SCHOOL YEAR (THERE USED TO BE 200. NOW IT IS GENERALLY 180).

ELIMINATE THE EXTRANEOUS "RAP SESSIONS."

IF A STUDENT CANNOT PERFORM AT GRADE LEVEL, DESPITE HELP, SUMMER SCHOOL, ETC., KEEP HIM IN THE GRADE UNTIL HE CAN.

PAY MORE ATTENTION TO THE DESIRES OF THE MASS OF PARENTS. MAKE AN EFFORT TO AT LEAST DETERMINE THEIR DESIRES.

DO NOT OVERBURDEN CHILDREN WITH DECISIONS ON WHAT, HOW AND WHEN THEY WILL STUDY.

BACK TO BASICS?

THERE ARE INDICATIONS THAT THERE MAY HAVE BEEN SOME GAINS IN ACADEMIC SKILLS (E.G., IN NEW YORK, ATLANTA, PITTSBURGH). WE HAVE YET TO DETERMINE THE EFFECT OF TOUGHER PROMOTION POLICIES, ETC., ON THESE STATISTICS FOR GRADE-LEVEL ABILITY COMPARED TO ACTUAL IMPROVEMENT IN SKILLS.

MEAN SAT SCORES ROSE THIS YEAR. IT IS TOO EARLY TO TELL IF THIS IS A PERTURBATION OR A REVERSAL OF THE TREND. SINCE THE 1975-1976 SCHOOL YEAR, HOWEVER, THE SLOPE OF THE TREND LINE OF DECLINE HAS DECREASED.

THE MEDIA, UNIVERSITIES, NATIONAL, STATE AND LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS, AND ABOVE ALL PARENTS AND TAXPAYERS, ARE CREATING THE KIND OF PRESSURE WHICH IN THE 1950S REVERSED THE ACADEMIC DECLINE OF THE 1940S. EVEN SOME ENTHUSIASTIC SUPPORTERS OF THE RADICAL IDEAS OF THE 1960S HAVE CHANGED THEIR MINDS. THIRTY-ONE STATES NOW GIVE MINIMUM COMPETENCY TESTS. LESS EXTRAVAGANT BUDGETS MIGHT HELP HERE IN REMOVING UNPRODUCTIVE OR COUNTERPRODUCTIVE LOW-ACADEMIC CONTENT "ELECTIVES." ON THE OTHER HAND, MANY EDUCATORS HAVE NOT AS YET ACCEPTED THE NEED FOR THE EFFORTS THAT MUST BE MADE TO RETURN TO THE TRADITIONAL HIGH STANDARDS IN OUR SCHOOLS. MUCH MORE HAS TO BE DONE BEFORE THESE GOALS ARE REACHED.

I BELIEVE WE CAN RESTORE HIGH ACADEMIC STANDARDS TO OUR SCHOOLS (AND A START MAY ALREADY HAVE BEEN MADE). WE KNOW HOW TO EDUCATE CHILDREN; WE'VE DONE IT IN OUR COMPULSORY PUBLIC SCHOOL SYSTEM FOR GENERATIONS, FOR ALL KINDS OF CHILDREN, IN ALL SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS, SPEAKING ALMOST EVERY LANGUAGE UNDER THE SUN. WE CAN DO IT NOW, BUT IT REQUIRES THAT WE GET THE COMPETENT TEACHERS--AND OUR PUPILS--BACK TO WORK AGAIN.

The Victims of "Dick and Jane"



*For 60 years
the "look-say"
method of
teaching reading
has dominated
our schools. Why
does it remain
firmly entrenched
even though
it doesn't work?*

**BY SAMUEL
BLUMENFELD**

Illiteracy in this country is turning out to be a blight that won't go away." So stated John H. Sweet, chairman of *U.S. News & World Report*, in his introduction to the magazine's cover story of

May 17, 1982, on America's declining literacy. He further observed: "While the United States has the highest proportion of its young people in college of any major nation, it has not yet figured out how to teach tens of millions of its

citizens to fill out a job application, balance a checkbook, read a newspaper or write a simple letter."

Illiteracy has now joined unwed motherhood, herpes simplex, and budget deficits as one of the nation's insoluble

problems that get periodic attention in the media with the usual call that something be done about it. Americans, however, are already paying an army of over 2 million teachers who supposedly are doing something about it. They are the experts and professionals, with college degrees and certification. We have a universal compulsory education system that costs taxpayers over \$100 billion a year, created to guarantee that everyone in America learns to read and write. So we have teachers, we have schools, we have laws. We have more educational research than we know what to do with. But the system evidently doesn't work.

In fact, among people who have had as much as 12 years of schooling, there is an ever-growing population of functional illiterates—people who cannot read training manuals, books, magazines, or product labels written above a fourth- or fifth-grade level. Some parents have gone so far as to sue public school systems for graduating their children without teaching them adequate literacy skills so that they can get jobs. Experts' estimates of the extent of functional illiteracy among our adult population range from 25 to 50 percent. It may account for the decline in voter turnout and the growing dependence on television as the sole source of information and knowledge.

According to Vyvyan Harding, director of Literacy Services of Wisconsin, which provides reading tutors to functionally illiterate adults, "It seems like a futile battle against overwhelming odds. I've never seen so many nonreading adults in my life."

Nor is this decline in literacy skills limited to the lower-income, less academically inclined population. Karl Shapiro, the eminent poet-professor who has taught creative writing for more than 20 years, told the California Library Association in 1970: "What is really distressing is that this generation cannot and does not read. I am speaking of university students in what are supposed to be our best universities. Their illiteracy is staggering... We are experiencing a literary breakdown which is unlike anything I know of in the history of letters."

Literacy skills are now so poor among high school graduates that about two-thirds of US colleges and universities, including Harvard, MIT, and the University of California at Berkeley, provide remedial reading and writing courses for their freshmen. The decline in reading skills is also causing a general debasement of our use of language. Popular writers, seeking larger audiences among a shrinking number of readers, are using shorter sentences, more monosyllabic words, and much smaller, simpler vocabularies.

Complex ideas are often avoided because the vocabulary required to deal with them is too difficult for most readers. So we get high school and college textbooks that treat the complexities of life with comic book simplicity and novels written without richness of language or depth of character. To many Americans, highly literate English is now a foreign language.

All of which may lead any intelligent American to ask a number of pointed questions: Why should the world's most affluent and advanced nation, with free, compulsory education for all, have a "reading problem" in the first place? What, indeed, are the kids doing in school if not learning to read? How is it that our network of state-owned and -operated teachers colleges with strict certification requirements doesn't produce teachers who can teach?

And how is it that in a nation that has devoted more of its money and resources to education than any other nation in history, we find a Jonathan Kozol on the *MacNeil-Lehrer Report* advocating that we learn from Communist Cuba how to eradicate illiteracy in America? Is our much-vaunted educational system indeed inferior to that of Castro's Cuba? How is it that our educators are in a quandary over our declining literacy skills and don't know what to do about it except ask for more money? And how is it that the more federal money is poured into public education the worse the SAT scores get?

Don't expect any answers to come from the people in charge. If they knew the answers, we would not have the problem. But the answers do exist, and the reason why they have gotten very little attention in the media is that they are too incredible, and our educators will neither confirm nor deny them. The result is that the public doesn't know who or what to believe.

the trouble is that you have to become an expert if you want to confront the educators on their own turf. My own introduction to the reading problem began in 1962 when Watson Washburn, who had just founded the Reading Reform Foundation, asked me to become a member of his national advisory council. Washburn, a distinguished New York attorney, had become concerned about the reading problem when he discovered that several of his nieces and nephews, who were attending the city's finest private schools, were having



a terrible time learning to read. He found out that they were being taught to read via the "look-say" method, a method that Rudolf Flesch had exposed and denounced in his 1955 book, *Why Johnny Can't Read*.

Flesch had written the book to explain to a somewhat baffled public why more and more primary-school children were having enormous difficulties learning to read, difficulties that parents had already begun to notice and complain about in the 1940s. The incisive, Vienna-born author was quite blunt in identifying the cause of the problem: "The teaching of reading all over the United States, in all the schools, and in all the textbooks," he wrote, "is totally wrong and flies in the face of all logic and common sense."

He then went on to explain that from about 1930 to 1950, beginning reading instruction in American schools had been radically changed by the professors of education from the traditional alphabetic-phonics method to a new whole-word, or hieroglyphic, method. Written English was no longer taught as a sound-symbol system but as an ideographic system, like Chinese. This was news to a lot of parents who assumed that their children were being taught to read the

The vast majority of American children are trapped within a system that is turning their brains into macaroni.



way they had been taught. How else could you possibly learn to read? they wondered.

In 1962, despite Flesch, the schools were still teaching the look-say method, which is why Washburn created the Reading Reform Foundation—to try to get the alphabet and phonics back into primary education as the dominant form of reading instruction. At that time I was a book editor in New York and had little interest in primary education. But the foundation's goal seemed quite laudable, so I joined the advisory council.

That was the extent of my involvement with the reading problem until I started working on my first book, *How to Start Your Own Private School—And Why You Need One*. In researching that book, I had spent 18 months of 1970-71 substitute teaching in the public schools of Quincy, Massachusetts, in order to get a first-

hand view of what was going on in the American classroom. I suddenly became aware that a great many high school students were reading very poorly. In fact, some of the students reminded me of the foreign-born I had grown up with in New York. They read in that same halting, stumbling manner.

My parents, immigrants from Eastern Europe, had both been illiterate in English. My mother had no literacy in any language even though she was quite intelligent; she was simply the product of Old World poverty and neglect. Her children, however—three of whom were born in Europe; two, including myself, in the United States—all learned to read and write quite fluently in the public schools of New York with no apparent problems. Although no one ever spoke of the alphabet as a "sound-symbol system," we were all aware that the

alphabet letters stood for sounds.

Yet I remember the terrible difficulty I had when I tried to teach my mother to read. Her illiteracy had been something of a challenge to me. It seemed like such an appalling state for a normally intelligent person to be in: to have no access at all to the world of the written word; not to be able to read street signs, advertisements, newspapers, magazines. Thus, I grew up very much aware of the terrible limitations illiteracy placed on a person and also of the frustrations and shame it sometimes caused. My mother tried going to night school, but the teachers were unprepared for total illiteracy, and my mother returned home humiliated by the experience.

And so, while going to City College, I decided to try to teach my mother to read. I started off by teaching her the alphabet. She learned it quite well. But then I was not too sure how to proceed from there. So I started teaching her to read whole words in short sentences, like: *Sara is my name. My name is Sara*. She learned to repeat the sentences, but she did not learn to read them. I didn't know what was wrong. I tried to convey the idea that letters stood for sounds, but I did it rather haphazardly, as an afterthought, as if the idea was so obvious that anyone could catch on to it. It's so simple, I thought impatiently, why can't she learn it?

What I didn't realize is that an illiterate, as well as a small child, has no conception of a set of written symbols standing for the irreducible speech sounds of a language. The assumption of the illiterate is that printed words represent ideas rather than sounds. To an illiterate who does not have a key to the sound-symbol code, printed words are therefore undecipherable markings.

What I also didn't realize is that our alphabet system is somewhat complicated. We use 26 letters to represent 44 sounds; there is an important distinction to be made between the letter names and letter sounds. And because the system has many quaint irregularities it has to be taught in a logical, organized sequence, starting with the simplest regular combinations and proceeding to the more complex irregular ones.

Had I known this, I would have known how to teach my mother to read. Unfortunately, my own ignorance was so appalling that I gave up in the attempt and blamed my failure on my mother's inability to learn. It took me 25 years to find out what an ignoramus I had been. In the meantime, my mother had died and the problem of teaching reading in America had become the educational dilemma of the century.

When my book on private schools was completed, I suggested to my publisher that I do one on the reading problem. My confrontation with the semiliterates in the schools of Quincy had opened my eyes to its seriousness, and I was curious to find out why, 15 years after the publication of *Why Johnny Can't Read*, Johnny was still fumbling and mumbling the written word. My publisher liked the idea, and I got to work.

first, I wanted to find out what it was about the look-say, whole-word method that made it the cause of so much reading disability. So I decided to study one of the whole-word programs, going through the entire "Dick and Jane" course of instruction, page by page, line by line, from the prereaders to the third-grade readers. It was an excruciating, tedious task, and the more I read, the angrier I got. I could not understand how professors of education could have concocted an approach to reading instruction so needlessly complicated, difficult, illogical, and ineffective. This look-say method was far worse than Flesch had described it in his book. You had to be an expert guesser or have a photographic memory to get anywhere with it. I knew that if I had been subjected to this blatant educational malpractice at the age of six, I too would likely have wound up among the reading disabled.

But how was it possible for such an imbecilic method to have come to be used so universally in American primary schools? I became determined to find out who had started it all. What "educator" was insane enough to think that you could successfully teach children to read English as if it were Chinese? After considerable digging through the historical archives, I found the "culprit." But he turned out not to be a culprit at all. In fact, he turned out to be someone quite interesting, important, and sympathetic.

He was Thomas H. Gallaudet, the venerable founder of the Hartford Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb. I discovered that his *Mother's Primer* first published in 1835, was the first look-say primer to appear. I had the pleasure of inspecting a rare copy of the book, which is kept in a vault at Gallaudet College in Washington, D.C. Its first line reads: "Frank had a dog; his name was Spot."

Gallaudet was an unusual teacher who brought to the learning problems of the deaf and dumb great empathy and a

talent for innovation. He thought he could apply to normal children some of the techniques used to teach deaf-mutes to read. Since deaf-mutes have no conception of a spoken language, they could not learn a sound-symbol system of reading. Instead, they were taught to read by way of a purely sight method consisting of pictures and whole words. Thus, as far as the deaf pupil was concerned, the written language represented ideas only and had nothing to do with sounds made by the tongue and vocal chords. Might not such a method work even better with normal children?

In 1836 the Boston Primary School Committee decided to try Gallaudet's primer on an experimental basis. Horace Mann, who became secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Education in June 1837, was very critical of the traditional alphabetic teaching method, and he heartily endorsed the new method as a means of liberating children from academic tyranny. In November the Primary School Committee reported favorably on the Gallaudet primer, and it was officially adopted for use in the Boston primary schools. Pretty soon other textbook writers got on the whole-word handwagon, and they began producing their own versions of the Gallaudet primer.

All of this took place in the context of a great movement for universal public education, which was expected to eradicate the ills of mankind by applying science and rationality to education. In 1839 Mann and his fellow reformers established the first state-owned and operated college for teacher training—the Normal School at Lexington, Massachusetts. Gallaudet had been offered the school's directorship but declined it. The man who did accept the post, Cyrus W. Peirce, was just as enthusiastic about the whole-word method as Mann. And so in the very first year of the very first state teachers college in America, the whole-word method of reading instruction was taught to its students as the preferred and superior method of instruction. Thus, educational quackery not only got a great running start with state-controlled teacher training but became a permanent part of it.

During the next five years, Mann's *Common School Journal* became the propaganda medium not only of the public school movement and the state normal schools but of its quackery—particularly the whole-word method. But finally, in 1844, there was an incredible reaction. A group of Boston schoolmasters, who had had enough of the nonsense, published a blistering book-length attack on Mann and his reforms. Included in the attack

was a thorough, detailed and incisive critique of the whole-word method, the first such critique ever to be written.

This attack ignited a bitter dispute between Mann and the schoolmasters that was to last for more than a year and result in a return to common sense in primary reading instruction. The state normal schools, fledgling institutions at best, were simply not yet powerful enough to exert a decisive influence in the local classroom. Professors of education were still a long way off in the future. So the alphabetic method was restored to its proper place in primary instruction. But the whole-word method was kept alive in the normal schools as a legitimate alternative until it could be refurbished by a new generation of reformers in the new progressive age.

the whole-word method began to make its comeback around the turn of the century and eventually took over modern primary instruction. A new progressive philosophy of education was being propounded by socialist John Dewey, who wanted to change the focus of education from the development of individual academic skills to the development of cooperative social skills. The object of socialism had been from the very beginning to remake man from the competitive being of capitalist society to a cooperative being in a collectivist state. Education was considered the best means to achieve this. Dewey's famous Laboratory School at the University of Chicago (1896-1904) and, later, the Lincoln School (1917-46) at Teachers College, Columbia University, where Dewey opened shop in 1905, set the new direction for teacher education.

Curiously enough, one of the patrons of the Lincoln School was John D. Rockefeller, Jr., who sent four of his five sons to be educated there. Jules Abel, in his book on the Rockefellers, revealed some interesting details about what the Lincoln School did for the boys' literacy:

The influence of the Lincoln School, which, as a progressive school, encouraged students to explore their own interests and taught them to live in society has been a dominant one in their lives. . . . Yet Laurance gives startling confirmation as to "Why Johnnie Can't Read." He says that the Lincoln School did not teach him to read and write as he wishes he now could. Nelson, today, admits that reading for him is a "slow and tortuous process" that he does not

enjoy doing but compels himself to do it. This is significant evidence in the debate that has raged about modern educational techniques.

The tragedy is that there are millions of Americans like the Rockefellers who must endure the crippling consequences of such malpractice.

It is, of course, no accident that the two leading developers and advocates of the new teaching method spent their entire careers at the two main centers where John Dewey's influence was greatest and where most of the progressive ferment was taking place. William Scott Gray joined the faculty at the University of Chicago in 1914 and was dean of its college of education from 1917 to 1931. He was chief editor of the Scott, Foresman & Co. "Dick and Jane" basal reading program from 1930 until his death in 1960.

Arthur I. Gates toiled in the vineyards of Columbia Teachers College as a professor of education from 1917 to 1965. He was chief editor of the publisher Macmillan's basal reading program from 1930 well into the '60s. He died in 1972.

Both Gray and Gates wrote hundreds of articles on reading instruction for the professional journals as well as numerous textbooks used in teacher training. Gray was especially instrumental in organizing the International Reading Association in 1955. It has become the world's largest and most influential professional organization devoted to reading instruction, and it is perhaps the only organization of such size in which a form of educational malpractice has been enshrined as the highest pedagogical good and its practitioners awarded prizes for their "achievements."

While Flesch was the first to expose look-say to the general public, he was not the first to question the new method's soundness or to confront the professors with its potentially harmful effects. The first to do that was Dr. Samuel T. Orton, a neuropathologist who in 1929 published an article in *Educational Psychology* reporting that many children could not learn to read via the new whole-word method. He warned that this method "may not only prevent the acquisition of academic education by children of average capacity but may also give rise to far-reaching damage to their emotional life."

Orton had discovered all of this in the 1920s while investigating cases of reading disability in Iowa, where the new method was being widely used. But the professors of education decided that Orton didn't know much about education and went ahead with their plans to publish the new basal reading programs.

Later they made use of Orton's own medical diagnoses and terminology to identify what was wrong with the kids having trouble learning to read. But they never admitted that it was the teaching method that caused these problems to develop.

So, as early as 1929, the educators had had some warning from a prominent physician that the new whole-word method could cause serious reading disability. Despite this, the new basal reading programs turned out to be huge commercial successes as whole school districts switched over to Dick and Jane, Alice and Jerry, Janet and Mark, Jimmy and Sue, Tom and Betty, and other whole-word basal series that were earning substantial royalties for their professor-of-education authors.

by the 1940s, schools everywhere were setting up remedial reading departments and reading clinics to handle the thousands of children with reading problems. In fact, remedial teaching had blossomed into a whole new educational specialty with its own professional status, and educational research on reading problems had become a new growth industry.

Researchers, seeking the causes of growing reading disability, began to develop a whole new lexicon of exotic terms to deal with this previously unknown problem: congenital word blindness, word deafness, developmental alexia, congenital alexia, congenital aphasia, dyslexia, strephosymbolia, binocular imbalance, ocular blocks, dyslexaphoria, ocular-manual laterality, minimal brain damage, and whatever else sounded plausible.

What were the cures recommended for these horrible diseases? *Life* magazine, in a major article on dyslexia in 1944, described the cure recommended by the Dyslexia Institute at Northwestern University for one little girl with an IQ of 118: thyroid treatments, removal of tonsils and adenoids, exercises to strengthen her eye muscles. It's a wonder they didn't suggest a prefrontal lobotomy.

With the boom in remedial teaching also came the creation of professional organizations to deal with it. In 1946 the National Association for Remedial Teaching was founded, and two years later the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction was

organized. Both organizations held annual conventions, published bulletins, and provided publishers the opportunity to exhibit their wares.

At this point, one might ask, how could the professors get away with this blatant educational malpractice in a free country where parents and elected representatives are supposed to have ultimate control over the public schools? Flesch gave the answer:

It's a foolproof system all right. Every grade-school teacher in the country has to go to a teachers' college or school of education; every teachers' college gives at least one course on how to teach reading; every course on how to teach reading is based on a textbook; every one of those textbooks is written by one of the high priests of the word method. In the old days it was impossible to keep a good teacher from following her own common sense and practical knowledge; today the phonetic system of teaching reading is kept out of our schools as effectively as if we had a dictatorship with an all-powerful Ministry of Education.

Apparently, government-monopolized education, even without a dictatorship, is quite capable of stifling dissent. In the matter of reading instruction, what we have had to contend with is a private monopoly of professors of education within a state-controlled and -regulated system. These professors had a strong economic and professional interest in pushing and keeping their textbooks and methodology in the schools, and the state system made it easy for them to create a monopoly and maintain it indefinitely. Teacher certification laws require that young teachers be trained by these educators, who not only prepare the curriculum for teacher training but also hold sway over the professional journals the teachers read and the organizations they join. In addition, the professors of education are organized professionally along national lines and therefore can exert a nationwide influence over the teaching profession as a whole.

As state institutions, the public schools are well protected from the forces that normally determine the success or failure of a private enterprise. Monopolies flourish in the public sector because of the latter's hierarchical, bureaucratic structure, which rewards conformity and discourages competition. Those who work their way up to positions of power and control in the hierarchy use that power by way of tenure to solidify and perpetuate their control. They supervise the doctoral programs and set the standards for promotion within the hierarchy, and they advance only those who support them. Thus, the system is self-perpetuating.

What was the reaction of the professors of education to the publication in 1955 of *Why Johnny Can't*

Read? They denounced Flesch in no uncertain terms, accusing him of misrepresentation, oversimplification, and superficiality. Arthur Gates wrote an article in the *National Education Association Journal* entitled "Why Mr. Flesch Is Wrong," which the textbook publisher Macmillan reprinted for wider distribution among parents and teachers. Other authors of whole-word classroom materials referred to Horace Mann's endorsement of the method. Of course, they never pointed out that Mann was a lawyer, not an educator, and that he never taught primary school.

William S. Gray, to whom the profession looked for leadership, did an article for the *Reading Teacher* of December 1955 entitled "Phonic versus Other Methods of Teaching Reading." In that same issue, F. Duane Lamkin of the University of Virginia wrote a piece entitled "An Analysis of Propaganda Techniques Used in *Why Johnny Can't Read*."

To Gray, the Flesch attack was actually nothing new. In 1951 there had been so much lay criticism of whole-word reading instruction that the *Reading Teacher* of May 15, 1952, published an article entitled "How Can We Meet the Attacks?" In the January 1952 issue of *Progressive Education*, Gray had specifically addressed himself to that problem, and he did so again in September of that year in a piece for the *Elementary School Journal*. Teachers were reassured by Gray's research evidence, which was described by a writer in the *Reading Teacher* as "a veritable storehouse of ammunition."

In the year of Flesch, another important event took place. Gray and his colleagues decided to combine the National Association for Remedial Teaching and the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction to form one major professional organization: the International Reading Association. It would, in a few short years, become the impregnable citadel of the whole-word method. Gray, as expected, was elected its first president.

In 1956 the IRA had 7,000 members; today, it has about 65,000. It publishes four journals and holds an annual convention that attracts as many as 13,000 registrants. In addition, many of its state organizations hold annual local conventions of their own. So if you've wondered why reading instruction in America has not gotten better since the publication of

Why Johnny Can't Read, there's the answer. The profession is simply too well insulated from public or parental pressures. As long as the schools continue to buy the books that the professors write, why change anything?

Meanwhile, in those 25 years, criticism of the whole-word method has continued unabated. Charles Walcutt's *Tomorrow's Illiterates* appeared in 1961; Arthur Trace's *Reading without Dick and Jane*, in 1965. The Council for Basic Education was founded in 1958 by a group of concerned academicians who advocated a return to phonics, and the Reading Reform Foundation was organized in 1961. My own book, *The New Illiterates*, was published in 1973. But compared to the IRA, the combined opposition is like a swarm of flies on the back of an elephant.

Despite the furor among parents raised by Flesch's book in 1955, no major publisher brought out a phonics-based reading instruction program until 1963, when three publishers—Lippincott, Open Court, and the Economy Company—entered the market with new phonics programs. But the big companies—Scott, Foresman; Macmillan; Ginn; Harper & Row; Houghton Mifflin; American Book Company; etc.—continued to publish and aggressively sell their whole-word programs to about 85 percent of the primary school market.

Then, in 1967, a book was published that caused the IRA a bit of a problem. The book, *Learning to Read: The Great Debate*, was written by Dr. Jeanne Chall, a respected member of the IRA and a professor of education at the Harvard Graduate School of Education. After several years of research into a mountain of studies done on beginning reading instruction, Chall came to the conclusion that the phonics, or code, approach produced better readers than the whole-word method. In short, it was a vindication of what Rudolf Flesch had asserted 12 years earlier.

Since the book, financed by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation, had been written for the educational rather than the popular market, it did not make the kind of waves in the general press that Flesch's book did. Still, Chall had given ammunition to the IRA's worst enemies, and the profession dealt with her in its own way. The reviewer in the IRA's *Journal of Reading* (Jan. 1969) wrote:

What prevents Chall's study from achieving respectability is that many of her conclusions are derived from a consideration of studies that were ill-conceived, incomplete and lacking in the essentials of suitable methodological criteria. In her eagerness to clarify these studies she allowed her personal bias

toward a code emphasis to color her interpretations of the data. . . .

It seems rather odd that a researcher intent upon dispelling confusion should have allowed herself to be moored on a reef of inconclusiveness and insubstantiality.

Reviewers in the *Reading Teacher*, *Elementary English*, and *Grade Teacher* were just as critical, all of which seriously reduced the impact that Chall's findings could have had on teachers of reading.

Meanwhile, whole-word authors found it necessary to come up with new arguments to counter potential competition from the phonics-based textbooks entering the market in the mid-'60s. The argument they used most effectively was that "research" had shown that there is no one best way to teach reading to all children. Of course, debating this took the focus off debating particular methods. Adding to the academic confusion in reading pedagogy was an expansion of the pedagogic vocabulary with new terms borrowed from linguistics and elsewhere, sometimes to convey new concepts, at other times to obfuscate the obvious. The linguists, for example, reaffirmed the alphabetic principle underlying written English but came out strongly against teaching children to articulate the isolated sounds.

A new level of sophistication in whole-word pedagogy was reached in 1967. Prof. Kenneth S. Goodman, the Scott Foresman editor who has inherited William S. Gray's mantle of leadership, published his controversial article "Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game," in the May 1967 *Journal of the Reading Specialist*. It was, for all practical purposes, an attempt by a professor-of-education whole-word author to discredit the new phonics competition from Lippincott. Goodman wrote:

The teacher's manual of the Lippincott Basic Reading incorporates a letter by letter varians in the justification of its reading approach: "In short, following this program the child learns from the beginning to see words as the most skillful readers see them. . . . as whole images of complete words with all their letters."

In place of this misconception, I offer this: "Reading is a selective process. It involves partial use of available language cues selected from perceptual input on the basis of the reader's expectation. As this partial information is processed, tentative decisions are made to be confirmed, rejected or refined as reading progresses."

More simply stated, reading is a psycholinguistic guessing game.

So a whole-word author was willing to proclaim that reading is a guessing game, albeit a "psycholinguistic" one. But is it? The alphabet, in fact, makes guessing in reading unnecessary. Once you are trained in translating written sound symbols into the exact spoken language the symbols represent, precision in reading becomes automatic. You might not understand all the words you read, but that will be the case with all readers throughout their lives. Yet here were children being deliberately taught reading as a *guessing game*.

meanwhile, Congress had decided to do something about the reading problem in the only way it knows how: by throwing money at it. It passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 with its now-famous Title One compensatory education program. The new Title One bureaucracy began showering the schools of America with billions of dollars in the hope that students who were failing in reading

would be saved from future lives as functional illiterates. But what actually happened is that the 17,000 school districts that got the money indulged in an orgy of spending and hiring that caused untold joy among the suppliers and new levels of prosperity for the establishment.

But did the program do any good for the kids? If it did, then we should have seen an improvement in reading scores by 1975. Ten years ought to be enough time in which to test the effectiveness of a federal program. But the results were dismally disappointing. From New York to California came the same disastrous news of declining reading scores. As for SAT scores, they were in an alarming nosedive. The *Boston Globe* of August 29, 1976, described it as "a prolonged and broad-scale decline unequalled in US history. The downward spiral, which affects many other subject areas as well, began abruptly in the mid-1960s and shows no signs of bottoming out." The verbal SAT mean score had gone from 467 in 1966-67 to 424 in 1980.

Anyone intimately acquainted with the reading-instruction scene could have predicted as much, for the federal billions did absolutely nothing to correct the teaching-methods problem. In fact, it

aggravated the problem by literally forcing the schools to finance even more educational malpractice than they could have ever afforded on their own.

The failure of Title One to improve reading skills did not go entirely unnoticed. In 1969 the National Academy of Education appointed a blue-ribbon Committee on Reading to study the nation's illiteracy problem and recommend ways to solve it. In its report in 1975, the committee had this to say about Title One:

It is not cynical to suggest that the chief beneficiaries of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) have been members of school systems—both professional and paraprofessional—for whom new jobs were created. Seven years and as many billion dollars later, the children of the poor have not been "compensated" as clearly as the employees of the school systems through this investment.

The committee recommended a rather radical idea, a sort of reading stamps program—the use of vouchers with which students could purchase reading instruction from competent public or nonpublic sources. "We believe," wrote the committee,

You cannot achieve high individual literacy in a system that reduces learning to the level of Mickey Mouse.



that an effective national reading effort should bypass the existing education macrostructure. At a minimum, it should provide alternatives to that structure. That is, the planning, implementing, and discretionary powers of budgeting should not rest with those most likely to have a vested interest in maintaining the status quo, especially given their unpromising "track record."

What the committee was telling us, in effect, is that the greatest obstacle to literacy in America is our own educational establishment and that if we want to achieve real education in our country, we shall have to circumvent that establishment.

What a staggering indictment! The system had been created to ensure literacy for all. Now we were being told that it was an obstacle. How could you circumvent \$100 billion worth of institutionalized malpractice? It was more easily said than done.

Actually, in 1975, there was already in operation a federal program that was making a very discreet effort to circumvent the establishment. It had been launched in 1970 by the US Commissioner of Education, James E. Allen, Jr., as the Right-to-Read program. Its purpose was to mobilize a national commitment to literacy somewhat in the same spirit that the nation had mobilized its talents and technology to put a man on the moon, but with much less money.

That such a program was even needed when Title One was already supplementing the schools with billions of dollars in reading programs merely dramatized the utter failure of Title One. Of course, the International Reading Association was first in line to welcome the new program, which meant more money in the pockets of publishers and reading specialists.

But you can't fool all of the people all of the time. Indeed, some bureaucrats are honest individuals trapped in a system they cannot change. I found such a one in Joseph Tremont, director of Right-to-Read in Massachusetts from 1973 to 1980. Tremont had entered the teaching profession in the late '50s with much youthful idealism. He had taught in grade school and at teachers colleges and had worked with Dr. Chall at Harvard on her great research project. But at the end of 1980 he quit the teaching profession for private industry.

In May 1980, a month before Right-to-Read folded, he told me: "I'm sorry I didn't realize the impossibility of all of this fifteen years ago. I don't know how anyone can stay in this business and keep his self-respect. The irony is that I did everything I wanted to do. I did unbelievable things. But my superiors couldn't

care less. They only care about the money from Washington. This is the most heartless bureaucracy I've ever seen in my life. Most of them are educational hacks I wouldn't even spit at."

In 1981 Rudolf Flesch again put the educators on trial in a new book, *Why Johnny Still Can't Read*, an up-to-date report on the literacy scandal. But this time the reading establishment barely took notice. Kenneth S. Goodman, leading apostle for "psycholinguistics"—the new code word for look-say—had become president of the IRA in 1981, carrying on the tradition started by William Scott Gray.

If the nation wasn't all that worked up over what Flesch had to say, it was probably because people had already begun to accept declining literacy as part of the way things are. Besides, it was now possible to blame television, the nuclear arms race, or the breakdown of the family for the decline. Indeed, the reading problem had defied solution for so long that it now seemed wiser to adjust to illiteracy than to beat one's head against a stone wall.

If Flesch had proven anything, it was that the educational establishment was virtually immovable—incapable not only of self-correction but even of admitting that there was anything to correct. For parents, it meant that they could not depend on the schools to teach their children to read properly

It has become obvious to me that what prevents America from seeking a real solution to the reading problem is its mindless adherence to the idea of state-monopoly education with all of its aggrandizement of bureaucrats, its celebration of the mediocre, its oppression of the free spirit, and its strident anti-intellectualism. You cannot achieve high individual literacy in a system that numbs the intellect, stifles intelligence, and reduces learning to the level of Mickey Mouse.

So what is to be done? Since there is no national solution to the literacy problem acceptable to the educators or legislators, parents shall have to deal with the problem themselves. Many parents, in fact, have withdrawn their children from the public schools and put them in private ones where basic academic skills are stressed.

Most private schools, particularly the religious ones, where Biblical literacy is central, teach reading via phonics. But since many private schools recruit their

teachers from the same pool of poorly trained professionals and use many of the same textbooks and materials found in the public schools, their academic standards may reflect more of the general culture than one might expect. Look-say, like television, permeates the educational marketplace so thoroughly and in so many guises, and it is so widely and uncritically accepted, that it takes expert knowledge to know the good from the bad, the useful from the harmful. The quality of a private school's reading program therefore really depends on the knowledge its trustees and principal may have of the literacy problem and its causes. It is this knowledge that can make the difference between a mediocre school and a superior school.

And in some cases it is this knowledge that inspires people to start a private school: to prove that the so-called uneducables are indeed quite educable. Such was the genesis of West Side Preparatory, the now-famous school founded by Marva Collins in 1975 in a black neighborhood in Chicago. A strong advocate of intensive phonics, Mrs. Collins started her school after spending 14 years in the public system, where she saw children's lives being ruined by the type of noneducation so prevalent throughout the system. "We have an epidemic out there," she told a Reading Reform Foundation audience in 1979, "and millions of children are dying mentally from it. It's not swine flu, it's not learning disabilities, it's not dyslexia—it's the look-say syndrome. No one has found a cure for the look-say syndrome except the relatively few of us who are trying to spread the truth."

Unfortunately, Marva Collinses are rare, and there are millions of children who need sane, competent reading instruction. Some parents have joined the growing movement for home education and are themselves teaching their children to read or hiring competent tutors. In other words, there are ways to escape the state-supported monopolists, but it takes strong conviction and some know-how to do so.

Meanwhile, the vast majority of American children are trapped within a system that is turning their brains into macaroni. It's a tragedy that this has to occur when there is no lack of knowledge about how to teach children to read well. After all, they did it for at least 3,000 years before the professors of education took over.

Samuel Blumenfeld is the author of numerous articles and several books, including, in REASON, "Why the Schools Went Public" (Mar. 1979) and "Self-Help Schooling in South Boston" (Nov. 1980).

MEMORANDUM

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

TO: Warren G. Kaufman, Associate Director, OAMB

DATE: Oct. 14, 1982

FROM: R.F. Wormwood, Branch Chief, C&GMD, *RFW* A.L. Thompson, C&GMD, *at* J.F. Dominic, T&L, *JFD*

SUBJECT: Site Visit to CEMREL, October 12-13

On Tuesday and Wednesday, Oct. 12-13, we made a preliminary site visit to gather information and to develop a set of issues relative to the Nov. 30 termination of NIE-supported programs at CEMREL, St. Louis. CEMREL's executive officers and senior program staff met with us to discuss the status of current projects and the terms by which they might be brought to satisfactory conclusion.

The following assumptions were discussed openly with respect to the next stage of decision-making by NIE officials: 1) that NIE will no longer support CEMREL programs beyond Nov. 30; 2) that CEMREL would honor its current contractual obligations; ~~3) that subsequent NIE decisions about programs at CEMREL would take into account the need for laboratory services throughout the ten-state region;~~ 4) that CEMREL would have the opportunity to submit a proposal for work required to close out projects satisfactorily; and 5) that decisions about close-out procedures would be made along lines that would generally be in the best interest of the federal government.

CEMREL staff were cooperative and highly professional in their presentations and responses to questions. They were unanimous in their willingness to complete all contract work by Nov. 30 and stated that projects were on schedule.

THE REPORT This report has two major sections: the first one focuses on CEMREL programs; the second, on administrative/contractual issues. Both sections include discussions of issues that might influence decisions.

PROGRAMS

The CEMREL programs can be grouped according to the different kinds of issues surrounding their eventual close-out. For the purpose of illustrating those issues, we choose to group the programs as follows:

- 1) Comprehensive School Mathematics Program (CSMP) & Research and Evaluation;
- 2) Research and Development Interpretation Service;
- 3) Midwest Regional Exchange & the Urban Education Program;
- 4) Arts & Humanities Projects, School Decision-Making Project, and The Training Program for Women and Minorities.

COMPREHENSIVE SCHOOL MATHEMATICS PROGRAM & RESEARCH AND EVALUATION
The primary issue here involves the fact that final copy for grades 5 and 6 materials will not be finished by November 30. Neither will there be a summary evaluation nor materials for presentation of the K-6 curriculum to the Joint Dissemination Review Panel (JDRP). This unique curriculum is anchored by problem-solving approaches to learning mathematics. Its development has been costly, methodical and lengthy, and has involved some of the nation's and the world's most influential mathematics educators. Three years of field testing were completed before curriculum materials could be put into final copy at each grade level. To date, K-3 materials have been approved for nationwide use by the JDRP. A final version of grade four materials has just been finished, and grade five is to be ready by March, 1983. The final version of grade six materials was originally planned for completion by August, 1983, and submission of data to the JDRP was to occur in September, 1983. Also ready by then would be a summary evaluation of the entire curriculum and its effectiveness in classroom learning. By November 30, eight different deliverables are due.

DISCUSSION The decision on how to close out this project in the best interest of the federal government should take into account the above information. From one perspective, the federal government has contributed significantly to improving mathematics instruction through this project, with one year needed to complete it. For approximately \$250,000, the project could be transferred to another laboratory, which would be, in the opinion of CEMREL staff, the most productive environment in which to complete it. Another possible site would be a university where substantial efforts are under way to improve basic mathematics instruction. Such a transfer would enable the completion of grade 5-6 materials, a coordinator's manual, a summary evaluation report, and JDRP preparation.

(NO)

From another perspective, the absolute termination of the project in early 1983 would result in an unfinished final copy of grade 5-6 materials, no summary evaluation report, no coordinator's manual, and JDRP approval for only grades K-3.

Printing of these materials suggests another set of issues. It could be the case that a commercial printer, once CEMREL's interest in the materials disappears, would seize the opportunity and complete the necessary work prior^{ly} publishing the K-6 curriculum. Up till the present, no commercial publisher has been willing to gamble on such an enterprise. In addition to CEMREL's stake in profit-making from the materials, there is some question about the copyright and whether the government would share in the profits. CEMREL does have a sizeable inventory of curriculum materials; but once these are depleted, CSMP activities and teacher training cannot be sustained easily.

Regardless of what decision gets made about how to terminate this project, there is a sizeable archive that should be organized and made available to those interested in mathematics education. The CEMREL close-out proposal should address this issue.

RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT INTERPRETATION SERVICE (RDIS)

With this project the pivotal issue for its termination is in determining its importance as a resource for the Regional Exchange nationwide. By design, the project was intended to provide current applications of research to school improvement problems. CEMREL competed for and won the contract in open competition approximately three years ago. Since that time it has developed several products that represent a widely-acclaimed approach to classroom applications of research. The publication series, Research Within Reach, includes volumes on teaching reading, oral and written communication and mathematics at both the elementary and secondary levels. CEMREL prints only a portion of these. Professional associations and state education agencies have found that the books' popularity justifies their own expenditures to publish and distribute them to members. CEMREL's inventories represent a market value of roughly \$12,000 to \$15,000, and there exists a distribution agreement with Harper-Row Publishers.

DISCUSSION CEMREL has developed a very successful approach here that involves teachers and researchers in successive stages of product development, resulting in very popular publications. It is almost impossible to evaluate the importance of RDIS to the Regional Exchange Program, and this complicates the close-out decision. If the project were to end by November 30, there would at least be a set of useful

products available for marketing. And, if the National Institute of Education were to determine that RDIS is indeed essential to its regional program activities, it could put the project up for bidding again, and stimulate new interest in it. Or, it could simply transfer the project to another laboratory close to CEMREL's region, since a laboratory would be the best environment in which to continue the project. It would take roughly \$115,000 to sustain this project for another two years at its current level of work. Whatever the decision, care should be given to the organization and disposition of the large data base that has been used in the project. The current archive includes microfiche materials, journals and annotated bibliographies. The close-out proposal should address this concern. ND

MIDWEST REGIONAL EXCHANGE AND URBAN EDUCATION PROJECT

The primary issue surrounding the close-out of these two projects involves the degree to which they are viewed as essential resources for school improvement within CEMREL's region. The two programs have different audiences, but operate in roughly similar ways. The Midwest Regional Exchange consists of a broad range of technical assistance projects that originate within state departments of education. In most cases, the technical assistance involves either a CEMREL staff member with expertise in a particular area participating in program planning or leadership training; or it involves the preparation of special summaries of research information for use in specifically targeted projects within entire school systems. Over the past year and a half, CEMREL has negotiated and carried out such projects with five distinct state departments of education. Plans for working with three others are in progress.

The Urban Education Program provides similar kinds of technical assistance, but to a different audience. It is targeted at the region's twenty largest urban school districts and supplies a variety of technical services for projects. What is unique to both projects, the Midwest Regional Exchange and the Urban Education, is the variety and scope of arrangements that exist for delivering specialized services. CEMREL, state departments, and local schools have all been highly creative in seeking the most efficient and productive ways of using one another's talents and services.

DISCUSSION Both programs share CEMREL personnel and resources, and operate in ways that catalyze the sharing of limited resources among schools and school systems. There are indications that the programs have produced levels of quality and enthusiasm in the region's activities that simply did not exist in the same way prior to CEMREL's

current initiative. Its services are now highly visible and are praised through unsolicited letters from state department and local school officials. To many school systems within the ten-state region, these two projects are a vital resource.

At the same time, it is difficult to know just how widespread this appeal is. Clearly, CEMREL has not had equal impact across the ten states, and it is unlikely that any laboratory could do so, with even unlimited resources. The size and variation of CEMREL's region is such that the termination of project activities is likely to have unequal impact on schools and their improvement efforts. The summative evaluation of the Midwest Regional Exchange, due Nov. 30, will tell us something about its impact. But there is not a similar evaluation planned for the Urban Education project.

Both programs are transferrable, and would work best within the context of another laboratory. They would not do so well based at a university. By providing for their transfer, the NIE could take advantage of the years that have gone into refining the networks and the adaptations of people to problems. The cost of doing so would be in the neighborhood of \$600,000 for two years. If no provisions were made for sustaining these activities, it is likely that they would dissipate without the coordinating efforts of people based outside the schools. At present, it is extremely difficult to know just what effect the dissipation of these programs would have on the region's school improvement efforts. No

ARTS & HUMANITIES PROJECTS, THE WRITING RESEARCH & RESOURCES PROJECT, THE SCHOOL DECISION MAKING PROJECT, AND THE TRAINING PROGRAM FOR WOMEN AND MINORITIES

Here the set of issues regarding project termination is less complicated. These projects differ from the others in that they tend to be the source materials for many of CEMREL's technical assistance projects. And while all of them have regional ties of one form or another, it would be difficult to argue for their extension on the basis of their individual importance for the region's school improvement efforts. All four sets of projects entail applied research in classrooms; thus they continually feed the technical assistance projects new information, new ways of verifying specific instructional approaches, etc. Yet, none of them has enough breadth of scope or depth of learning to make them truly unexpedient under the present circumstances.

DISCUSSION In the context of NIE's next stage of decisions about CEMREL's programs, the Arts and Humanities projects seem to require the

the most attention. They have grown out of a decade of curriculum development when CEMREL took a then bold approach to integrating arts and humanities education. Under the rubric of Aesthetic Education CEMREL piloted a series of 44 curriculum packages that introduced elementary school children and their teachers to more systematic learning via the arts. Yet, only twelve of these packages have ever been published, and, while they have been successful components of several technical assistance projects, they represent only a small portion of CEMREL's development effort.

We are not arguing here for the publication of the remaining curriculum packages. At least two major publishers tried to drum up a market for them but never succeeded. The materials currently exist in draft form, and, since they represent a sizeable investment by the federal government, CEMREL's close out proposal should certainly account for them. While there is a growing community of researchers and teachers who are striving to maintain interest in arts education within the schools, it is unlikely that the CEMREL curriculum in Aesthetic Education would meet most of their needs. Nevertheless, CEMREL did pioneer this effort and established firmly the concept of aesthetic education.

This discussion is to suggest that there is a large repository of materials related to the history of the project. Also, one of the original developers of the materials is still with CEMREL. While it would be imprudent for the federal government to plan for the transferral of some of the classroom studies of arts education (since their completion Nov. 30 seems a legitimate conclusion to more than a decade of work), it would be worth considering the need to organize the archives for this project. They would be a useful resource for researchers and teachers, perhaps if they were housed as part of an applied research effort at a major university.

While there are several issues related to the appropriate and orderly disposition of program materials, as well as the need to maintain certain kinds of technical assistance networks within the ten-state region, CEMREL appears committed to meeting all of its obligations under the current contract. To that end, they have prepared status sheets on each project, and we have these under review.

CONTRACTUAL/ADMINISTRATIVE ISSUES

In addition to a review of CEMREL programs, we made a preliminary review of property, facilities and equipment. This section of the report addresses those items and concludes with recommendations for a phase-out proposal to be submitted by CEMREL.

BUILDINGS There are four (4) buildings at the CEMREL site, which consists of approximately 7.68 acres. Two of the buildings (A & B) are connected and they house the CEMREL programs. In 1973 the federal government assumed the cost of their renovation (roughly \$3mil). The other two buildings (C & D) are somewhat smaller in size and have been used mostly as storage and warehousing facilities. There is considerable disarray in the latter two buildings, due largely to the gradual accumulation of materials and equipment (some of it from other laboratories). Photographs were taken of the interiors in support of this observation. *

DEED The CEMREL property is covered by a deed, dated August 17, 1971, between the City of St. Louis and CEMREL. It specifies the following conditions:

- a) that the said property shall be used by the party of the second part exclusively for educational, social or medical research, and activities related thereto; and
- b) that no one other than the party of the second part be permitted to use the said real property without first obtaining the express written permission of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of the City of St. Louis; and
- c) that in the event that the party of the second part ceases to use the said real property for the purposes and in the manner set forth in a) and b) above, the title to said property shall revert to the City of St. Louis.

In addition to the deed, there is a Memo of Understanding between the City of St. Louis and the Central Midwestern Regional Educational Laboratory, Inc. (CEMREL). That memo follows:

It is mutually understood and agreed by and between the City of St. Louis and Central Midwestern Regional Educational Laboratory, Inc. (CEMREL) that CEMREL is an agency funded by the United States Office of Education and that CEMREL is holding title to certain real property in the City of St. Louis as recorded on August 17, 1971 ("illegible"), on behalf

of the U.S. Commissioner of Education. It is further understood that the U.S. Commissioner of Education shall have the right to name a successor or successors to CEMREL for the use of said property for educational, social or medical research and activities related thereto, in the event that CEMREL shall fail to so use said property, subject to the consent of the City of St. Louis, and the City of St. Louis will not withhold such consent if the said property is to be used for such purposes as set forth in Ordinance 55852.

MATERIALS In addition to the buildings and the miscellaneous items stored in buildings C & D, we observed various types of fairly expensive equipment (including cameras, audio recording and playback) that has been used in the production of CEMREL's curricula in aesthetic education and mathematics. It also appeared that some production equipment was stored in buildings C & D; however, time did not permit further investigation, but these items did not appear to be in the same condition as those observed in bldgs. A&B. We were not able to view the inventory of curricular materials and products marketed by CEMREL in its technical assistance efforts. CEMREL is in the process of getting an accurate count and estimate of that inventory, and is transferring it to the main buildings.

PHASE-OUT PROPOSAL /CEMREL We recommend that on or before October 31, 1982, CEMREL should submit a phase-out proposal for activities covering a 90-day period, from the end of the current contract (Nov. 30, 1982). The proposal should address the following items:

- a) an inventory of all programmatic materials, as well as of all files, fixtures and equipment; the proposal should also address the items stored in buildings C & D and offer a realistic plan for assessing their value; this could include a subcontract to bring in a Used Equipment specialist, but it could also include the decision to turn all of the equipment over to GSA, or even the City of St. Louis (if allowed under the terms of the agreement);
- b) an assessment and disposition of all CEMREL assets (excluding those acquired with corporate funds and an identification of all CEMREL commitments that would extend beyond Nov. 30, 1982);
- c) a Person-Loading schedule, indicating the employee, his or her function, and the date of employment termination during the 90-day period, and a plan to maintain the buildings during that period.

December 1, 1982 is the deadline for accomplishing the following activities relative to the close-out period: a) issue the request for the phase-out proposal; b) CEMREL's submission; c) negotiate and issue phase-out contract modification.

ISSUES CEMREL has already begun to organize itself for close-out. For example, its executive staff has already been informed of its obligation to provide the NIE with accurate descriptions of all program and non-program commitments, material inventories, as well as inventories of equipment, and their present market value in all instances.

In addition, there are some issues that will require attention by NIE and other officials of the Education Department. These include the disposition of the property and the responsibility for maintaining it until the disposition is accomplished. Since the buildings will contain (by the end of the phase-out period) all or most of the property and equipment presently on site, this will be an important topic for immediate discussion by federal officials.

PROJECTED PHASE-OUT COST

An estimate of costs associated with a 90-day close out period is \$450,000. This figure includes all costs. A more accurate estimate might be made, however, after reviewing CEMREL's close-out proposal.