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This manual is intended for use by trainers of teacher aides in New Careers programs (which focus on training the unemployed and/or underemployed for entry-level placement as nonprofessionals in human service occupations). An introductory chapter considers the qualifications of the training team, qualifications of the trainee, the function and job description of the teacher aide in both elementary and secondary schools, and the need for realistic career mobility. Chapter 2 describes typical problems encountered in teacher aide training and outlines possible solutions. In Chapter 3, the organization and structure of the New Careers Training Model are explained, including the rationale for curriculum content areas, points to stress during training, articulation of program components, and program scheduling. Chapter 4 presents a basic curriculum in education, complete with suggested discussion units and activities, consisting of selected resource material for the trainer to use in enabling the teacher aide trainee to develop insight into education in general as well as his local school system. Also included are a glossary of New Careers terms, a list of audiovisual aids (and their distributors) and basic training materials, and an explication of the basic concepts of the New Careers Training Model. (SG)

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NEW CAREERS: THE TEACHER AIDE

A Manual for Trainers

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PREFACE

The Teacher Aide: A Manual For Trainers is one of a series of manuals produced by the New Careers Institute of the University Research Corporation. Under contract to the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Bureau of Work-Training Programs, the University Research Corporation is publishing and distributing these materials through its Information Clearinghouse on New Careers as part of a broad spectrum of technical assistance in program development, job and career design, curriculum writing, and training to New Careers programs across the country.

This manual has been designed for use in New Careers programs for teacher aides. The trainer of teacher aides will find it a helpful aid in planning and conducting a New Careers training program according to the New Careers training model.

New Careers is the name given to a federally sponsored program designed to help meet the manpower shortage in the human services with trained personnel from disadvantaged backgrounds. Training programs developed at the Institute for Youth Studies at Howard University, Washington, D.C., and at several other New Careers demonstration centers have shown that people from disadvantaged backgrounds can be prepared, through on-the-job training and other methods, to assume entry-level preprofessional positions in human service agencies. Where they have been used, New Careerists have had a significant role in improving the quality and delivery of agency services.

In Minneapolis, a pilot program during 1966 and 1967 proved that teacher aides can be used effectively to help develop reading readiness in kindergarten children. The children in classrooms where aides were present gained more in reading readiness than did the children in classrooms without aides. Test results on the *Metropolitan Readiness Test,* Form R, showed that children who had worked with aides gained between three and five points more in total readiness than did the children who had not.

Introducing New Careers personnel onto the staff of an employing agency calls for a flexible response from the agency. Changes in structure, supervisory patterns, and attitudes are required in order to accommodate New Careerists. This is particularly true in education, where teachers may look with some suspicion on the introduction of preprofessionals into the classroom.

Although opportunity for career advancement depends on the trainee's skill as an entry-level aide, the program aims to teach more than entry-level skills. Therefore, we have also included in the training model remedial training and courses related to general issues in human service work. New Careers programs seek to produce not only skilled preprofessional aides, but also informed citizens who are prepared to take advantage of career opportunities in the employing agencies.

This manual anticipates many of the problems and issues that frequently arise in teacher aide training programs and suggests solutions for them. It discusses the crucial question of job descriptions and presents job descriptions for teacher aides at the preschool, elementary, and secondary levels. The trainer will find helpful material on scheduling and coordinating the various components of the New Careers training model. This manual also includes resource material for a suggested basic curriculum in education. A companion manual for trainees includes a curriculum designed to teach the specialty skills component of the training model.

These manuals, two in a series providing guidelines for implementing New Careers programs, derive from the early experience at Howard and the other centers. The curriculum and teaching techniques we present suggest one approach to training teacher aides. In developing their approach, the authors have tried to set up a flexible structure responsive to change and augmentation. Should trainers find that additional materials and other methods will contribute to the success of their programs, we encourage them to innovate. The material should be approached creatively – in effect, "created anew" in the local situation in order to contribute to the further development of the New Careers concept. We plan to evaluate extensively the performance of these manuals, and we intend to give special attention to additions and innovations incorporated in the field.

Special recognition is due to Irving Ostrow, M.A., Carolyn Davis, Paul N. Mathless, Eunice O. Shatz, M.S.W., and Susan Thomas for their contributions to the development of these manuals.

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A NEW CAREERS GLOSSARY

Some brief definitions to help readers understand the fundamental concepts of New Careers and the New Careers training model . . .

Human Services – Broadly defined as the fields of public service in which a person-to-person relationship, crucial to the provision of services, exists between the receivers and the providers of the services. Includes the fields of health, education, mental health, social services, recreation, law enforcement, corrections, rehabilitation, housing and employment.

Human Service Aides – Persons trained in New Careers programs to assume aide responsibilities and assist professionals in the delivery of human services.

Entry Training – The initial phases of the training program; required to prepare trainees to assume entry-level or first-level jobs.

Career Ladders – The vertical hierarchy of jobs in human services from the level of human service aide through the entire progression of career potentials.

Entry-Level Job – The first step in the career ladder, requiring minimal skill and education and open to previously uncredentialed persons. Sometimes called first-level position.

Task Cluster – The conglomerate of tasks required in a particular job.

Generic Issues in Human Services – Those broad issues common to all human services, including:

1. The individual and his relationship to the world of work
2. The individual and his relationship to people
3. The individual and his relationship to the community
4. Individual growth and development.

Training in Generic Issues – Training and curriculum content related to the generic issues of human services.

Basic Training in a Particular Human Service Field – Training in the basic concepts and skills common to a particular human service field.

Job Skill Training – Training in the particular skills and knowledge required to do a specific job.

On-the-Job Training – Structured, planned and supervised training in the actual work situation during which the trainee performs the work and role required of him; i.e., learning through doing.

Remediation (or Remedial Training) – Training in the basic educational skills required to most efficiently learn and carry out job duties, including preparation for educational and Civil Service qualifications.

Core-Group Technique – A technique used by the New Careers trainers as they work with trainees in small groups, providing training, counseling, discussion and feedback related to job experiences as well as group identity and support.

Certification and Accreditation – Official, documented recognition by human service agencies or academic institutions (such as junior colleges) certifying New Careerists for the jobs they assume and/or leading to further academic or educational degrees.

Training for Supervisors and Trainers – A structured training program that includes consideration of:

New Careers concepts
Restructuring the job hierarchy
Understanding the life styles of trainees
Supervisory models and skills
Roles and relationships between trainers, supervisors and trainees.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This manual is intended to provide the trainer of teacher aides with information and guidelines for training lay persons to function as teacher aides in a school setting.

The teacher aide is concerned primarily with helping the teacher function to the fullest capacity in meeting individual and group needs of his pupils. Included among the aide's responsibilities might be clerical work, preparing audiovisual materials and handling audiovisual equipment, providing tutorial assistance, administering tests and examinations, grading papers and functioning as a school/community liaison. Using teacher aides in a school system will both provide jobs for previously untrained persons and relieve the teacher of time-consuming nonprofessional tasks which prevent the teacher from devoting full time to professional teaching duties.

This manual is divided into four major sections:

1) *Introduction,* including a discussion of qualifications, roles and career mobility of members of the training team
2) *Typical Problems and Suggested Solutions for New Careers Teacher Aide Training Programs*
3) *Organization and Structure of the Program,* a description of, and rationale for, the New Careers training model
4) *Generic Education Curriculum,* consisting of selected resource material for the trainer to use to help the trainee develop insights into the broad field of education and its issues as well as his own school district.

A companion publication, *New Careers: The Teacher Aide, A Manual for Trainees,* will be used in conjunction with this sourcebook in New Careers programs for teacher aides. Its first chapter contains introductory material and a discussion and activity guide related to the basic curriculum in education that appears as Chapter IV in this manual. The second chapter in the manual for trainees discusses the disadvantaged student and offers some suggestions on the role of the aide in the ghetto classroom. The third chapter of the manual for trainees contains six specialty curriculum units. During the training program, the trainer will use these units to teach the specific entry-level skills that the New Careerist must master before assuming a full-time position as a teacher aide. In addition, these units form a body of resource material designed for the aides to use as they work with the teacher.

The division of the curriculum into generic and specialty issues derives from a philosophy basic to New Careers training and from early experience that there is a nucleus or "generic" body of information that can serve as basic content for any lay person preparing to be a teacher aide, either in an instructional or noninstructional capacity. The generic curriculum is a basic body of knowledge which can serve as the foundation upon which subsequent skills can then be built.

Within the past five years, experimental and demonstration programs have been conducted in which teacher aides were recruited from the ranks of the undereducated and underemployed. The rationale for recruiting and training persons indigenous to the community in which the school is located is based on these factors:

1. The aide who lives in the child's own neighborhood often communicates with the child in a way that is neither threatening nor strange. He may be able to help the child to adjust to the unfamiliar world of the school and also interpret some aspects of his behavior to the teacher.
2. The indigenous aide who has faced up to and overcome some of the difficulties and frustrations the child now faces, says to the child by his very presence in the school: "It can be done. You, too, can succeed here."
3. Both teachers and aides may be better able to relate to the individual needs of pupils than the teacher can in the classroom by himself.
4. More small groupings and a wider range of activities are feasible in a classroom where there is a teacher aide than when a teacher works all alone, often in an overcrowded classroom with an overloaded schedule.

Recommended Qualifications of the Training Team

Today, teacher aides are readily accepted and requested by teachers in many school districts. In one survey of 4,000 teachers in the District of Columbia, 2,344 teachers ranked teacher aides first on a list of suggestions for making their jobs easier. In Minneapolis, after the experimental use of aides a few years ago, the demand for aides by classroom teachers far exceeded the available supply. But although many teachers, supervisors, and administrators are convinced of the value of aides, others express anxiety about how they will function and still others view them as intruders in the classroom. Therefore, prior to the initiation or expansion of an aide training program, it is suggested that:

1. Whenever possible, teachers should be asked to volunteer to assist in the training and ultimate use of aides in their respective classrooms.
2. Professional personnel – teachers, supervisors and administrators – and presently employed aides should participate in orientation programs to discuss plans, issues, problems, advantages, and goals of teacher-aide programs.
3. Inservice programs should be developed by the school district, in cooperation with local junior

colleges, colleges and universities, to train professional staff members, helping them develop supervisory skills and improved insights into the life styles of trainees.

4. A carefully designed program should be developed, with clear definition of the tasks to be performed by the teacher aide, before recruitment and selection of aides begin.
5. During training, the key members of the training team should meet each week to review the development of the program and adjust its components and emphases as necessary.

The composition of the training team will vary to a considerable degree depending on the individual school system and the specific tasks outlined for the teacher aide. For example, if an aide is being trained to function primarily in the audiovisual program of a school system, maximum participation of the audiovisual department staff is required; if an aide is being trained to function primarily as a library aide, maximum participation of the library staff will be required. However, there are some specific professional and auxiliary staff who comprise the training team. These include the classroom teacher; the administrative representative responsible for coordinating the training; special subject-area teachers (remediation, reading, music, art, etc.); guidance and counseling teachers; local training specialists from junior colleges, colleges, universities, community action agencies, manpower training programs, and selected resource people from the school system and/or community as needed, especially for core group discussions.

These qualifications are recommended for members of the training team:

1. The trainer should have a sympathetic awareness of the concerns, needs and desires of the people and community in the neighborhood served by the school.
2. He should have demonstrated superior ability as a teacher and/or supervisor.
3. He should volunteer to be involved in the program.
4. He should be confident in his own ability and demonstrate a willingness to risk himself in a potentially difficult learning situation.
5. He should have demonstrated flexibility and adaptability in approaches to the learning process and ability to seek advice from his colleagues and other resource people.

Profile and Recommended Qualifications of the Trainee

Profile of the Trainee

There has been much cloudy thinking and writing about the poor and about the "culture of poverty." To work best with the trainee, the trainer should attempt to reorient his thinking about the poor or disadvantaged. We interpret the word *disadvantaged* to mean those persons who have not had the advantages of, or opportunities for, education that the majority of people in this country have had. Therefore, the New Careers training design is an attempt to fill the "education gap" in the lives of the "disadvantaged" group.

The trainer must be aware that adults from poor socioeconomic backgrounds, both rural and urban, generally exhibit some or all of these characteristics:

1. An inadequate self-image
2. Less than adequate reading skill level
3. A background of semiskilled or unskilled jobs in the urban "ghetto" or rural farm areas
4. Membership in an ethnic minority group
5. Varying degrees of apathy to life
6. Limited or unrealistic aspirations
7. A lack of realistic long-range goals.

Recommended Qualifications of the Teacher Aide Trainee

1. The trainee should have a sympathetic awareness of the concerns, needs and desires of people in his neighborhood.
2. He should be a person who is accepted by the community and who feels a part of the local community.
3. He should have an interest in education and a desire to work with children.
4. No specific formal educational achievement is required, but the trainee should demonstrate willingness to learn and the ability to read and write at a fifth grade level.
5. He should be able to empathize with people, have a sense of humor, and enjoy working with individuals and groups.

Suggested Methods for Recruitment of Teacher Aide Trainees

1. Contact local community action agency, state and federal employment agency. Contact area ministers, priests and rabbis for the names of persons who may meet the qualifications outlined.
2. Invite applications from formal groups such as PTA, civic associations, block clubs, and church groups, and from informal groups such as bridge clubs, mothers' clubs, and back-fence groups.
3. Advertise on the local radio and TV stations that are listened to by the residents of the area served.
4. Contact settlement house personnel.
5. Newspaper advertisement may be quite helpful in some localities.
6. Invite suggested names from area public health nurses, social workers, public housing project directors, school principals, and other persons who work closely with area residents.
7. Contact courts, probation officers and detention houses.
8. Circularize the availability of the training program in flyers taken home by pupils.

Function of the Teacher Aide

A crucial factor in planning and implementing a teacher aide training program is the creation of a realistic and workable job description for the entry-level trainee. At first glance, this may appear to be a fairly simple process of factoring out or identifying a number of routine tasks that are burdensome to the teacher and which a trained aide can be expected to assume. In some cases, the factoring out process will have already been done. In others, the training agency may have to become involved in developing and defining specific jobs and job duties. In either instance, the trainer must be aware of the importance of a clear-cut job definition if he is to be effective.

Administration Issues

Hierarchical administrative levels exist in the school system, as in all other large human service institutions. Persons at various levels are likely to view the same issues from differing points of view and with differing degrees of involvement. The first step in defining the functions of a teacher aide is obtaining their agreement on a number of policy issues. It is important, therefore, to meet with the key personnel responsible for defining and establishing policy. These include such persons as the assistant superintendent of elementary schools, the person who will be responsible for coordinating aide training in the schools, the director of the department of supervision and instruction, and directors of the various departments represented in the elementary schools, such as guidance, health, attendance and special education (art, music, physical education, science, etc.).

Since specific roles and responsibilities have been traditionally established in the school system, the introduction of a new kind of employee will have an impact directly or indirectly on the responsibilities of a wide variety of persons. For example, teachers usually are responsible to the principals of their schools. They also may be responsible to a department of supervision and instruction. If the issue of responsibility for the supervision of the teacher aide is not clarified, confusion and possible conflict may develop between the professionals – principal, supervisor and teacher. The principal and the supervisor are potential sources of support and help to the classroom teacher. This potential is enhanced when all three agree on the functions of the teacher aide.

Since an aide training program is a redirection of individual lives and aspirations as well as a method of alleviating manpower shortages, numerous institutional and social processes are involved – professional prerogatives, supervisory structures, administrative decisions, regulations, communication, and the continuity of performance of the work role beyond the entry phase. It is necessary to consider these as the program is planned and initiated.

A policy decision must be made defining instructional and noninstructional responsibilities so that specific tasks can be assigned to the aide. On this matter there is wide divergence of opinion, ranging from the belief that everything connected with the education system is instructional to the belief that only the specific and new academic material taught in a classroom is instructional. Administrators and staff of each school system will, of course, make their own definitions, somewhere between these two poles of thought. The important thing is that the issue be settled and understood as policy by all the staff. Even then, there will inevitably remain a certain range of discretion which will fall to the individual judgment of the individual supervisor. This is sometimes referred to as the "gray area" into which fall tasks such as correcting papers with a key, flash-card drills, or repeating teacher instructions to pupils who require repetition of directions or explanation.

Another crucial issue is whether the aide will be assigned to one classroom, or whether he will be responsible to several teachers. Especially during the training experience, it is wise for the aide to be responsible just to one teacher. This has several advantages:

1. The strengths and deficiencies of the trainee can be more quickly identified and linked to the training workshops.
2. The process of supervision is facilitated.
3. The trainee can more readily become a member of rather than an appendage to the classroom.
4. A closer working relationship can exist between teacher and pupils.
5. The teacher will be freer to experiment creatively as she learns to use the aide and to utilize her own time more effectively.
6. There is greater likelihood that the aide will be assigned real and related tasks if he is with the same teacher throughout the day.

Once the aide is established in his role, if it seems advisable, some system of sharing with other teachers might be worked out, with one supervising teacher assuming the function of coordinating the aide's schedule. It is important that this not be done too early in the training since the aide will still be adjusting to the work role. In addition, the training period is the time of greatest burden on the teacher, who is also responsible for teaching a set curriculum in a given amount of time. To add the additional task of coordinating the aide's time with several other teachers might prove overwhelming.

Another policy decision must be made to clarify the relationship of the aide to special personnel, such as the art or music teacher, the guidance counselor, the nurse, or the attendance officer. One alternative would be to assign the aide to assist in all activities relating to the children in one classroom. Thus, the aide might assist the special teachers by preparing materials, helping individual pupils, and observing (or being a "second pair of eyes" for the instructor). He might similarly assist the nurse in taking heights, weights, ear and eye tests of his pupils. He might consult with the guidance counselor and teacher about a specific child – giving anecdotal material, or receiving suggestions for handling problems. He might, if a child were chronically absent, go to his home. This might be particularly helpful, since the child and his parents already would know him and might respond more positively than they would to a stranger. Another alternative might be the training of aides who would be assigned to special personnel on an ongoing basis and accompany them from room to room or school to school. This method has the disadvantage of precluding the development of a significant, continuing relationship between an aide and a group of children -- the most important contribution the indigenous worker can make.

These policy decisions will significantly affect how the aide is viewed by staff and others in the system. He can be a potentially valuable resource, but he can also represent a disturbance to routine, to issues of "qualifications" and to pet theories of individual capability and responsibility. These disturbances may be smoothed over for a time, but they are never far from the surface. Simply because an institution may use teacher aides for a time because of pressures and needs does not mean that it will automatically adjust itself to integrate and retain them. In fact, quite the opposite reaction can take place beneath a facade of harmony and progress. Forces may exist which will try to return the institution to its original state, either by expelling the program or retaining only those individuals who can "fit in" with a minimal degree of strain.

This then brings us to the final and perhaps the most basic administrative issue – the role of the supervising teacher. With the introduction of the aide into the classroom, the function of the teacher is modified. The most obvious change is in the addition of the supervisory function. As noted previously, the teacher must of necessity schedule the aide's day. In the training phase, she may have to teach him some skills he has not yet learned in the workshops or small group discussions. She is responsible for seeing that he carries out assigned tasks, for improving and developing his performance and helping him to become a part of the classroom routine. Two questions immediately become apparent. Where does she find the time? How does she acquire those supervisory skills which frequently were not a part of her professional preparation? A third question becomes apparent after the aide is trained. What kinds of new tasks can the teacher now assume, and what additional training and education might she require?

While there are no easy answers to these questions, they are of immediate concern to the teacher and to the administration. Clearly, unless the administration is able to offer some support to the teacher, her effectiveness in utilizing the skills which can be offered by the aide is substantially decreased. Some method must be devised to give the teacher time to supervise and give directions to the aide. One helpful device is for the teacher to note the daily activities for the aide on her lesson plans. But this is insufficient in itself, particularly during the training period. She might have him prepare the room for morning activities on the preceding afternoon. Then, in the morning, before classes begin, she can spend time talking with the trainee and reviewing his work. Or she might take time at the end of the day to review his performance and give him instructions for the morning. Or she may be able to spend time with the aide while the children are with special teachers.

Teachers will acquire a significant degree of supervisory skill through experience, but opportunity for additional, more formal learning is often also needed. It is also important during the training period that the aide supervisor have time to discuss issues and problems with the trainers. An ideal, but rare, situation is one in which the trainers are part of a college faculty and are equipped to teach a course in supervision, utilizing the training program as a field experience. This is particularly beneficial if course credit for teachers can be accrued. As an alternative, in-service sessions in supervision can be developed by departments, such as the department of supervision and instruction. Courses might be offered in local colleges. In any event, the need for some specific time period during which supervising teachers can acquire skills they need and meet with trainers to discuss the progress of the aides cannot be adequately met unless the school system staff supports the need and begins to devise adequate methods.

The Job Definition

Once policy decisions are made about how the aide will fit into the school staffing patterns, the next step is to devise a list of specific job tasks that he will be expected to perform. It is recommended that specific tasks be defined by those with whom the aide will be working – the principal, classroom teachers, nurse, guidance counselor, special teachers, and the relevant supervisor from the department of supervision and instruction. If the system already has teacher aides, the inclusion of representatives from this group would be helpful.

It would be wise to devise two kinds of task lists: one for the primary grades, and another for grades four through six. Experience has indicated that there is a substantial difference between routine tasks to be performed in each of these two grade groupings.

The job definition should be viewed as developmental. Some tasks initially included may be found to be inappropriate for the aide. Conversely, the initial job description may be quite general or limited. As the program progresses, teachers may wish to assign responsibilities they were reluctant to include initially. They will inevitably think of additional tasks that were previously overlooked. Designing the description with a thought for its flexibility and awareness of impending possible modification will encourage teachers to use their ideas creatively and to experiment with a variety of ideas.

The specific functions or duties that teacher aides might be expected to perform for different grades are outlined here. These duties, in effect, serve as an overall framework within which the aide functions. Within these limits, his role should be flexible enough to meet individual classroom needs.

Preschool

At the preschool level, the teacher aide can assist in the aspects of the teaching program that emphasize opportunities for creative expression and socialization, depending on the particular needs of the teacher.

Assistance in Performing Housekeeping Duties

The preparational and clean-up duties that the teacher aide can perform do not require instructional or professional skills or background, but serve to facilitate the work of the teacher or professional support staff. These duties are performed at the request or suggestion of the teacher and under the teacher's supervision. Some specific job duties may include:

1. Preparing paint and chalk supplies
2. Obtaining supplies from the storage room
3. Checking for good ventilation, lighting, and seating arrangements
4. Preparing play dough
5. Putting out playground equipment
6. Putting out cots for rest periods
7. Taking children to and from the washroom
8. Helping children take off and put on outdoor clothing
9. Helping tie shoes
10. Helping to wash hands before lunch and after toileting
11. Sitting at the lunch table to help the children and talk with them
12. Helping set up food and helping children eat when necessary
13. Helping children get ready for naps and sitting next to a child who has trouble relaxing
14. Sitting in the nap room while the children are sleeping
15. Helping children put blocks away.
16. Cleaning up after children have painted or played with clay.
17. Cleaning up after children who have had juice or lunch.
18. Putting outdoor equipment away
19. Participating with the children in playground games
20. Escorting children to the library
21. Helping with the mechanics of a trip, such as helping children board the bus, opening doors, or taking children to the rest room
22. Procuring audiovisual material and other materials from the school resources center.

Assistance in Performing Clerical Duties

The clerical duties that the teacher aide can perform include keeping records about individual children or of certain activities that the teacher might suggest. These duties do not require instructional or professional skills or background but serve to facilitate the work of the teacher or professional support staff. These duties are performed at the request or suggestion of the teacher and under the teacher's supervision. Some specific job duties may include:

1. Taking attendance
2. Keeping the roll book
3. Keeping health records up to date
4. Assisting in the school office -- sorting and filing, etc.
5. Filling out library cards
6. Preparing seating arrangement charts
7. Helping children arrange bulletin boards and displays
8. Grading papers with teacher's key
9. Procuring audiovisual equipment and operating machines.

Assistance in Performing Instructional Duties

The instructional assistance duties that a teacher aide can perform vary from teacher to teacher in a school or a system. These duties require some semiprofessional skills and serve to facilitate the work of the teacher or professional support staff. They should, however, be performed at the request or suggestion of the teacher, after he has introduced any new academic material and under his supervision. Some specific duties may include:

1. Taking charge of the class for short periods in the teacher's absence
2. Taking charge of the class as a whole while the teacher works with smaller groups
3. Supervising halls, lavatories and the lunchroom
4. Supervising recreation periods
5. Supervising field trips and buses
6. Helping children with reading
7. Helping children with arithmetic
8. Helping children with spelling
9. Helping children with word recognition
10. Giving assistance in following instructions
11. Assisting in the development of special classes, such as art, music, and educational and recreational play
12. Reading stories to the children
13. Making materials to aid fast and slow learners, such as number study cards, word cards, and picture dictionaries
14. Working with children who have been absent.

Elementary School

The elementary school teacher aide can perform various duties, based on grade or subject assignment, emphasizing opportunities for creative, social, and instructional expression, depending on the particular needs of the supervising teacher or professional support staff.

Assistance in Performing Housekeeping Duties

The preparational and clean-up duties which a teacher aide might perform do not require instructional or professional skills or background but serve to facilitate the work of the teacher or professional support staff. These duties are performed at the request or suggestion of the teacher and under the teacher's supervision, depending on grade level and teacher-pupil needs. Some specific job duties may include:

1. Preparing paint and chalk supplies
2. Obtaining supplies from the storage room
3. Checking for good ventilation, lighting, and seating arrangements
4. Preparing play dough
5. Putting out cots for rest periods
6. Putting out playground equipment
7. Helping children take off and put on outdoor clothing
8. Taking children to and from the washroom
9. Helping children tie shoes
10. Helping children wash hands before lunch and after toileting
11. Sitting at the lunch table to help and talk with children
12. Helping children get ready for naps and sitting with a child who has trouble relaxing
13. Sitting in the nap room while the children are sleeping
14. Helping children put blocks away
15. Helping children clean up after painting or playing with clay
16. Putting outdoor equipment away
17. Helping children to clean up after having lunch
18. Participating in playground games
19. Helping with the mechanics of a trip, such as assisting children on the bus, opening doors and taking children to the rest room
20. Escorting children to the library
21. Procuring audiovisual material and other materials
22. Supervising erasing and washing of blackboards
23. Supervising the distribution of text books
24. Supervising while children clean and put away art supplies
25. Supervising while laboratories are cleaned and set up for science demonstrations and experiments
26. Supervising the distribution of supplies and equipment, such as paper and pencils, compasses, protractors.

Assistance in Performing Clerical Duties

The aide can keep records about individual children or about certain activities the teacher may suggest. While these duties require no instructional or professional skills or background and serve to facilitate the work of the teacher or professional support staff, they entail a greater amount of paper work and are carried out at the request or suggestion of the teacher and under the teacher's supervision. Some specific job duties may include:

1. Taking attendance
2. Keeping the roll book
3. Keeping health records up to date
4. Assisting in the school office, e.g., sorting and filing
5. Filling out library cards
6. Preparing seating arrangement charts
7. Arranging bulletin boards and displays
8. Grading papers with the teacher's key
9. Helping to locate library materials
10. Helping to prepare report cards
11. Helping to record grades on the final record cards to be put later on transcripts
12. Procuring audiovisual equipment and operating machines
13. Collecting lunch money
14. Collecting and passing back test papers
15. Collecting and passing back homework papers.

Assistance in Performing Instructional Duties

The instructional assistance duties that a teacher aide can perform may vary from teacher to teacher in a school building or system. The duties require some semiprofessional skills and serve to facilitate the work of the teacher or professional support staff. They are mainly in remedial and tutorial education and in parent-school relationships. They are performed at the request or suggestion of the teacher and under the teacher's supervision. Some specific duties may include:

1. Taking charge of the class for short periods of time in the teacher's absence
2. Taking charge of the class while the teacher works with smaller groups
3. Supervising halls, lavatories, and the lunchroom.
4. Supervising recreation periods
5. Supervising field trips and buses
6. Helping children with reading
7. Helping children with arithmetic
8. Helping children with spelling
9. Helping children with word recognition
10. Giving assistance to children on techniques and the necessity for following instructions
11. Assisting in the development of special classes, such as art, music, and educational and recreational play
12. Reading stories to the children
13. Making materials to aid fast and slow learners
14. Working with children who have been absent
15. Observing, suggesting, and implementing remedial help
16. Talking with parents about their expectations of the school
17. Helping the teacher to understand parents' beliefs, hopes, and fears for themselves and their children
18. Helping to locate library material

19. Helping with term papers
20. Helping with book reports
21. Conducting role-playing sessions
22. Assisting in physical education
23. Counseling students
24. Assisting in testing procedures.

Secondary School

In this area, the teacher aide will carry out various responsibilities, including college preparatory and vocational training. Opportunities emphasized encompass creative, social, and instructional expression, depending upon the particular needs of the teacher.

Assistance in Performing Housekeeping Duties

The preparational and clean-up duties that the teacher aide can perform do not require instructional or professional skills, but serve to facilitate the work of the teacher or professional support staff. These duties are performed at the request or suggestion of the teacher and under the teacher's supervision. Some specific duties might be:

1. Obtaining supplies from the storage room or cabinet
2. Checking the room to insure good ventilation, lighting, and seating arrangements
3. Erasing and washing blackboards
4. Cleaning and putting away art supplies
5. Setting up and cleaning laboratories for science demonstrations and experiments
6. Passing out and putting away supplies and equipment, such as paper and pencils, compasses, protractors, textbooks, etc.

Assistance in Performing Clerical Duties

The clerical duties which the teacher aide can perform include keeping records about individual students, handling supplemental classroom materials and equipment, classroom paper work, and general office duties. These duties require no instructional or professional skills or background and serve to facilitate the work of the teacher or professional support staff. They are performed at the request or suggestion of the teacher and under the teacher's supervision. Some specific job duties might be:

1. Taking attendance
2. Keeping the roll book
3. Keeping health records up to date
4. Assisting in the school office, e.g., filing and sorting
5. Filling out library cards
6. Preparing seating arrangement charts
7. Arranging bulletin board displays
8. Grading papers with the teacher's key
9. Helping locate library materials
10. Helping prepare report cards
11. Helping record grades on the final record cards to go later on transcripts
12. Procuring audiovisual equipment and materials and operating machines.

Assistance in Performing Instructional Duties

The instructional assistance duties that a teacher aide might perform may vary from teacher to teacher in a school building or system. These duties require some degree of semiprofessional skills and serve to facilitate the work of the teacher or professional support staff in various subject content areas. They will be performed at the request of or suggestion of the teacher and under the teacher's supervision. Some specific duties may include:

1. Taking charge of one section of the class while the teacher works with smaller groups
2. Supervising study halls, the lavatories, and the lunchroom
3. Helping to plan and supervise field trips
4. Helping with reading, math, spelling, and social studies
5. Helping students follow instructions
6. Providing assistance in testing procedures
7. Assisting in "minor" credit classes such as art, music, and physical education
8. Assisting in specialized classes such as home economics, office machines, sewing, and shop
9. Assisting in remedial education
10. Working with students who have been absent
11. Observing, suggesting, and implementing remedial help
12. Talking with parents about their expectations of the school
13. Helping the teacher to understand parents and their beliefs, hopes, and fears for themselves and their children
14. Helping to locate library materials
15. Helping with term papers
16. Helping with book reports
17. Conducting role-playing sessions
18. Counseling students.

The Need for Realistic Career Mobility

Recommendations arising from the study of fifteen demonstration training programs for auxiliary school personnel conducted by the Bank Street College of Education for the Office of Economic Opportunity in 1966-67 stressed the need to institutionalize these personnel into the warp and woof of the school program fabric. The study report states:

> That each step on the career ladder be specified in terms of job descriptions, salaries, increments, and fringe benefits, moving from routine functions at the entry level to functions which are more responsible and more directly related to the learning-teaching process with appropriate training available at each stage of development on a work-study basis.[1]

The study report also recommends that there should be *opportunity* but not *compulsion* for upward mobility. At all levels, all members of the educational team should experience job satisfaction, status and a sense of worth and dignity as a result of their participation in the learning process.

A "Career" – Not a "Dead-End" Job

The New Careers training program provides a new way to help bridge the gap between the lack of credentials in a human service occupation and job entry with potential career mobility. Thus, career mobility means the availability of opportunities for initial training and employment through successive steps leading to a desired career. Providing "careers" rather than "jobs" is the key differentiation between the New Careers training model and other job training programs.

"It is important to distinguish between job-oriented training and career-oriented training."[2] Job training connotes training for positions which may or may not have permanence. Career training carries the implicit understanding of progress through clearly defined steps, each with carefully stated requirements for mobility. Job training, especially for people who have no high school diploma, generally means a "dead end" job, a job with no hope and, usually, little dignity. Career training involves screening people *into* programs and, while they are in training, helping them achieve high school equivalency diplomas or other academic certificates. In other words, human service agencies must recognize that the quality of service may be improved through the unique contribution of indigenous human service aides. Therefore, just as they provide encouragement and assistance for professional staff, human service agencies have a responsibility to encourage and assist their aides in realizing true career mobility.

The recruitment, training, and employment of indigenous human service aides and assistance with their career mobility makes good sense for educational institutions. The shortage of teaching manpower is increasing the gap between the level of education now possible and the continued unmet educational needs of the public, particularly for residents of urban slums and poverty pockets in suburban and rural communities.

A number of training centers and educational services agencies throughout the country have developed entry-level positions in a variety of teaching-related occupations and have successfully trained and employed disadvantaged people for these positions. Some beginnings also have been made in developing career ladders and the necessary supportive training to encourage and facilitate upward and diagonal mobility beyond the entry level. Training programs have been conducted for careers as school media aides, library aides, remedial reading tutorial aides, school-community aides, noninstructional aides, and instructional aides.

The New Careers training model already has demonstrated its potential for training auxiliary personnel in education. Graduates of programs have been placed in jobs in which undereducated, unemployed, and underemployed people have been helped to the first step in career mobility.

The critical question is not, "Should we utilize people indigenous to poverty areas to fill teaching needs?" but rather, "How quickly can we analyze existing systems of educational institutions and the personnel supplying services and utilize this available pool of manpower to fill needed gaps in service and provide the missing 'linkage' to careers in education for thousands of undereducated, unemployed and underemployed?"

Career Ladders for the Teacher Aide

Career mobility is the main underlying concept of the New Careers program. Attaining the necessary skills and knowledge that enable a person to function adequately as a noninstructional teacher aide is the beginning of a series of steps on the education career ladder.

A next possible upward step to *teacher assistant* could be dependent on the aide's achieving a high school diploma or equivalency and/or his demonstrated ability to assume increased responsibility with decreased direct supervision.

To qualify for the next step on the ladder as a *teacher associate,* these additional functions and requirements are suggested:

1. Preparing materials required for remedial instruction, selecting high-interest materials that are not a part of the curriculum, integrating them into the program as supplementary materials, and arranging classroom decor
2. Using teaching machines, such as the Bell and Howell Language Master,® Educational Development Laboratories (EDL) Filmstrips, Tack-X,® etc.
3. Assisting students individually and in groups in attempting to improve their attitudes toward the mechanics of the learning process
4. Assisting students in the use of tape recorders, typewriters, and projectors as aids for improving skills
5. Supervising and participating in games, such as Scrabble,® anagrams, or crossword puzzles
6. Consulting with the remedial teacher about classroom observations to refine and improve remedial techniques and materials
7. Maintaining student records, e.g., knowing what books remedial students are reading, knowing their interests and keeping track of their progress
8. Administering tests to individual students to determine progress and note habits
9. Participating in extra- and co-curricular activities such as seeking and/or preparing materials suitable to the particular methods and/or techniques of the teacher
10. Associate in Arts degree or equivalent credit in a local junior college, college or university or any combination of credit and experience as a teacher assistant approved by the local school district.

Other Potential Career Ladders for Teacher Aides

Some teacher aides may have interests in career advancement outside the actual teaching occupation. There are numerous avenues open following additional training and/or education.

The rationale of the New Careers program necessitates preplanning for those persons who aspire to more challenging occupations and professions in the field of education. Early communication with technical schools, junior colleges, colleges, and other institutions that provide training and continuing education opportunities will provide the academic and skill requirements for the attainment of the recognized credentials in other teacher-related occupational areas. Administrators and educators in the local community may welcome the opportunity to plan jointly for career mobility of teacher aides. The optimum time to initiate this planning is during the embryonic stages of the New Careers training program.

This requires a cooperative effort on the part of representatives of school districts, institutions of higher education (junior colleges, colleges and universities) and other local resources, such as state and federal agencies.

In Figure 1, a suggested career ladder for auxiliary school personnel is shown. It is but one example of the developing attempt across the country to clarify roles and differentiate tasks leading to optimum utilization of all educational personnel – professional and auxiliary.

Figure 1 *Suggested Career Ladder for the Development of Auxiliary School Personnel*

Title	Examples	Illustrative Functions	Requirements
Aide	General School Aide Teacher Aide Family Worker or Aide Counselor Aide Library Aide School-Community Relations Aide School Health Aide Special Aide	Housekeeping, clerical, noninstructional and instructional	Must meet screening requirements, be a local resident and complete a three- to six-month course in New Careers training
Assistant	Teacher Assistant Family Assistant Counselor Assistant Library Assistant Physical Education Assistant Social Worker Assistant School Health Assistant		High school diploma (or equivalent) and one year's successful experience on the job plus enrollment in post-high school continuing education programs, preferably in a two- or four-year degree program
Associate	Teacher Associate Home-School Associate Counselor Associate Library Associate Social Work Associate		Associate in Arts degree or equivalent credit in a local junior college or university or any combination of credit and experience as a teacher assistant approved by the local school district
Teacher		Instructional and supervisory	B.A. or B.S. degree and enrollment in a college of teacher education or other institution which offers a program leading to certification

[1] Bowman G. and G. Klopf. *New Careers and Roles in the American School.* New York: Bank Street College of Education, 1967.

[2] Reissman, F. "Career-Oriented Training vs. Job-Oriented Training," New Careers Development Center, New York, Mimeographed, April 1967.

CHAPTER II

TYPICAL PROBLEMS AND SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

Introduction

On the basis of experience in past teacher aide training programs, it has been possible to identify a number of problems and issues that frequently arise. Each program, however, will be unique and will have its own concerns and problems, not all of which can be anticipated in advance. It is important that program participants be aware not only of the possibilities described here but also of the existence of the "unknowns." To be prepared for all problems and issues that may arise, each program should be designed to allow maximum flexibility for modifications and additions.

Each group implementing New Careers training programs for teacher aides will add to an emerging body of knowledge that may ultimately lead to the institutionalization and widespread accreditation of auxiliary personnel in education. Many thought-provoking questions have been raised about the use of teacher aides, and not all can be answered now. Do aides become overly involved with pupils on a personal level? Can aides be effective referral agents to community resources when problems are uncovered in the home? Is this an appropriate function of the teacher aide? Perhaps the biggest question demanding the attention both of teachers and nonprofessionals in education will be the changing role of the classroom teacher as aides are trained and begin working. Hopefully, some of the answers will emerge from your programs. For example, one observation made in an early program indicated that the combination of a male teacher and female aide and vice versa in a classroom was particularly effective.

Physical Accommodations

Frequently, simple but important factors are overlooked while more complex aspects of a training program are being worked out.

For example, each aide will require an adult-sized desk or table and chair where he can work. Particularly in the elementary school, such furniture may not be available and may have to be secured from a central warehouse or supply center. He will also require a place for his personal effects (hat, coat, pocketbook, etc.). He should not have to use the children's cloakroom, unless, of course, the teacher uses it as well. It is important for the children and the aide that the aide be seen from the outset as part of the school's educational staff. Small matters such as where he has to "hang his hat" convey subtle but clear messages.

Some decisions will need to be made about bathroom and lunch facilities. In some schools it has been taken for granted that aides will use faculty facilities. Some teachers have objected to this practice, however, on the grounds that they need a place to gather and speak freely. They may want to discuss confidential matters about administrative policy, a particular child, or the aides themselves that they prefer the aides not hear. A basic question underlines these objections: Are the aides part of a teaching team and, therefore, privy to the problems and concerns of staff, or are they appendages to that staff? Whatever the answer, it is hoped that aides will be able to use faculty accommodations. To avoid possible friction or confusion, however, questions like this should be resolved before the program begins.

Some Practical Issues

While general policy about the functions of teacher aides will be set by the administration, a variety of questions and problems will arise during the training program.

Who will be responsible for scheduling the aide's day?

During the training phase it will be important for the aides, the trainers and the teacher-supervisors to have a clear understanding of where the aide is to spend his time. Despite a calendar carefully planned in advance, many circumstances will arise, calling for some modification in scheduling from time to time. It is essential, then, that the trainer and the work supervisor communicate with each other, not only about the content and experience of the training, but about any changes in scheduling that may be necessary. For example, a teacher may decide to take her class on a field trip for the day and may want the aide to come along to assist her and to gain additional training experience. Or the trainer may wish to schedule a day's trip related to an area in the Generic Issues component of New Careers training. Still another possibility may be that the trainee needs to take a day of annual leave.

It is important that the trainer and the teacher be able to talk with one another and reach some agreement about the possibility of any particular change in schedule. In addition, the aide should be aware that although this kind of joint planning and decision-making is in process throughout the program, he is basically responsible for his whereabouts. This means that if he needs to spend a day away from the program, he is responsible for clearing the matter both with his instructor and his supervisor. Invariably, when these ground rules are not clearly understood, strain and confusion arise, and the aide gets caught in the middle.

A Note on Competition

New Careers training programs tend to generate strong commitment among participating staff members, and sometimes a sort of "competition" for the aide develops among them. At times, each professional staff member views himself as more important than other staff to the aide. While commitment of staff is a key element to success in training, it can be a source of potential conflict as well.

It is helpful to remember the primary goal of the aide – to be adequately prepared for a job. If there is conflict between requests made by the trainer and the teacher, the aide will, in all probability, respond to the request of the teacher. The teacher is, after all, his "boss" in the most practical sense, and efforts of the training staff should be geared to reinforcing this loyalty, wherever possible, in accordance with the guidelines of the program. Equally important, however, is the necessity for preparing the aide to get and hold a job. It is suggested that a program be designed in which the trainer and work experience supervisor act as a team. To make this approach workable, it is advisable to determine which person will be responsible for establishing controls and priorities in the program.

Clearly, the aide will receive the richest work experience if he is able to be in the classroom the entire day. During the training phase, however, some accommodations will be necessary in order to implement the other components of the model. This may mean that the aide may not be available to the teacher at a time when the teacher would benefit most from his presence. *Many problems can be avoided if the ground rules for the training period are established with relevant staff, as well as trainees, before the program begins.* Staff members who seek to enforce program regulations will be seen by the aides as the "bad guys" if other staff members do not also enforce the regulations. If there is divisiveness and competition among the staff, the aide will more than likely succumb to the tendency to "play off" one staff member against the other to his advantage.

How can liaison and communication among staff be effected?

To insure that various training components be integrated and built upon one another, it is advisable to schedule regular staff meetings. Because of tight teachers' schedules, this is generally difficult to do. If class coverage is available for the teachers, you may be able to schedule a meeting during an extended lunch hour once a week. Or it may be possible to schedule a two-hour meeting after school or on Saturdays. This avoids the problem of providing class coverage, but it raises one related to the extra time involved for the teachers. One way to insure teacher participation in these meetings or seminars is to provide compensation for attendance. If the training is conducted by an academic institution, such as a junior college, course credit might be given. In Scheuer New Careers programs, money is available to pay training costs. Some financial remuneration might be offered as an inducement for attendance.

It is important that the purpose and goals of the seminars be outlined in advance. They fall into two categories. The immediate purpose is programmatic: to provide feedback to all staff regarding issues or problems in training such as scheduling, training content, job tasks, relationships of teacher to aide and aide to the children, etc. The second purpose is educational: 1) to orient the teacher to the underlying concepts of New Careers; 2) to examine issues related to supervision of the human service aides, their strengths and deficiencies, and their impact on the education system, and 3) to deal with the changing roles and needs of the professional teaching staff. Frequently, personnel who work closely with an aide feel a strong need to let him know that he is accepted and to be, in turn, accepted by him. It is not unusual for both teacher and aide to deny initial apprehensiveness and ambivalence about the aide being in the classroom. This is an experience which is equally difficult for both. Staff seminars can be very helpful in identifying these feelings so that they can be examined and shared by the participants. The seminars can be for the teachers, in essence, what the core group is for the aides, but on a different level with both similar and different goals.

Seminars are an effective means of sharing information, but they should not be the only means. Their function will be enhanced if the trainer also has developed relationships with each of the teachers in relation to their mutual work with the aide. It is wise to remember that while the major focus of the trainer is training aides, the major focus of the teacher is educating the pupils in his charge. The more helpful the trainer can be in resolving problems and communicating his awareness of the teacher's priorities, the richer the training experience will be. To that end, informal visits to the classroom, at a time convenient for the teacher, will be highly valuable. Not only can they provide support to the teacher, but the trainer will pick up valuable information about individual aides or concerns of the teacher which might not be expressed in a seminar meeting.

Should the aide attend PTA and faculty meetings?

The administration may or may not define policy in this matter. In any event, each staff will have differing opinions about aide attendance at these meetings. Some school personnel may feel that aides, as teachers, should be expected to attend. Some principals may feel that some discretion should be used in inviting aide participation. There may be faculty meetings where the aides themselves will be discussed. There may be curriculum meetings which call for a level of educational competence which the aides do not have. Despite a general administrative policy, each principal will want to exercise his prerogatives in making decisions he feels are appropriate to his particular school. Trainers need to be aware of the role of the principal in this, as in other matters, and consult with him about them before the program starts.

Relationships and Attitudes

In teacher aide programs which "screen in" applicants, it is likely that many of the aides will have been previously viewed as failures and/or problems by the school system and the teaching staff. A unique feature of the teacher aide training program is that most of the trainees had extended contact with the school when they were pupils. (In the health aide program, in contrast, few trainees will have had extensive contact with the training agency prior to training.) Teacher aide trainees probably remember their school situation as one in which "battle" lines were drawn, with the "enemy" being either pupil or teacher, depending on the vantage point of each. A teacher aide training program requires that the teacher accept as a responsible staff member an individual whom he has perhaps previously viewed as problematic, "slow," unmotivated, or incorrigible. It further requires that the aide look to the school system as his chosen employer, and to the teacher as a helping, supportive "boss" – despite previous experience which may have been characterized by frustration, anger and failure. For the program to "take," some additional changes are implicit, and realignments must begin to form. In the process, a number of events may occur.

The Teacher Aide – A Problem Pupil?

While there are some regulations of which the aide may be unaware, there are others which will be common knowledge such as rules about smoking, drinking, listening to the radio, or chewing gum. The aide, in his efforts to learn where he stands in the system and how he is regarded by the teachers within it, may disobey some regulations in order to find out 1) what the limitations are, and 2) how they will be enforced. More frequently, he may be aware of regulations as they apply to pupils, but not as they apply to staff. It is not uncommon for an aide to have an exalted impression of the privileges of the professional employee. Thus, he may try to find out if these assumed privileges also apply to him.

The teacher may respond in several ways. She may react to the aide much as she would to any difficult pupil. She may seek to discipline him herself or through the principal. She may ignore the behavior initially either because she fears she will alienate the aide, because she assumes that the "training people" will solve the problem, or because of feelings about allowances made because the aide is "disadvantaged." If allowed to continue, the aide will get the impression that allowances are indeed being made or even that the implicit expectation is that he *will* misbehave. If so, he may well act in accord with the role he perceives has been assigned to him. Ultimately, the teacher will not be able to tolerate the behavior, and a vicious cycle of behavior will result with the aide taking the role of the problem pupil and the teacher assuming the role of the disciplinarian. In this way, the worst fears of both may be realized.

Initiative

Particularly in the beginning of the program, both the teacher and the aide will be working out relationships with each other and with the pupils. The aide may be reluctant to take initiative, relying on the teacher for explicit instructions. In many instances, the teacher may not be aware of the aide's hesitancy and may misinterpret it as disinterest, "slowness" or even laziness. In other instances, the teacher may have low expectations with respect to the aide's abilities and therefore may demand and accept minimal work and competence. In still other cases, the teacher may feel directly responsible for the aide's performance and success, and therefore not apprise the trainer of problems or deficiencies which might otherwise be remedied, feeling that any problems are a direct reflection on her own competence as a supervisor.

It will be helpful if the trainer can anticipate some of these possibilities at the first seminar meetings. In the discussion, anxieties, prejudices and questions can be reviewed and suggestions elicited from the group about how they might be handled.

Training Role of the Supervising Teacher

Since the focus of the program is training the aide to be an effective helper in the classroom, the supervising teacher becomes part of the training team and should feel free to contribute both her concerns and ideas in seminars. As common issues and problems are discussed, the teacher may be more inclined to view her concerns as issues in training rather than as personal challenges or failures. The issues raised then can be discussed in the generic curriculum for the aides as a support to the work experience. The teacher can help the aide make the transition from the general to the specific by making realistic demands and setting reasonable standards of performance.

Aide-Pupil Relationships

We are aware of the tendency of children to develop "crushes" on their teachers. For aides, this can be a particularly embarrassing and sometimes painful experience. Especially in the fifth and sixth grades, pupils may develop "crushes" on aides who may be in their late teens or early twenties. The tendency may be enhanced by the close relationships that aides frequently develop with pupils. While relatively infrequent, potentially serious problems may arise. In one program, for example, a male aide attempted to separate two girls who were fighting on the playground. After the incident one of the girls accused the aide of "touching" her. The ramifications are obvious. Trainees, consequently, need to be informed about more than rules and regulations. They will also need to learn the human relations skills involved in working with children and in handling themselves in complex situations such as these.

Aide-Teacher Relationships

Since the use of auxiliary personnel in the classroom is a relatively new concept, a variety of differences exist with respect to the role of the aide *vis a vis* that of the teacher. Some teachers view their aides as "oversized pupils" and react to them accordingly. It is easy for the aide to slip into the pupil role, since it is the one with which he is most familiar. The teacher then assumes the primary function of an educator, and the aide that of a student. While aspects of the teacher-learner relationship are part of the supervisory function, they should be of a specific *job-related* nature. Particularly since many aides will have academic deficiencies, there will be a great temptation for the teacher to teach and the aide to learn the *academic content* in the classroom. While this may be a beneficial and welcome by-product for the aide, a distinction should be made between teaching the trainee skills and teaching him arithmetic or reading. To engage in the latter divests the aide of much of his work role and replaces it with the role of a pupil. That academic learning does take place for the aide is attested to by occurrences in which aides have raised their hands in response to a question directed by the teacher to his class. The teacher may make note of this for the remedial instructor in the training program or may acknowledge the response in a private session with the aide. If severe academic deficiencies exist, it might be wise to assign the aide to a primary grade until he has "caught up" enough to be comfortable in a higher grade. It is possible that an aide may be performing poorly because he is afraid that the pupils know more than he and is afraid of being exposed.

In other instances, teachers have taken on the role of an older brother or sister to the aide. While this has worked out in some cases, more often the aide sees such a relationship as faintly patronizing or condescending. In any event, such a relationship tends to be unrealistic in a work situation. Sooner or later the teacher will need to use the prerogatives and responsibilities inherent in a supervisory function. Where the primary relationship in work is a "familiar" one, this may cause a number of problems.

Still other teachers have tended to utilize the aide as a kind of "super-monitor" or disciplinarian. This kind of sergeant-at-arms role presents a number of problems. It places the aide in a position of an authoritarian and a "bad guy" role to the children. It places on him a responsibility for classroom control which many professionally trained teachers find difficult to accomplish and it prevents him from developing his role in a helpful and creative way. It may even, in some cases, make the teacher less effective with her pupils. Finally, it may well prevent the aide from being accepted as a warm and interested adult with whom the children can form a sustaining and responsive relationship. While each teacher will develop an individual relationship with the aide, the most effective ones will emerge where the school environment supports an understanding of 1) the responsibilities of each; 2) the nature of their relationships to the pupils; 3) the capacities of each, and, most important, 4) a respect for their mutual competence and contribution as an education team.

CHAPTER III

ORGANIZATION AND STRUCTURE OF THE PROGRAM

The New Careers training model consists of a number of related elements including job development, daily small group discussions focused on human service and job issues, training, and weekly seminars for supervisory personnel in the training elements.[1] The planning, organization and conduct of any New Careers program should incorporate these elements and their related curriculum areas.

Rationale for Curriculum Content Areas

The first basic, or generic, curriculum covers elements common to all human services such as education, welfare, health, or law enforcement. The common elements include perspectives on poverty, human development and problems of people, psycho-pathology, major problems in the delivery of human services, community resources for the resolution of human problems, consumer education, group dynamics, the world of work, minority history, prejudice, field trips to representative human service agencies, interviewing, and communication and remediation.[2]

In addition to the generic curriculum in human services, there is a similar basic curriculum in education that includes subject matter such as the legal basis for schools, financing, organization of the learning process, personnel, etc. To prepare trainees for a wide variety of entry-level occupations in education, they should all be exposed to this "generic education curriculum" prior to or along with specific skill training. The progression of curriculum areas is illustrated below.

Planning the curriculum for human service aides in this manner provides the greatest possible flexibility in the initial phase of training by providing all enrollees with a common base of information and experiences which can be built upon in subsequent curriculum. It also prevents the necessity of an enrollee having to repeat the entire training cycle if his initial choice of entry-level occupation was inappropriate and he decides to change to another field of service. If a trainee completes the generic issues and basic education and is in the final stage of training as a teacher aide at the time he decides to change, only the skill portion of training needs to be repeated.

Trainees should be encouraged to bring issues and problems about group processes to the generic core group sessions. These problems can be discussed in relation to the curriculum for human services. For example, if one of the trainees reports the arrest of a friend, core discussion could focus on the relationship of the police department to the community. If a health problem is brought up, the area of personal and/or environmental health can be discussed as it relates to the community in which the trainees live.

The content of the skill workshops should be worked out jointly with appropriate educators at the time job openings for trainees become available.

The New Careers training staff should take responsibility for coordinating the training, leading the core group, and providing remedial support for the program. The school should take responsibility for job supervision and for the skill and education basic training. The New Careers staff should provide consultation on these two components as necessary.

The Progression of Curriculum Areas in the New Careers Training Model

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Generic Issues in Human Service Occupations	Basic Curriculum for Education	Library Aide Teacher Aide Etc.
	Basic Curriculum for Health	Community/Home Health Aide Nurse Aide Etc.
	Basic Curriculum for Social Service	Case Work Aide Community Service Aide Etc.
	Basic Curriculum for Justice	Community Relations Aide Patrolman's Aide Etc.

Salient Points to Stress During Training

A number of points will need to be repeated throughout the training program. They generally relate to proscriptions of a legal and policy nature or to information concerning the school system in which the teacher aide is training and will be an employee. The school supervisor responsible for coordinating the skill and on-the-job training may wish to add other salient points to those which follow:

1. All information that comes to the attention of the teacher aide during the performance of his duty is confidential.
2. At no time will a teacher aide suggest to an individual or a family that a student has any type of problem, no matter how minor. Such action is never taken by an aide, and there are no exceptions to this rule.
3. Responsibility to the school and the necessity of staying within the limitations of school policies should be explained to the teacher aide.
4. The aide should have an understanding of the total organizational structure of the school in which he will work.
5. The role of all key resource people and the ways in which teacher aides relate to them should be discussed.

Ideally, the teacher aide should be indigenous to the community in which he will work. He probably will carry out many of his functions informally during hours other than the usual 9 a.m. to 5 p.m. schedule. Compensatory time should be extended when the aide works more than 40 hours a week. In situations where aides are assigned to evening and Saturday programs, these hours should be included in the regular 40-hour work schedule.

Articulation of Program Components

The two components of specialty training – the Basic Education Curriculum and the Specialty Curriculum Units – are designed to be taught concomitantly with other components of the New Careers training model discussed earlier.

Following this concept, then, the daily training schedule for teacher aides will be as follows:

4 hours – Work Experience
2 hours – Basic Education Curriculum
Specific Entry-Job Skill Training
2 hours – Generic Issues in Human Services Curriculum
(Core Group) and Remediation

The entire training course will cover a period of six months. Content taught in the generic issues, basic education, and skill training sessions will relate to the types of experience gained from the on-the-job component. Careful scheduling will enable the trainer to present a practical approach to teaching the theoretical and skill elements of the training course.

The daily plan must be flexible. To facilitate the shifting of curriculum components and skill area content, the teacher aide manuals use the unit method of curriculum development. While the job situation influences the time and content area to be presented during the training course, the time alloted for core group, remediation and skills should be considered as priority. It is essential that the overall training course be adaptable and allow for alterations in the scheduling of specific elements.

The content includes a brief outline of the specific knowledge and skills necessary to the attainment of overall goals. As the curriculum unfolds, the trainer should supplement the material presented in this manual with additional elements. The extent to which the trainer does this will depend on the ability of the trainees to comprehend the material, the needs and interests of the trainees, and the demands of the job situation. The trainees should share the responsibility for providing additional content. It is essential that the supplemental elements closely relate to the functions of the aides as they develop in the school. Teaching activities are suggested for each specific learning objective. The activities are not meant to limit the creativity of the trainer; on the contrary, the activities are suggestions *only*, and it is expected that the trainer will use imagination and gear the types of activities to the needs and interests of the trainees, to the equipment and facilities available in the school, and to the needs of the pupils and the individual personalities of the trainees.*

As alterations are made in the curriculum, the trainer should accurately record the changes and keep a permanent record of them. It is through supplemental material that the curriculum will realize the goal of providing the necessary knowledge and skills to prepare the New Careerist to perform adequately in a role that meets his own needs, the needs of the pupil, and the needs of the school.

Scheduling the Training Program

The scheduling of training is predicated on the idea that one learns by doing. This concept has particular relevance for the trainee recruited from a disadvantaged population. Experience in New Careers training programs has demonstrated the validity and effectiveness of utilizing the concept of simultaneous daily scheduling of all training components. While this is perhaps more complicated than other teaching models, it offers some unique advantages.

While the trainee is working, he is simultaneously learning practical skills for immediate use and acquiring the perspective and knowledge he needs to support and use those skills. His work gives him the satisfaction of doing a needed job with a work supervisor nearby to help him. At the same time, the trainee can relate this experience to learning both specific skills and more generalized knowledge in an integrated rather than fragmented learning situation. This model also provides a unique team approach to learning: the training staff can more closely integrate their separate emphases and directions at any given time. The trainee, on the other hand, has the opportunity for testing his skills, perceptions and knowledge in a variety of situations. Finally, discussion of generic issues can be generalized readily to areas of learning not covered either in the work situation or the specific skill components at a time when they are most needed and relevant.

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*See Appendix A, p. 37, for a list of films and other recommended teaching aids.

Scheduling

Two models of scheduling the training program are possible. Each includes all the key components of training:

1. Generic issues in human services (core group) and remediation,
2. Basic education curriculum and specific entry job-skill training, and
3. Work experience.

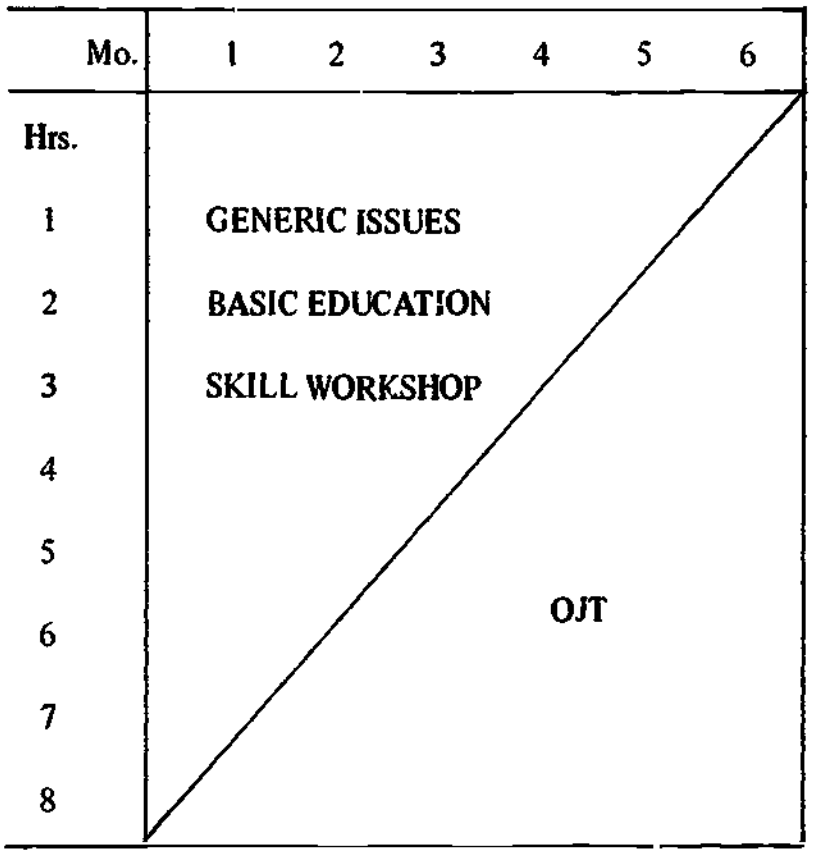
Model A:

In Model A, the daily schedule of time for each component remains constant throughout the six-month program:

4 hours	Work Experience
2 hours	Generic Issues in Human Services (Core Group) and Remediation
2 hours	1. Specific Entry Job-Skill Training 2. Basic Education Curriculum

Model B:

In this model, there is a gradual increase of work experience time and a corresponding decrease of time for the other components:



The 24-week schedule outlined below suggests one way of incorporating the training model into your program according to Model A. The generic issues of the world of work and remediation outlined in *New Careers: Generic Issues in the Human Services, A Sourcebook for Trainers,* should be particularly emphasized during early weeks of training to prepare trainees adequately for work experience. They need emphasis again during the final weeks to assist and support the trainee through his transition into full employment status.

First and Second Weeks:

Work Experience – 20 hours
Specific Skills and Basic Education – 10 hours (2-hour sessions)
Generic Issues Curriculum – 10 hours (2-hour sessions)
    World of Work – 6 hours (3 sessions)
    Remedial Skills – 4 hours (2 sessions)

Third to Twenty-second Weeks:

Work Experience – 20 hours
Specific Skills and Basic Education – 10 hours (2-hour sessions)
Generic Issues Curriculum – 10 hours (2-hour sessions)

Twenty-third and Twenty-fourth Weeks:

Work Experience – 20 hours
Specific Skills and Basic Education – 10 hours (2-hour sessions)
Generic Issues Curriculum – 10 hours (2-hour sessions)
    Remedial Skills – 2 hours (1 session)
    World of Work – 6 hours (3 sessions)
    Field Trip – 2 hours (1 session)

Schedule for Skill Training

We recommend that the skill training be scheduled first in the morning and core group last in the day for the following reasons:

1. Trainees are offered the opportunity to practice during the day those skills learned in the morning. This immediacy of skill application to actual experience in the classroom contributes, as well, to the reinforcement of the content material presented earlier.
2. Holding core group at the end of the day enables the trainees to raise immediate problems and issues (personal, academic, and experiential) for discussion while they are relevant and before the next work day gets under way.
3. The classroom teacher has an opportunity to launch a full day's program before the trainees arrive in midmorning and is, therefore, better able to function in a supervisory capacity.

4. Supervisory staff and teachers with responsibility for teaching specific skills usually find it more convenient to program this time early in the school day.

During the second hour on Friday of each week, time is alloted for discussion, recapitulation, and evaluation of that week's work, in addition to a discussion or overview of the forthcoming week's objectives and assignments.

Schedule for Various Skill Components

Trainee exposure to all areas of skill development in the course of each and every week is predicated on the basis of preparing him to respond effectively to the numerous, varied, and continuous demands made upon him in any and all given classroom situations. It is felt that because of these demands and responsibilities, a concentrated effort in any one skill area at the expense of others during any stretch of time will render him impotent under certain other situations, thereby negating his effectiveness in that one skill area.

To avoid overwhelming the trainee with too much material during each week of skill training, the curriculum has been structured to present the trainee with content material in small, digestible, increasingly more difficult doses. At the end of each week, time is allotted for the trainer to evaluate the trainee's progress and to determine whether the trainee has sufficiently mastered the material before continuing to the next, more difficult level of learning.

The suggested approach to scheduling may be adopted as the program develops.

We suggest the trainer keep a log and note very carefully on the appropriate day and time specific content and skills taught in each training program as a future guide in program planning.

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[1] See Pointer, A., et al. *New Careers: Entry-Level Training for the Human Service Aide.* New Careers Development Program, University Research Corporation, Washington, D.C., 1968.

[2] See Shatz, E., et al *New Careers: Generic Issues in the Human Services,* New Careers Development Program, University Research Corporation, Washington, D.C., 1968.

CHAPTER IV

BASIC CURRICULUM IN EDUCATION

Introduction

This section of the Teacher Aide Trainer's Manual has been designed as a series of resource pieces for the trainer, covering a broad range of topics concerning the organization, structure, legal basis, personnel and programs in American education. In addition some current and projected continuing problems and unmet needs are reviewed. These resources are *not* meant to take the place of a teacher-education program nor a comprehensive series of reference texts. They are intended to provide the teacher aide training team with some beginning content, general facts, and guidelines as a basis for developing the training program. They should help accomplish the following objectives:

1. Provide the aide with a base for career mobility either as an instructional or noninstructional aide
2. Help him develop beginning insights into the American educational system and its promise and failure to meet the needs of individuals and specific groups of people in our country.

The material has been organized into three major areas: 1) The Role of Education in a Democratic Society; 2) The American School System -- Federal to Local; 3) Problems and Unmet Needs.

Each area, in addition to content, also has a brief introductory section which discusses suggestions for concretizing the information via direct personal activities on the part of the trainee.

Each resource section also has selected references for the trainer to utilize in adding to his own frame of reference and for use in making trainee assignments.

I. The Role of Education in a Democratic Society

This section summarizes the manifold and sometimes conflicting opinions of our citizens about the role of education in our democratic society. Despite differences of opinion about methodology and emphasis – liberal arts vs. scientific, public vs. private, academic vs. vocational, "hardware vs. software," etc. – there is some agreement about overall general objectives. However, there are questions of great concern being asked with increasing fequency about the purpose of education during the last four decades. These included such questions as: "Are we expecting our schools to do too much in meeting the myriad needs of our country, both domestically and internationally?" "Can our educational system, in its current state, resolve the critical problems of the inner-city schools and schools in rural poverty pockets?" "How can we ensure that each pupil, irrespective of race, geographical area of residence, and cultural background, can develop to his fullest potential?"

The trainer responsible for conducting the discussions focusing on the basic curriculum in education may wish to focus specifically on his own state and school district and develop discussions around topics such as: "What are the objectives of education in our state as set forth by our state education department?" "Are these the same for our school district?" "What do you think schools are supposed to do?" "What are schools not doing that you think they should?" "How interested do you think the parents of our school children are in what the schools are doing?"

Related activities may be undertaken to help the trainees develop insights into both the agreements and disagreements of local and state officials and groups about "what the schools should do." For example, local newspapers carry daily articles and/or criticisms about school programs in relation to the perceived objectives of the proponents and opponents of the programs. Trainees can be assigned to clip these articles and use them as a basis for class discussion. Resource people may be brought in from local colleges and universities, the local branch of the American Civil Liberties Union, the local chapters of the state education association, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, teacher's union, and other representative groups concerned about American education, to discuss specific aspects of the changing role of education in America.

Another excellent resource person is a representative of the school district administration who can discuss the overall objectives of the school district in relation to the communities it serves and their general and specific needs.

The key points the trainer should help the trainee understand are:

1. As our society and culture change, the role of education must change.
2. Schools are expected to achieve a wide range of goals in preparing citizens to conserve that which is good in our democratic society and improve that which is not.
3. The key objective of all education is to help each person achieve his fullest potential.

Resource Material on the Role of Education in a Democratic Society

From colonial times to the present, schools have been expected to teach that which represents the best virtues of our American society. The establishment of a Latin grammar school in the Massachusetts Bay Colony in the early 1600s, the rise of the American Common School in the 1800s, the development of the public school system prior to the Second World War, and the post-Sputnik emphasis on science and curriculum reform all are examples of this. The crucial decisions of the Supreme Court in the

1950s were also key factors in the developing mission of the school as perceived by America's rising dissatisfaction with "business at the same old stand."

The phenomenal growth of America in the post-Civil War period set the tone for our schools for the next half-century. For most people, an eighth grade education was considered ample preparation in a basically agrarian and rural America. But this was to change.

The American frontier had almost disappeared by the twentieth century. The United States was developing into the greatest industrial nation in the world. Its economy had operated well enough in the nineteenth century, but in the 1900s, a greatly increased population faced rapid shrinkage of natural resources and began to discover the impossibility of maintaining the economy as in the previous centuries.

A ferment of social reform began in the early 1900s that has continued throughout this century. Reduction in the length of the working day, child labor laws, employer responsibility for accidents to employees, safety and sanitation measures, compulsory accident insurance, public health measures for control and prevention of disease, regulation of public utilities, housing laws, and many other reforms have been fought for and won as a result of a rising social consciousness. But in all these the school has played a minor, or even negative part, although changes in our national economy have placed upon education a new and enlarged responsibility.

Since 1918 every American state has had on its statute books a compulsory school attendance law. Passage of such legislation indicates the state's tacit obligation to see that nothing in the environment of the school may endanger the lives or impair the health of the children who are required to attend. The communities are obliged to provide not only safe and sanitary buildings but also ample playgrounds, pure water, and proper observance of other hygienic conditions. Medical and dental inspection programs, vaccinations and innoculations to prevent diseases have also been accepted as obligations.

Recognition of responsibility for the health of the school child has justified the maintenance of gymnasiums, swimming pools, and showers with which the better schools are now equipped. Also, the operation of special classes for partially blind, deaf, retarded and subnormal children has been warranted. Another recent development has been maintenance of facilities for hot lunches and provision of free milk and food for poor and undernourished children. All of these imply an acceptance by the public of an ever-expanding role of our schools in meeting society's needs.

Two new types of school organizations came into being during the twentieth century – the junior high school and the junior college. The idea of a junior high school began with the efforts of President Charles W. Eliot (1834–1926) of Harvard in the 1880s to improve the elementary school curriculum. He contended that much of the time spent in grammar grades could be used more profitably in teaching new materials, and that elementary programs needed to be shortened and enriched. In 1893, the National Education Association "Committee of Ten" favored this revision, and it was advocated that Latin, algebra, and geometry be added to the upper grades of the grammar school and that high school courses begin in seventh grade. A few schools did introduce the three new subjects into the grades, but in general, the experiment failed.

Despite the protests of opponents that departmentalization overworked the children and made teachers too narrow in subject matter, the plan was introduced into a number of schools and proved quite successful. However, this departmentalization remained within the framework of the 8–4 plan. It was not until 1906 that the 6–3–3 organization of the junior high school finally took hold.

As early as 1902, President Harper of the University of Chicago had recommended the extension of the high school course to six years to include the freshman and sophomore years of college, and by 1917, there were 20 such institutions. Their purpose was to bridge the gap between high school and college or to provide advanced vocational training. The junior college idea has caught on in recent decades – there are now close to 900 junior colleges. In 1967, new junior colleges opened at a rate of more than one a week!

Unlike the junior high school and the junior college, the vocational school was a product of the nineteenth century. Originally, a young man who wished to become proficient in a skilled occupation had to work as an apprentice or learn a trade from his own father at home. But the industrial revolution created a demand for a better system to provide specialized training in the handling of new machines. Vocational training programs spread gradually in the nineteenth century. Some instruction in the use of tools was conducted in elementary schools; courses in commercial subjects were offered at the secondary school level; and private trade schools like Cooper Union (1859) and Pratt Institute (1887) were formed.

Vocational training really took a giant step forward in 1917. In that year, the Smith-Hughes Act provided for federal funds to assist the states in setting up courses in agriculture, home economics, and industrial arts. Vocational high schools soon sprang up everywhere in big cities and on a regional basis in many counties. Since that time, other laws, like the G.I. Bill of Rights in 1944, have encouraged the extension of this training into the adult years. Moreover, many industries have set up their own training programs. General Motors Institute at Flint, Michigan, originally was a YMCA school. This was taken over by the corporation to train employees from all its numerous plants and dealerships. Courses range from three-week training periods to a four-year engineering degree.

All this interest in vocational schooling has run hand in hand with the spread of compulsory education laws through all the states. We now have a somewhat orderly plan of state public school systems that provide education for all. Although we have no national school system, the structures and curricula of the various state educational systems are remarkably similar.

The Seven Cardinal Principles of Education

One of the most important reports ever made in the field of education in America was the 1918 report by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association. In it, the commission stated objectives of secondary education which have come to be known as The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education:

1. Health
2. Worthy home membership
3. Command of the fundamental processes
4. Vocation
5. Civic education
6. Worthy use of leisure
7. Ethical character.

II. The American School System – Federal to Local

One of the basic outcomes of New Careers training should be the ability of the trainee to negotiate "the system" effectively. Teachers and administrators have learned to do this over the span of time, including sixteen or more years of formal schooling. For teachers, the educational structure, organization, key personnel and their interrelationships have, for the most part, become clarified. The trainee recruited from a poor community generally has come from a climate which views the school less positively and, in many instances, quite negatively. Consequently, he has had little exposure to the educational system and its hierarchical development.

This section is included to help the trainee develop awareness of the general framework of education into which his own school and classroom fit. The trainee may not appreciate the important role the citizen can play in shaping policy and direction of the local educational program. He may view school administrators simply as authorities and disciplinarians. He may not know where the money to support school programs comes from, nor how decisions to spend it are made. As someone taking the initial step onto the education career ladder, he probably is unaware of the impact federal programs have on school districts.

Therefore, one of the purposes of this section is to enable the trainee to become aware of the American school system and his own role in it. Another purpose is to help the trainee relate these general topics to broader issues affecting not only himself, but the community-at-large. For cxample, in discussing the tax base for urban schools and the increasing cost of education, the problem of "the flight to the suburbs" by higher-income people also could be brought in as a compounding factor in the problems all urban schools are facing.

A number of general and specific questions can be used by the trainer as a basis for discussion of the main portions of this section:

The Organization of Public Education

1. Why do you think the federal government has encouraged public education in America?
2. What programs in our school district are paid for by federal funds? What are the purposes of these programs?
3. Is education of the people the responsibility of the state government or the federal government?

Local School Districts

1. What are the boundaries of our school district?
2. How many people live in our school district?
3. How many pupils go to public school in our district?
4. Does our state encourage consolidation of school districts? If so, how?
5. Does our state encourage dividing school districts or reorganizing them? If so, how?

Vertical Structure of Public Education

1. What are the main divisions in the public education system in America?
2. What plan of organization do we have in our school district? "6–3–3," "6–2–4," "8–4" or other?
3. What examples of the following do we have in our schools?
   a. ability grouping
   b. departmentalization
   c. individualized instruction
   d. platoon organization
   e. block system
   f. team teaching
   g. ungraded groupings
   h. independent study
4. Is there a junior college located in our school district? What kinds of programs does it offer?
5. What adult education programs are available to people living in our school district? Who sponsors them?
6. What opportunities for a college education exist in our state?

Financing Public Education

1. Where does the money come from to run the schools?
2. Who decides how much tax should be for the support of our schools?
3. What effect does "zoning" have on the quality of education for poor people?
4. What is the effect on the amount of money a school district has when businesses and people with good incomes move out of the city?
5. Why is our school district so careful about encouraging pupils to be in school every day?

The Superintendent and the Principal

1. Who is the person to whom the school board gives the main responsibility for running our schools?
2. What are some of the duties of the superintendent?
3. Who is in charge of our school?
4. What are some of the duties of the principal?
5. Who are some of the people who assist the principal and what do they do?

The Organization of Public Education

The Federal Government and Education – The Constitution of the United States makes no mention of education. By implication, education has come to be considered a function of individual states. The Tenth Amendment reads: "The powers not delegated to the United States, by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively; or to the people."

Why no specific mention of education was made in the Constitution has been the subject of much conjecture. It may be that some of those who framed the document did not think it was of sufficient importance; or it may be that they intended it to be a private function to be conducted by churches or similar groups. A more likely answer is that those who were the leaders of the day feared that the inclusion of so controversial a matter might imperil ratification. Whatever the reason, by many legal decisions based on the Tenth Amendment, education has always been considered primarily a state function.

Ordinances of 1785 and 1787 – In spite of these basic considerations, there is evidence that the Congress early felt a concern for encouraging education. In the Ordinance of 1785, antedating the Constitution, provision was made for surveying the lands west of the Ohio River into townships six miles square. These were then subdivided into 36 sections, each one mile square. The Ordinance further provided that: "There shall be reserved the lot No. 16 of every township for the maintenance of the public schools of the townships."

The policies provided by the Ordinance of 1785 were put into effect by another passed in 1787 which included this important principle: "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged." This same enactment authorized the Treasury to contract for the sale of lands to the Ohio Company, and it is from these pieces of legislation that the federal policy of reserving lands for educational use arose.

Other Federal Grants – Precedent was established, and an increasing number of financial grants were made to the states, frequently reaching down through the state governments to the local schools and school districts. A number were grants of land of various types or revenues from the sale thereof, such as the sale of "salt lands" and "swamp lands." There also was the distribution of "surplus revenues" which were used for schools in most states.

In addition to grants, there has been a growing list of federal activities in education such as:

1. The Morrill Act leading to the establishment of the Land Grant Colleges
2. The education of the Indians
3. Appropriations to the District of Columbia and territories
4. The Smith-Lever Act (1914) providing federal aid to the states for promoting extension work in agriculture and home economics
5. The Smith-Hughes Act (1917) and subsequent acts providing federal aid for vocational work in the public schools
6. The Civilian Conservation Corps
7. The National Youth Administration
8. Federal aid for constructing school buildings as a result of the depression of the thirties
9. Education of children of personnel on certain military reservations
10. Aid to schools in critical defense areas
11. Education of military and naval officers
12. The establishment of the Air Force Academy (1954)
13. The federal school-lunch programs
14. Vocational Rehabilitation
15. The G.I. Bill of Rights
16. National Defense Education Act (1958)
17. Manpower Development and Training Act (1962)
18. Economic Opportunity Act (1964)
19. Higher Education Facilities Act (1965)
20. Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965)
21. Work Incentive Program (1967)
22. Education Professions Development Act (1967).

Participation by the federal government in education is an accomplished fact. The question seldom is raised any longer about the constitutionality of such action because it is admitted that justification is readily found in the so-called "general welfare" clause in the Preamble to the Constitution, which reads:

> We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessing of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

It is clear that the promotion of the "general welfare" includes the necessity of furthering public education. It is certain also that pressure for further participation in education by the federal government will continue.

The Federal Educational Agency – It was not until 1867 that an agency of the central government was formed with specific responsibility for education. Beginning with Horace Mann of Massachusetts, who led the public to an enlarged and revived thinking in regard to education and with the assistance of Henry Barnard and others, there had been consideration given to the establishment of a national agency. The effects on education of the Civil War stimulated Congress to pass, and President Andrew Johnson to sign on March 2, 1867, the act creating a federal department of education, now known as the Office of Education.

Although the duties and activities of the Office of Education have increased tremendously through the years, there has been no change in its three fundamental purposes:

1. To collect statistics and facts
2. To diffuse information about schools
3. To promote the cause of education.

However, changing social and national and international needs have placed new obligations on the federal government, and the Office of Education has had to grow to meet the demands made upon it.

The program now carried out by the Office of Education may be classified in six broad areas:

1. The collection and analysis of statistics and facts
2. The administration of grants
3. Advice on school organization and administration
4. Advice on methods of teaching
5. Improvement of the teaching profession
6. International relations in education.

The Office of Education has a staff of about 2,000 persons regularly engaged in carrying out the programs mentioned. Requests for help and advice on a great variety of problems come in regularly, and replies of many sorts go back. Some are in the form of letters, some, telephone calls, and many as bulletins, pamphlets, and the like which are issued frequently. In addition, a new monthly magazine, *American Education,* is published by the Office. Many personnel serve frequently as consultants in surveys of building needs, studies of school district organization, and the like. They are also frequently found as speakers at important professional and lay meetings. Financial grants are administered by the Office to the states under the federal Vocational Education Acts and to the land grant colleges.

One of the newer services rendered by this division is the administration of the teacher exchange program between the United States and other countries. Assistance is also given in the broad student exchange program.

Education and the States – State constitutions do not give complete and specific guidelines for the administration and funding of state education programs. In fact, it is widely recognized that constitutions should contain only general statements of policy likely to be more or less permanent. Details, on the other hand, that are more likely to be subject to revision should be in legislative enactments or treated as matters of policy to be delegated to boards or responsible officials.

The basis of state educational organization is, generally: (1) a state board or council of education; (2) a superintendent of education or an official with some similar title; (3) a department of education or public instruction.

The State Board of Education – The state board is generally a policy-making body of considerable importance. It serves, to some extent, the same purposes on the state level as the local school board does on the local level. Methods by which board members are chosen include:

1. Elected by people or representatives of the people
2. Appointed by the governor
3. Ex-officio, holding other state office at the same time
4. Appointed by chief state school officer.

Few states require that the board members be professional educators, and if any general policy seems to exist at all, it is probably that of having appointees who are good citizens with a deep interest in education.

Boards for Vocational Education – The federal Vocational Education Acts, which provide for the distribution of funds to the states, require each of them to set up a state board to cooperate with the Federal Board for Vocational Education. Each state has complied with these laws and has either designated the state board of education to serve as the board of vocational education as well, or set up a separate organization for that purpose.

The Chief State School Officer – It has been said that in American education no position has greater potentialities for improving education in each of the states than that of the chief state school officer. These officers are provided for in all of the states, and their chief function is to furnish leadership for their state's education programs. They are designated by various titles. Some states use "superintendent of public instruction." Others use "commissioner of education," "superintendent of schools," or a similar title.

Whatever his title, this official serves as head of the staff of the state department of education and is either the executive officer, secretary, or a member of the state board of education in states where such boards exist. Otherwise, he may be both policy-maker and administrator.

In some states, the chief school officer is elected by the people. In others, he is appointed by the governor and in others he is chosen by the state board of education.

It is extremely important that the chief state school officer be a person of the highest qualifications, and most authorities agree that this is more likely to happen when he is selected by the state board of education for a rather long term. In this manner, too, the office is most likely to be divorced from politics. It almost goes without saying that the salary of the chief state school officer should be commensurate with the position, in order to obtain the services of the highest type of individual. Unfortunately, this has not been true in many of the states, and annual salaries ranged in 1965 from $9,000 in South Dakota to $40,000 in New York.

State Departments of Education – Beside a state board of education and a chief state school officer, a third necessity for the proper administration of the education program is a state department of education. The general organization of a state department of education varies greatly from state to state and is dependent on factors such as: (1) the philosophy of the state board of education and the chief state school officer; (2) the amount of money available for salaries and expenses; and (3) legislative enactments and mandates.

If the full potential for service and leadership is to be realized by a state department of education, a sufficiently large and an especially competent staff must be available. This staff should be free of political pressures, and appointments should be on merit alone. This is not often the case, and in many states the salaries are too low to attract capable personnel. Dr. Conant, in *Sharing Educational Policy*, summarizes his views on needed changes on the state level: "What is needed are strong state boards of education, a first-class chief state school officer, a well-organized state staff, and good support from the legislature."

Local School Districts

The County – The next governmental unit in the United States is the county. It is an old unit, and was generally in use before public schools were established. It was natural, therefore, in some states, that it came to be used more or less as a unit for the support and control of education.

An idea of the powers and duties of a county board in a strong county-unit state is shown by this list from a board in Maryland:

1. Elect a county superintendent of schools, who serves as chief executive secretary, and treasurer of the board
2. Hold title of school property
3. Determine educational policies for county
4. Prescribe rules and regulations for conduct and management of schools
5. Promote interests of schools
6. Control and supervise public school system through the county superintendent and his professional assistant
7. Divide county unit into school districts
8. Purchase or sell school grounds, school sites and school buildings
9. Rent, repair, improve and construct school buildings
10. Employ school architects
11. Receive donations of property
12. Obtain title before building on a site or occupying donated house
13. Condemn school sites
14. Provide proper water closets or outhouses
15. Consolidate schools
16. Purchase and distribute textbooks and other supplies and equipment
17. Appoint teachers and fix salaries
18. Suspend or dismiss teachers
19. Prescribe and distribute county courses of study.

The Township – In a few states, the prevailing type of local unit for school administration is the township, which is essentially a rural unit of government. In general, the powers and duties of the township school board are essentially the same as those of a strong county board. It is a policy-making body, with a superintendent of schools in charge of administration and supervision. States in which the township may be considered the prevailing type of unit are Indiana, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania.

The Town – In a few states, chiefly in New England, the traditional "town" is the educational unit. Properly, the town may be considered to be a small urban area or village and the rural area round about. States where the town constitutes the school district are Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont.

The Local School District – In the majority of states, the unit for educational administration is the local school district. Originally this was interpreted as the individual school and the area immediately surrounding it. These districts were usually created around elementary schools. In some states, separate high school districts were organized.

The local district was often small, inefficient, and expensive, and in such cases it was almost impossible for it to be in any way adequate for meeting modern needs.

States in which the district system prevails are Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Texas, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

Each district has a board of trustees or school directors with powers to operate the schools. Where the district is sufficiently large, there is usually a local professional school officer who may be a superintendent, supervising principal, or principal.

City Districts – Whether the township or the district is the local unit for educational purposes, it is generally true that the city is set up as a separate school district. This may even be true where the county is the unit of control, as in Maryland where Baltimore is a separate and independent unit. This usually occurs because of the concentration of wealth and the complexity of the organization required in cities.

The size of the city or urban area is usually the determining factor in deciding what services must be provided. In a large district, a host of personnel, including assistant superintendents, or specialists such as business managers, supervisors, principals, assistant principals, and others are likely to be found, all under the professional direction of the superintendent of schools. Directing the entire system is the lay board of education which chooses all personnel and determines policies.

Smaller cities generally have fewer services provided and fewer teachers with a smaller number of supervisory and administrative personnel. The school board, however, exercises policy-making and directive powers.

Other Types of Districts – In some states, the elementary school district may include certain municipal units, and the high school district may be a much larger area with more governmental units involved. Such is the case in California.

In New England and in New York, the supervisory union may be found. In reality, it is sort of an intermediate unit between the state and the local district and is formed of two or more local units or school districts. The superintendent of schools administers the schools of two or more towns or villages which may not necessarily be adjoining.

Merged or consolidated districts are merely the result of the merging or grouping of small districts into larger and more efficient ones. Such districts are found in Pennsylvania, where the entire state is being reorganized in this manner, and in a number of other states.

Toward Larger Units – In an age of rapid social change, it is obvious that traditional school districts must be supplanted by larger ones that can better meet current and future needs. The problem, therefore, has been studied in state after state, and various remedies have been suggested. In some cases, the county has become the unit, as in West Virginia; in others, a plan of consolidation of schools has been carried out. In still others, small districts have been merged to form larger ones. Generally, it has been agreed that a school district should be large enough to support a complete educational program from the kindergarten through a sufficiently large comprehensive high school, and perhaps through a junior college.

Local School Districts – Local school districts are a distinctive feature of American education. No other nation has so decentralized the administration of its schools. Although legal responsibility for the public schools clearly lies with the 50 state governments, all states, except Hawaii, have delegated considerable operational authority to local school districts.

What Has Been Happening – In 1932, the total number of local school districts was over 125,000. Many thousands of these were small, rural districts serving a handful of children in single, one-room schoolhouses. A steadily increasing number of critics questioned unchecked localism as wise educational policy and urged that local districts be combined into larger, more efficient units. As a result, reforms in school district organization have reduced the number of local districts from the 1932 level to fewer than 25,000 in 1967.

The Right Size – The right size for Nevada school districts clearly will be different from the right size for Massachusetts. Enrollment, wealth, staff specialization, comprehensiveness of educational offerings, population density, topography – all must be taken into consideration in determining proper size. In general, however, it is possible to stipulate some reasonable minimums and then examine present arrangements to see where room for improvement is indicated.

James Bryant Conant has suggested that at least 100 students per grade are needed to offer a minimum quality high school program. By this standard, the minimum enrollment for a district serving kindergarten through junior college would be at least 1500 pupils. Charles Faber recently concluded that "the ideal size of a school district appears to be between 10,000 and 20,000 pupils. No school district can provide efficiently a full range of educational services if it has an enrollment of fewer than 10,000 pupils." California recently adopted this figure as a recommended minimum size.

In his "Statement on the Future of American Education," Charles Benson calls for districts with a minimum population of 250,000 (unless extreme sparsity of population prevails), but stipulates that if junior colleges are to be under local district administration, this minimum figure should be closer to 500,000 population. A school district of 250,000 population would have a public school enrollment of about 50,000 pupils.

How well does the present organization of school districts measure up to these standards? The answer is discouraging. Sixty-four percent of all operating districts in the nation had fewer than 600 pupils in 1964. In 30 of the 50 states, more than half of all school districts fail even to meet Conant's recommended minimum (100 per grade) of a decade ago. Only Hawaii, among the 50 states, even approaches Benson's recommended figure. States with the largest average enrollments per district are typically Southern or Southwestern states where school districts are organized on a county basis.

Strategies for Reorganization – Because education is essentially a state responsibility, each state has been free to act or to wait on district reorganization. Those that have acted have used a variety of means, but there have been, generally speaking, three types of legislation leading to reorganization of local school districts. Each of these strategies requires action at the state level. It is possible to believe that local school districts would eventually be consolidated without state action, but there is little evidence for this in the history of reorganization. Where major progress has been made, state action has been directly responsible.

Reorganization by Legislative Decree – In some cases, such as Nevada, a legislature abolished existing districts and created new districts. This can be done either on a statewide basis or just in particular areas. Sometimes legislatures, recognizing the need for change, but reluctant to draw boundaries themselves, will require local action within a stipulated period, say two years, and will intervene directly only when localities balk. It is a clearly established principle, both of constitutional and case law, that the legislature has plenary power to create, or dissolve and reformulate, local school districts.

Reorganization by State Incentive – Some states have chosen to encourage reorganization without requiring it, through financial incentives to local districts which choose to meet state standards for reorganization. These plans have not been notable for their success. For instance, in 1959, Rhode Island offered substantial increases in state aid to any consolidated districts. To date, only two of the state's 39 districts have availed themselves of the state's largesse, seemingly preferring unchanged localism to additional state dollars. If pursued persistently, and combined with at least the threat of state action if localities refuse to act, this strategy may induce considerable reorganization. But, in general, it has not been successful.

Reorganization Through Local Initiative – This strategy requires the legislature merely to endorse the idea of reorganization and to approve permissive legislation allowing local districts to consolidate, annex, or reorganize themselves according to general state guidelines. This approach is not likely to succeed unless fiscal arrangements, including property assessment procedures and school tax rate provisions, are strongly conducive to reorganization.

Whatever strategy is adopted, states should utilize up-to-date methods of planning in preparing a state master plan, guideline, or similar document, stating specific criteria (numbers of pupils, etc.) for determining how the local districts will be reorganized. Only the state government is in a position to plan for equality of access to quality education. A major obstacle in the way of attaining that equality of opportunity is the undersized, understaffed, and underfinanced local school district.

The Committee for Economic Development, in 1966, issued a report called "Modernizing Local Government." Commenting on the need for state action to reorganize local schools, the C.E.D. concluded:

> Consolidation forced by state action, either mandated or pressured through school-aid formulas, has reduced the number of independent districts by 75% since 1942. Still, the number is far too high. Over 3,000 independent school districts do not maintain schools, having no children of school age or sending their few children to other districts on a tuition basis. Such districts exist primarily to avoid or minimize school taxation. . . . Even within the nation's standard metropolitan statistical areas, some 600 of the 6,000 independent school districts had less than 50 pupils in 1962, and an equal number had between 50 and 150.

The C.E.D. recommended that the nation's 80,000 units of local government should be reduced by at least 80 percent.

Vertical Structure of Public Education-Types of School Programs

The main divisions of our public education system are pre-elementary, elementary, secondary, and higher education.

Pre-elementary Education – Essentially, pre-elementary education consists of the nursery school and the kindergarten. The former generally covers the ages 18 months to four years, whereas the kindergarten accepts children between four and six years.

Nursery Schools – There are four main types of nursery schools: public, private, parochial, and, beginning in the thirties, federally financed. There are not many publicly supported nursery schools as yet. Most of them are privately financed, although quite a few on college campuses are being used as laboratories for schools of education and homemaking. Nursery schools give a great deal of attention to the physiological, emotional, social, and moral development of the child.

Although there is an increasing demand for more nursery schools, especially since many mothers now work outside of the home, no great probability exists that the number of publicly supported schools will increase in the near future. Already the great increase in general enrollment is stretching the cost of education to a critical point.

Kindergarten – Although the kindergarten is designed for children between four and six years of age, great variation can be found in age requirements. Kindergartens are either supported by public funds, private funds, or church groups. Many exist in connection with colleges for practice or for research and study. Most kindergartens are found in the larger urban communities, but kindergartens are being made available in many rural areas.

The kindergarten can be considered a transition between home and school. It strives to prepare the child for smooth and effective progress in first grade. He is taught how to care for his body and how to work and play with others. His emotional, social, and moral development is fostered. Coordination of muscles and the development of skills in painting and working with elementary tools is stressed. Learning by doing is the motto of the modern kindergarten. In other words, the stress is on "readiness."

School boards are increasingly being pressured to add kindergartens to the public school system. But the increasing numbers of children to be educated and the shortage of building space are retarding factors. It does seem clear, though, that kindergarten experience is being widely accepted as a highly desirable part of the child's education.

Advantages of the Kindergarten – Much research on the effectiveness of the kindergarten has demonstrated:

1. Children who have had kindergarten experience make more rapid progress in the first five grades.
2. There are more repeaters in the first grade where no kindergartens exist.
3. Children in the first three grades who have had kindergarten experience show marked advantages in reading rate and comprehension.
4. Children who have attended kindergarten excel in the rate and quality of handwriting.
5. Children who have attended kindergarten tend to establish better person-to-person contacts.
6. Children with kindergarten experience tend to receive higher ratings in written and oral language.

Elementary Education – This division of education, as a rule, covers the ages from 6 to 12 or 14. However, practice varies so across the nation that it is difficult to describe it as a definite form. Usually, the grades included are first through eighth, first through sixth, or first through seventh. If the kindergarten is considered a definite part of the public school system, it may be included in each grouping.

Another division of the elementary school follows this pattern:

1. The kindergarten and grades one through three as the *primary* unit
2. Grades four, five, and six as the intermediate unit
3. Grades seven and eight as the upper grades.

Another recent approach is to establish a "4–4–4" plan. Essentially, the first four years are the elementary grades. The second four years are "the middle school" and the last four, the high school.

There is, however, an increasing tendency to disregard grades and to consider the primary and intermediate units as separate entities. Thus, a child would progress through the primary unit as rapidly as his abilities would permit. There would be no failures, and it might take him two, three, or four years to finish the work, usually under the supervision of a single teacher.

In size, elementary schools vary tremendously – from those with one teacher and one pupil, to thousands of one-room schools with generally small enrollments, and to large urban schools with many hundreds of students. As a result of consolidation and mergers of school districts and the demands of the public for a more efficient and better type of education, the small one-teacher schools are disappearing at a rapid rate.

In addition to the elimination of grade divisions, various other organizational modifications have been introduced. Some of the more common are:

1. Ability grouping, in which children of similar ability are grouped for teaching and learning
2. Departmentalization, a plan in which certain teachers teach certain subjects or groups of subjects
3. Plans of individualized instruction
4. The platoon organization, in which a teacher stays with the group for a half day, and the rest of the time the pupils go to special classes
5. The block system, in which specific classes are taught for more or less indefinite periods and several subjects are scheduled in one large block of time; considerable flexibility is thus provided for the teacher
6. Team teaching, an increasingly popular form of organization
7. The ungraded school, a form of organization committed chiefly to the stimulation of individual progress.

There are also, in many areas, special schools for various types of atypical groups, such as crippled children, the deaf or blind, and those with mental retardation. Much instruction also is provided for homebound children when special schools are not available because of distance, lack of numbers, or lack of financial support.

One of the most striking phenomena of recent years has been the enormous increase of enrollment in the elementary schools. With the low birth rate of the 1930s, plenty of classrooms and teachers were available. This birth rate produced a new low enrollment in the schools during the decade of the forties. With the war years came a rising birth rate that caused the elementary schools literally to burst at the seams in the fifties. The shortage of teachers became extremely serious. It is estimated that by 1970 the enrollment in the elementary schools will exceed 31 million in comparison to a low of 19 million in the 1940-1950 decade.

Secondary Education – Traditionally, secondary education or high school has covered grades 9 through 12, although in quite a few of the Southern states it has included grades 8 through 12.

However, with an increasing knowledge of psychology and with an ever-increasing percentage of eligible youth going to high school in the first half of this century, the concept of secondary education has been enlarged. Now it has come to mean the education provided for the years of adolescence.

The basic result of the reorganization of secondary education is to divide or regroup the high school grades into two institutions, a senior high school and a junior high school. The common pattern is to consider grades 7, 8, and 9 as the junior high school and 10, 11, and 12 as the senior high school, although there are many regional variations. In addition, there are a number of specialized schools, including technical, vocational, continuation, evening high schools, and others.

The amazing growth of secondary education is one of the outstanding phenomena of the present century (from 6,000 high schools in the United States in 1900 to more than 26,000 in 1960). In an attempt to provide high school education for as many as possible, a great many very small organizations were established. Many had far too few pupils and teachers who had to teach too many subjects. As a result, much work of the last several decades has been devoted to the elimination of small high schools through consolidation and through the enlargement of districts.

Far more significant than the number of high schools is the greatly increased enrollment. The total enrollment doubled every decade this century until the 1940s when seven million were on the rolls. High school enrollment figures totaled nearly twelve million in 1962-63, and projections of educational attainment predict that nearly six of ten adults in the United States will have a high school diploma by 1980. If these predictions are correct, it will mean that by 1980 more than seventy-five million persons in the United States will have completed at least four years of high school. This figure is two and one-half times higher than the number of high school graduates in 1950.

Not only is it true that the high school enrollment has significantly increased, but the holding power of the institution has more than doubled in the last thirty years. Only 27 percent of those who were in high school remained to graduate in 1931, but by 1960 the figure had increased to approximately 65 percent, and is still rising.

A recent report of the Commission on Life Adjustment Education for Youth calls attention to many surveys that have been made throughout the country to try to determine how the secondary schools can best attempt to cope with their problems. The report suggests the following matters to which educators should give attention in the years ahead:

1. Secondary school staffs must continue to give special attention to the problem of the high number of students who still drop out before graduation.
2. Educators should work to establish a fourteen-year sequence of educational experience instead of the present twelve-year program. This would mean the equivalent of two years of college for all students.
3. An appropriate balance should be developed between required and elective subjects or areas of learning.
4. Continued experimentation is needed to provide for greater individualization by a wide range of methods.
5. An adequate program for appraising the educational development of individual pupils must be prepared.
6. There is need for more experimentation to build a program of work experience.
7. Secondary school teachers and principals have a contribution to make toward improving programs of teacher preparation.
8. The problem of finance remains critical even after the adoption of state equalization programs.
9. The whole question of home-community-school responsibility should be re-examined.

No study of the American high school has caused so much discussion among the public and the profession as the investigation by Dr. Conant, former president of Harvard University, who wrote "The American High School Today." This report will undoubtedly affect the thinking of all those interested in education for many years to come, and it deserves the careful study of every student.

Among its more significant recommendations for the improvement of the American high school are the following:

1. A greatly strengthened counseling system is needed.
2. Individualized programs for all students instead of the usual classifications such as college preparatory and the like should be set up.
3. A basic required program for every student is essential.
4. Students should be grouped according to ability in each subject and not in relation to all subjects combined.
5. An adequate record of courses studied and grades attained should be given to each student at graduation.
6. A much greater proportion of instruction time in English should be devoted to composition.
7. Diversified programs that will produce marketable skills must be provided.
8. Special programs of required subjects should be established for the academically talented.
9. Special classes or tutors should be provided for the highly gifted.
10. The school board should be supplied regularly with an inventory of what is being done for the talented.
11. A six-period day should be provided in every high school.
12. Only those students who have demonstrated an ability to handle them should be chosen for advanced courses.
13. Students should not be given a rank in all subjects taken together, but at each marking period a list should be published indicating those who have made B or better.
14. A developmental reading program should be established.
15. Summer schools should be set up for the talented.
16. A third and fourth year of foreign language instruction should be available.
17. Much greater emphasis should be placed on science and the scientific method.
18. Home rooms should be kept together for the entire high school course and should represent a cross section of the student body.
19. American government and economics should be required in twelfth grade social studies.

Most important, Dr. Conant felt that in order to attain these ends the high school must, in many cases, be made larger through the reorganization of school districts. No high school, he thinks, should have a graduating class of fewer than 100 students. (At present about 70 percent of our secondary schools do not meet this standard.) He is convinced that American secondary education can be made satisfactory without any radical changes in the basic pattern.

The Junior College – The junior college was first conceived around the middle of the last century and involved little more than a slight reorganization of the first two years of the usual college. The greatest development of the junior college has been since 1920. It has been estimated that one student in every four beginning his program of higher education during 1963 in the United States was enrolled in a junior college. The tuition in these schools varied widely, from none to $3,000.

The usual method of classification of junior colleges is based on the types of control, which may be listed as:

1. Public
2. Proprietary-controlled or supported by local groups but really private
3. Parochial or church.

At present, there are 22 denominational or religious groups that control and support junior colleges. Since 1947-48, public institutions have been established more rapidly.

Many junior colleges considered as public are really off-campus centers of four-year colleges or universities. Also, some of those classified as private bear the same relationship to private colleges or universities. Naturally, many of these are in no sense terminal institutions but serve to provide part of the regular college course.

It is generally assumed that a junior college, to meet community needs completely, should be both terminal and preparatory. From the terminal type of institution has grown the community college and the technical institution.

In 1962, the President's Committee on National Goals made this statement: "Two-year colleges should be within commuting distance of most high school graduates." Recent estimates indicate that by 1970 at least 900 junior colleges will be in operation. The American Association of Junior Colleges has been a potent force in the rapid development of our junior colleges.

Higher Education – In recent years, the number of institutions of higher education has more than doubled, because higher education has become increasingly more attractive and necessary and as a result of the high birth rate during the postwar years. Current enrollment is more than five million and continuing to rise along with the costs of education.

One of the most recent developments in the field of higher education is the formation of a new institution consisting of the last two years of college and two years of graduate school. The first of such organizations, called a "senior college" was opened at Boca Raton, Florida, in 1964. It has no freshmen or sophomores – only juniors, seniors and graduate students. It was set up primarily to meet the demands for advanced scientific training.

The proliferation of institutions engaged in higher education, their growth in size and functions, and the new demands made upon them necessitate comprehensive planning at least on the state level. It is only in New York and California that anything of real significance has been accomplished in this direction. Pennsylvania is in the process of developing a comprehensive master plan, and this is being considered in certain other states as well. Such statewide planning is essential if social needs are to be met and foolish competition and waste avoided.

Some of the more serious problems facing higher education today are:

1. How can the physical plant and professional staffs needed be provided to educate the increasing number of young people who want to attend college in the years ahead?
2. Shall the federal government be encouraged to assist in the financing of higher education, or will this lead to federal control?
3. How can endowment funds be invested to provide higher returns?
4. Is it wise to urge business and industry to contribute larger sums to higher education or will this lead to another type of control?
5. How can the institutions best fit into the program of national or military service that will likely continue to be demanded of young people?
6. What type of program can be carried on to recruit and educate a high type of personnel for college teaching?
7. What alterations or changes of curricular offerings will be needed to meet the new demands?

Most colleges and universities have found it necessary to increase their tuition and other costs quite substantially. The crux of the problem now is whether costs have gone as far as they can go. Surely there is a point of diminishing returns, a serious result of which will be that many more capable young men and women will be denied a college education.

One possible approach to the crisis is the granting of many additional scholarships by the states and loans by the federal and state governments. These could be used at all types of approved institutions of higher education, and federal funds would be handled similarly to G.I. grants.

Another avenue of assistance has been recently noted in which several large corporations have offered to match contributions made by any of their employees to colleges or universities. Thus, if the vice president donates $1,000 to his alma mater, the corporation will donate a like amount. Many industries, foundations, service clubs, parent-teacher associations, and other organizations also are increasing the number of scholarships they grant to worthy students.

Expenditures for public school adult education reach about $100 million annually. If all other types of adult education are considered, it is likely that the total cost would exceed one billion dollars. This is big business in the full sense of the word. Indeed, one of every thirteen high school diplomas given in 1963 in Los Angeles was earned by an adult, and, in many communities, full-time day schools are being established for the growing number of adults who seek to further their education.

In addition to the many programs of adult education carried on by local school districts, there are many other types, such as:

1. Programs by such community organizations as the YMCA, YWCA, Boy and Girl Scouts, etc.
2. Programs by nonprofit cooperative groups such as The Institute of Lifetime Learning in Washington, D.C.
3. Programs carried on by colleges and universities both on and away from the campus and through the medium of television

4. Programs carried on by museums, libraries, and the like
5. Programs set up by churches and other religious groups
6. Programs by corporations and labor unions.

Financing Public Education

Property Taxation – The property tax will continue, for the foreseeable future, to remain a major element in school finance. But economic planners caution that the property tax program is riddled with inequities and inconsistencies – to the extent that major review of existing legislation is urgently needed. Whether drastic reform or new sources of revenue are indicated will be a matter for the individual states to decide.

Local property tax pays more than half the cost of operating the nation's schools. During the 1965-66 school year, for example, local owners of real and personal property paid 53 percent of the cost; states contributed 39 percent in various forms of aid; and the federal government paid only eight percent. The federal share was in the form of categorical grants for instructional materials, teacher-training programs, guidance and counseling, vocational education, and so on. And while Congress has gradually broadened the base of federal aid, its approach is most likely to be directed to meeting specific needs rather than improving schools generally.

During most of the nation's history, property tax has been the most productive source of local revenue, including funds for school operation. In 1902 it provided over 51 percent of total federal, state, and local tax collections. No other tax even approached it in importance. As recently as 1940, the property tax provided nearly 35 percent of total government revenues.

With World War II, however, the property tax diminished in proportion to other government revenue sources. By 1944, the nation's tax pattern was such that only ten percent of government revenue was derived from local property taxation. The reason for the shift was, of course, a vast expansion of federal taxation measures to finance the war effort. Nonproperty taxes, such as personal and corporate income, excess profits and excise taxes imposed by Congress, progressively lessened the significance of property taxation in overall government finance.

Recently, however, the property tax has gained some ground; in 1964, it provided 15.4 percent of total tax collections. In the postwar years it has provided 46 percent of total state and local revenues. Of this percentage, an increasing amount is being used for local government operation alone, since there is a nationwide trend to nonproperty taxation at the state level, in the form of personal income taxes and sales taxes.

Local property taxation – at the community level – is usually regulated by state constitutional and/or statutory limitations. In some states, limits are placed on the percentage of local tax revenue which may be used for school operation and other functions of local government.

The property tax is thus the principal source of funds for education and is likely to remain so, since no other tax source promises to take over its function effectively. It remains the one tax that can be controlled locally and the one tax whose rate can be changed periodically by local communities to yield the amount of revenue desired. For this reason it has been called the "residual" or "balancing" tax of local and state finance. The local requirement for funds not met by federal and state assistance is financed by establishing the property tax at the level necessary. Annual review and establishment of the property tax rate makes the impact of this tax more visible than others. In many states, a high degree of local control is also allowed by permitting elections on rate increases.

Recent Developments – The rapid growth in property tax collections in recent years has resulted from increased assessed valuations and higher levies on property. Higher assessments reflect substantial increases in the market prices of property and the added values of new construction and land-use charges. The present effective rate is 1.4 percent of market value on a nationwide basis – approximately the peak prosperity tax rate of 1927. Great differences in property tax rates exist, ranging from 0.4 percent in New Mexico to 2.7 percent in Massachusetts.

Because of differences among the states in the percentage of market value at which property is assessed, there are considerable differences in the productivity and equity of the property tax.

Confusion and Inequities – The result of this wide variation in tax rates is that citizens have no effective yardsticks by which to measure the efficiency of the tax structure in their communities. Nor can they judge with precision the degree of popular support of the public schools. Comparing nominal and effective tax rates gives one a clue, but the comparisons may be invalidated by differences among school districts and other governmental units within a state, as well as among pieces of property within the same district.

The assessment-sales ratio is an important factor beyond the question of fiscal efficiency; state aid formulas are frequently based on local assessments. Communities which underassess property thus gain at the expense of those that do not. The result may be gross inequity in the distribution of state resources, since underassessment can indicate unwillingness – or inability – to carry the burdens of school financing.

Compounding the problem are the many maneuvers by local communities for tax advantage. Economist Jesse Burkhead points out several in his study, *State and Local Taxes for Public Education* (Syracuse University Press, 1963):

> Every community in the United States seeks a "balanced" economic structure. A new industry will bring additions to the assessment roll and ease property tax burdens on the homeowner. Some

> high-income communities may be immune to these concerns, but there are thousands of middle-income residential communities that will always welcome the ideal business concern that adds to the assessment roll but generates no traffic problems, no smoke, no dust, no noise....
>
> Middle- and upper-income communities, fearing further increases in property tax rates, will often engage in restrictive zoning to prevent multiple-dwelling units and mass subdivisions that bring more children than assessed property. All of this further compounds the difficulties faced by ethnic minorities and low-income families in finding adequate living and housing conditions.

Other indictments are leveled against the property tax itself. As summarized by Burkhead, they include:

1. The tax, since it is determined by the value of physical facilities and thus independent of business net income, bears more heavily on new firms and unprofitable firms than it does on established and profitable firms.
2. Where unimproved land is assessed at its potential improved value in a growing urban area, over-rapid development will be encouraged as owners seek to escape from the fixed charges on the land.
3. Conversely, underassessment will encourage the speculative withholding of land from development.
4. Since renovated and improved structures are typically subject to higher assessment, the property tax tends to perpetuate dilapidation.

Suggestions for Action – Economists and policy planners generally agree that no fiscal revolution is in sight, and that forces which have shaped and structured state and local finance during the past two decades will remain dominant for years to come. This does not mean, however, that the ills of property tax administration are incurable. An enlightened citizenry can press for, and achieve, reforms which will assure more efficient use of tax dollars in public school finance.

The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, a bipartisan public body created by Congress in 1959 and charged with studying the relationships of federal, state, and local governments, has made certain recommendations. This Commission has a rotating membership consisting of three private citizens appointed by the President, three members of the U.S. Senate, three members of the U.S. House of Representatives, three officers of the Executive Branch of the federal government, four governors, three state legislators, four mayors, and three county officials.

From a practical point of view, the Commission is not a federal agency in the usual sense of the term; it is a national body responsible to all three levels of government and to their respective legislative and executive branches.

For several years, the Advisory Commission has studied the administration of local property taxes, and its findings and recommendations are now available to the public. The commission's recommendations represent a cross section of current opinion on legislative reforms necessary to assure more equitable distribution of the tax burden within the states.

The Local Property Tax—A Glossary of Terms

Property Tax Base – total value of real estate and personal property subject to local taxation.

Assessed Valuation – appraised value of taxable property, as determined by assessors.

Market Valuation – the price at which property could be sold today by a willing seller to a willing buyer (may be more or less than assessed value for tax purposes).

Assessment-Sales Ratio – the percentage of market value represented by the assessed valuation as determined by comparing assessed values of sample properties sold in some recent period with actnal sales prices.

Property Tax Levy – amount of revenue to be raised through property taxes (usually total expenditure estimates minus anticipated federal and state aid).

Nominal Tax Rate – property tax rate on assessed valuation (expressed, for example, as one percent, 10 mills, $1 per $100, or $10 per $1000).

Effective Tax Rate – property tax rate on market value of property; the nominal tax rate times assessment-sales ratio (usually less than nominal rate).

The Superintendent and the Principal

The role of the superintendent is a key one. His duties and responsibilities can be summarized as follows:

1. His power and duties are initiatory and executory. He acts both as a professional advisor of the board of education in recommending policies for the government of the schools, and as executor of all approved policies for operation of the school system. All acts performed by the superintendent which are classed as discretionary are subject to review and approval by the board.
2. It is his duty to attend all meetings of the board, and he may attend all board committee meetings.
3. He has the right to speak at meetings on all matters before the board, but not the right to vote.

4. He nominates or recommends all supervisors, teachers, or other school employees.
5. Assignment, transfer, and promotion of all employees of the school system are made by the superintendent with approval of the board of education subject to contractual limitation.
6. Action on a recommendation for the suspension or dismissal of any employees of the school system is taken by the board or the superintendent. The superintendent may suspend from teaching functions any employee for infraction of school policy or practice at any time.
7. He has the responsibility for the administration of all instruction and management of all pupils.
8. He has the overall responsibility for the development of curricula and the improvement of instruction either directly or through principals, supervisors, or staff committees.
9. He recommends textbooks, instructional supplies, and school equipment. Procurement of supplies and materials is made in accordance with the laws governing such activities set down either by the state or local school boards.
10. He enforces the compulsory attendance rules.
11. He prepares an annual budget and submits it to the board of education for approval.
12. He has the power to make rules and regulations to govern routine matters in accordance with standard school procedures.
13. He hears all complaints against the schools and acts as judge in matters of controversy between school employees and between school employees and pupils, parents of pupils, or patrons when the controversies relate to school affairs. The board of education will not deal with such matters except on appeal from the superintendent or his office.
14. He is charged with the enforcement of rules, regulations, and decisions of the board, and is responsible for the dissemination of all general orders adopted by the board, relating to all school employees.
15. He uses such means of publicity as will best keep the people of the district informed about activities, schedules, and routine announcements of the school. He may require from principals, staff members, or other employees such information or reports as he needs for this purpose. All publicity is generally issued from his office, or the office designated by him.
16. He makes an annual report on the condition and programs of the schools and such other reports as the board may request from time to time.
17. He is responsible for the general efficiency of the school system, for the development of the teaching staff, and for the educational growth and welfare of pupils. He has the authority to hold such meetings of teachers and principals as he deems necessary, and to require attendance.
18. He keeps on file a record for each teacher showing years of service in the school, professional improvement in service, membership in professional organizations, and such other information as he deems advisable.
19. He may delegate, subject to approval by the board, any of the powers and duties which the board has entrusted to him, but, in every instance, he shall continue to be directly responsible to the board for the execution of these powers and duties.
20. He recognizes the need for an organized in-service educational program, in which remedial supervision is provided in order to eradicate outmoded teaching habits, or developmental supervision is given in order that the teacher may become more effective and instrumental in developing new methods and sharing her experiences with other staff members.
21. He knows the value of good public relations. He uses the PTA and Citizens Committee or similar groups, for aid and help with pupil health and welfare, curriculum construction, and understanding the school's objectives and practices.
22. He encourages parent visits and makes arrangements for such visits. He develops a regular systematic method of reporting to parents on developments within the particular school.

The role of the principal also is important. His duties and responsibilities include:

1. He is the symbol of the school in the eyes of the general public in the school neighborhood and of the teachers and other employees in the school.
2. He represents the school, the activities, and program to the parents of children in the school and to the general public in the school neighborhood.
3. He informs and instructs concerning the needs and tasks of the school through his personal activity in the school and in the school neighborhood.
4. He continuously studies the neighborhood, the homes, stores, social agencies, changes in the neighborhood with respect to residential, business, industrial or other developments, and racial, religious, national, and other social groups in order to better fit the school into its community.
5. The principal initiates group studies by teachers and parents and others of problems of the school and of the community.
6. He studies the school and its program continuously, its needs and its relations with its community.
7. He promotes the functioning of school government democratically in all aspects of the school operation.
8. He develops with teachers and parents and others the organization, the procedures and means for promoting good relations between the school and its public.

9. He employs successfully the media of communication between the school and the school neighborhood and works with other individuals and with groups in the use of such media in the promotion of school public relations.
10. He cooperates with individuals and professional and lay groups in activities promising to be of assistance to school public relations directly or indirectly.
11. He evaluates constantly, by himself and with others, the state of school public relations and plans for improvement.
12. The principal functions with the superintendent of schools, other persons representing the school system, the teachers and other employees in the school, parents and other lay persons in the formulation of (a) policies governing school public relations; (b) activities in the school; (c) plans for programs to be carried out; (d) plans for implementation of the programs; and (e) evaluation and replanning.
13. He is responsible to the superintendent for the continuous maintenance of an excellent curriculum and effective instruction, and for keeping up his building and supplies.
14. He is directly concerned with building planning, attendance records, administration of health services, management of school cafeteria, classroom teaching, guidance programs, inspection of building and equipment, standardizing and marking systems, selection of textbooks and instructional materials, graduation requirements, athletics, extracurricular activities, school discipline, selection of library materials, supervision of PTA or other similar groups, public relations, inservice training for teachers, supervision of custodial staff, reports to the superintendent of schools, and reports to the state department of public instruction.

III. Problems and Unmet Needs in American Education

This decade is witnessing a public scrutiny of public education never seen in this country before. All facets of the school system are under evaluation. Curriculum, teacher preparation, teacher organizations, implementation of civil rights decisions by the courts, federal aid to education, religion and its role in the schools, the length of the school day and year, new approaches to financing schools, new approaches to the education of the culturally deprived and other special groups of children, and a host of other problems and issues are being studied; and solutions are being sought in scores of communities. In fact, if a school district does not have a number of special committees working to resolve many of these problems as they affect the local school system, one wonders about the overall quality of its educational program.

All personnel in a school system and citizens in its parent community are affected by decisions made by the federal, state and local governments, and, more directly, the school board. Most affected by decisions about such matters as desegregation, increasing local property taxes for the support of education, teachers' salaries, and the focus of special curriculum programs are the children in the schools. It is obvious that teachers and parents must understand the problems and issues facing American education if we are to have any reasonable chance of effecting meaningful change to help pupils more closely approach their potential.

This resource material contains outlines of some of the major problems and unmet needs facing American education today that will remain for some time to come. The teacher aide should have some awareness of these issues and problems both as a member of the educational staff and as a citizen in his community. The aide should not be expected to become an expert on these issues, but he should recognize that they exist and that there are no easy solutions. He can be helped to understand that these developed for many reasons and over a long period of time and that finding solutions for some of them will take time.

Most current problems and needs in American education give rise to attacks or accusations by local groups. These local initiatives may ultimately require either Supreme Court decisions or recommendations for legislation to the Office of Education and/or Congress.

Trainees should be helped to understand that because many local problems have their counterparts elsewhere, the problems ultimately have to be resolved *legally* at the state or federal court level. They also should be helped to understand that *implementation* must occur at the local level. To help develop this dual conceptual understanding about problems and unmet needs in American education, these discussion units are suggested along with sample questions, activities, resource people and publications:

1. *Equality of Educational Opportunity*
2. *Changing Curriculum Approaches*
3. *Pressures on the Schools*
4. *Improving the Quality of Members of the Education Team*
5. *Paying the Bill for Improved Education in the Future.*

The trainer responsible for teaching the basic education curriculum may wish to organize material differently. However, it is recommended strongly that trainees be exposed to as many problems and unmet needs of the local school district as possible. This exposure will help the trainee relate his own questions and experiences to the broader issues discussed and provide him with a framework within which he can begin to work toward the ultimate solution of these problems.

Discussion Unit No.1: Equality of Educational Opportunity

Suggested discussion questions:

1. Does every child in America have an equal

opportunity for education? Do all schools provide the same educational opportunity?

2. What does the term, *separate but equal facilities*, mean? Why did the Supreme Court rule that "separate educational facilities are inherently unequal"?
3. What does *cultural deprivation* mean? What are some examples of "cultural deprivation"?
4. What programs does your school system have to ensure equal educational opportunity for each child?
5. What are some of the handicaps the poorly educated have to face in seeking employment?
6. What programs are available in your community (in addition to the school programs) which help people prepare for better jobs and careers?
7. How can people in impoverished neighborhoods get better educational programs for their children?

Suggested resource people and activities:

The range of possibilities for activities and resource people will be limited only by the range of programs and knowledgeable people upon whom to draw. The broader issues and related factors of equality of educational opportunity can be discussed by local school board members and/or staff; representatives of state or federal programs in this area (Head Start, Neighborhood Youth Corps, Vocational Education, etc.); representatives of groups such as the American Civil Liberties Union, Urban Leagne, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, and the League of Women Voters; college or university faculty with special interest in this area; and representatives of other local groups with a demonstrated interest in helping all children achieve their potential.

The following activities are suggested:

1. Assign each trainee the task of finding out details of the continuing educational opportunities available through one or two of the following programs: university extension; junior college, college or university; adult education in recreation departments, technical schools or accredited business schools, etc.; federal, state, county, local or private agency programs (New Careers, Neighborhood Youth Corps, etc.) or the armed forces.
2. Assign each trainee to visit and report on a specific program in the school (and district) designed to assist pupils with problems affecting their educational achievement (speech and hearing, remedial reading, remedial arithmetic, etc.).
3. Ask the trainees to scan the newspaper each day for articles reporting problems and solutions relating to equality of opportunity in American education, cut them out, and discuss them in class.
4. Ask the trainees to interview the principal or superintendent about specific actions taken by the school district to guarantee equal educational opportunity. Discuss in core group.

Discussion Unit No. 2: Changing Curriculum Approaches

Suggested discussion questions:

1. Do all people learn the same way or at the same speed?
2. Did a boy or girl living at the time of Daniel Boone study the same subjects in school that students do now? What subjects were different? The same?
3. Was there any difference in the amount of information the schools had to teach in Daniel Boone's time compared to now?
4. What do you think this means in trying to help school children learn about science, mathematics, history, and all the other subjects taught in school?
5. What are some of the ways in which our school is trying to do a better job of helping our pupils learn their subjects?
6. Why have curricula such as the "new math" and the "new biology" been accepted by so many schools?
7. Does our school district have a "curriculum director"?
8. What does he do? Is there a curriculum committee in our school district? What does it do?
9. What special programs are there in our school district to help pupils who have fallen behind in their reading and arithmetic?

Suggested resource people and activities:

There are a number of excellent resource people who can be invited to discuss these questions with the trainees. The school psychologist can relate the ways people learn and discuss factors that negatively influence the learning process. The curriculum director for the district or the curriculum coordinator in the school can discuss the considerations entering into the adoption of any particular curriculum. The supervisor responsible for remedial programs can discuss the general modifications made in designing remedial curricula.

The following activities are suggested:

1. Assign each trainee one subject-matter area and ask him to find a textbook used in the school system over twenty years ago and compare it with textbooks now in use.
2. Have each trainee observe and then use a program designed for a teaching machine appropriate to the grade level he is working with.
3. Assign the trainee to complete the Specialty Curriculum Unit, *Remedial and Developmental Skills in the Language Arts* in the trainee's manual.
4. Ask the trainees to review social studies textbooks and report on the inclusion or exclusion of the history of minority groups.
5. Discuss the relationship between the material covered in the Specialty Curriculum Unit, *Child/Adolescent Growth and Development*, and the implications for designing and modifying curricula.

Discussion Unit No. 3: Pressures on the Schools

Suggested discussion questions:

1. Define the meaning of pressure or pressure groups. What does it mean to put pressure on the schools?
2. What kinds of groups put pressure on a school? How do they do it?
3. Can you think of any groups that have recently put pressure on the schools in your area? Nationally? For what reasons did they act in this manner?
4. What value do pressure groups provide? What dangers may result from one pressure group getting what it wants?
5. What problems exist in poor communities that keep their people from actively working to improve the quality of education?

Suggested resource people and activities:

A wide range of resource people may be called on to discuss the influence of pressure groups on school programs. These might include a school board member to discuss considerations involved in buying land for new school buildings; complaints brought before the board concerning changing school district boundaries and the lack of special programs; a representative of a voluntary health organization to discuss the reasons his agency produces educational materials; or the school principal reviewing the range of requests from parents and local businessmen about things they want the school to do or stop doing. You might also ask a college or school administrator to come to discuss pressures currently being put on schools by students and community groups who are demanding changes in curriculum. This person could also discuss the whole question of student participation in school policy-making decisions.

The following activities are suggested:

1. Ask the trainees to skim through the materials center's collection of pamphlets, charts, films filmstrips, and other teaching aids, and to list the names of the organizations (other than publishers) making them available to schools. Discuss the reasons for this.
2. Discuss the reasons for differences in school policy with respect to particular materials.
3. Provide the trainees with a copy of the state school or education code. Ask them to locate specific laws which require the teaching of such subjects as American history, conservation (Arbor Day), the dangers of alcohol, tobacco, and addicting drugs, and the law prohibiting the use of a common drinking cup. Discuss the reasons for these laws and try and determine when they were enacted.

Discussion Unit No. 4: Improving the Quality of Members of the Educational Team

Suggested discussion questions:

1. What are the present employment requirements for each of the following members of the education team?
   a. Beginning teacher
   b. Beginning teacher aide, assistant, associate
   c. School principal.
2. Why are periodic teacher institutes or workshops held for teachers?
3. Does the school district require teachers and aides to take additional courses after employment? Why?
4. What courses usually are required for people wishing to teach?
5. Are teachers and aides ever supervised while they are teaching or working with pupils in your school? If so, why?
6. Does the school have a reference library for teachers to use?
7. Does the school district have a "sabbatical leave" policy?

Suggested resource people and activities:

The school district personnel officer, the principal and the classroom teacher can serve as resource people for this unit. A faculty member from a local college or university education department also can discuss with the trainees state certification policy for teachers and all levels of auxiliary school personnel.

The following activities are suggested:

1. Discuss the career possibilities for teacher aides in your school district and the necessary requirements for promotion to the next level.
2. Discuss local continuing education programs available to teachers and aides who wish to improve their professional ability.
3. Collect and discuss information concerning the requirements of these programs and the necessary procedures to enroll in these institutions.
4. Prior to each teacher institute or workshop, discuss the topic listed for the program and how it relates to improving the quality of teaching and/or learning in the school district.

Discussion Unit No. 5: Paying the Bill for Improved Education in the Future

Suggested discussion questions:

1. How much is spent each year for each pupil in our school?
2. How much of this amount is paid by local taxes, state money, and federal money?
3. Who determines how much money will be spent for the many different people and materials necessary to run the school district?
4. What are some of the problems large cities are having now in paying the bill for improved education programs?

5. What programs in your school district now are being supported by federal funds?
6. Who gives the school board authority to tax people to support the schools?
7. Can the school board keep raising taxes as much as it wants to? Why?
8. If a school board wants to raise taxes above the legal limit, what must the board do?
9. What approaches are the large cities using to solve the increased costs of education?

Suggested resource people and activities:

Two excellent resource people to discuss the questions in this unit with the trainees are the chairman of the school board and the member of the school board who has been delegated responsibility for school financing. The problems associated with finance are quite complex. Therefore, the resource people should be quite concrete in discussing the amounts of money necessary to pay the bill for broad areas such as salaries, materials and equipment, capital outlay, etc., and the overall process of taxing, bonding and budgetary control of the school district's financial resources. A copy of the current year's budget should be brought in when this topic is discussed and specific pages reviewed briefly to help the trainee become acquainted with the fiscal detail necessary to support the learning process.

The following activities are suggested:

1. Have the trainees attend a session of budget hearings before the board of education and discuss the following:
    a. What item in the proposed budget cost the most?
    b. Was the budget proposed more or less than the year before?
    c. What new programs were included in the budget?
    d. What programs were discontinued? Why?
    e. Were any programs in the budget supported by federal money? Which?
    f. Were there any citizens' groups present at the budget hearings? Which ones were represented? Did they agree or disagree with the way in which the board recommended the budget be divided?
    g. How does the enrollment of pupils in the school district affect the budget?
2. Ask the trainees to clip newspaper articles about the budget hearings they attended and discuss them.

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APPENDIX A

AUDIOVISUAL AIDS AND BASIC TRAINING MATERIALS

The following films are recommended for showing during training sessions devoted to the Specialty Curriculum Units in the trainee's manual. You should order them well in advance so that the trainees can see them at the time indicated in the curriculum outline. The school librarian or audiovisual teacher can help with ordering and scheduling the films.

1. *Children's Emotions.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 21 min. b. & w.
2. *Children's Play.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 21 min. b. & w.
3. *Children's Fantasies.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 21 min. b. & w.
4. *Sibling Relations and Personality.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 22 min. b. & w.
5. *Sibling Rivalries and Parents.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 11 min. b. & w.
6. *He Acts His Age.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 13 min. color or b. & w.
7. *The Feeling of Hostility.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 31 min. b. & w.
8. *Elementary School Children. Part I: Each Child is Different.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 17 min. b. & w.
9. *Elementary School Children, Part II: Discovering Individual Differences.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 25 min. b. & w.
10. *Individual Differences.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 25 min. b. & w.
11. *Problem Children.* Pennsylvania State University. 20 min. b. & w.
12. *Age of Turmoil.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 20 min. b. & w.
13. *Farewell to Childhood.* International Film Bureau. 23 min. b. & w.
14. *Audiovisual Materials in Teaching.* Coronet Films. 14 min. color or b. & w.
15. *Bulletin Boards – An Effective Teaching Device.* Bailey. 11 min. color.
16. *Chalk and Chalkboards.* Bailey. 17 min. color
17. *Creating Instructional Materials.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 15 min. color or b. & w.
18. *Lettering Instructional Materials.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 22 min. color or b. & w.
19. *Poster Making: Design and Technique.* Bailey. 10 min. color.
20. *Selecting and Using Ready-Made Materials.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 17 min. color or b. & w.
21. *Handmade Materials for Projection.* Indiana University. 19 min. color or b. & w.
22. *Facts About Film* (2nd Ed.). International Film Bureau. 12 min. color
23. *Facts About Projection* (2nd Ed.). International Film Bureau. 16 min. color.
24. *Children Without.* National Education Association. 29 min. b. & w.
25. *Superfluous People.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 54 min. b. & w.
26. *High Wall.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 32 min. b. & w.
27. *Portrait of a Disadvantaged Child.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 16 min. b. & w.
28. *Portrait of the Inner City.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 16 min. b. & w.
29. *Portrait of the Inner City School – A Place to Learn.* McGraw-Hill Textfilms. 15 min. b. & w.
30. *Operation Head Start.* Bailey. 16 min. b. & w.

These films are available through their distributors, whose addresses are listed below.

1. Bailey Films Incorporated
   6509 De Longpre Avenue
   Hollywood, California 90028

2. Coronet Instructional Films
   65 East South Water Street
   Chicago, Illinois 60601

3. Indiana University
   Audio Visual Center
   Bloomington, Indiana 47401

4. International Film Bureau
   57 East Jackson Boulevard
   Chicago, Illinois 60604

5. McGraw-Hill Textfilm Department
   330 West 42nd Street
   New York, New York 10036

6. Pennsylvania State University
   Audiovisual Aids Library
   University Park, Pennsylvania 16802

Basic Materials

This checklist of basic materials will assist the trainer in collecting the supplies required during the specialty training sessions.

For field trips:

- Bus tokens
- Bus schedules
- Street maps of the city
- A listing of community agencies, their addresses and hours.

For the Basic Curriculum in Education:

- Local newspapers (daily subscription)
- Library cards for the trainees
- Catalogues and other literature published by local schools and colleges
- Textbooks currently in use in the city schools
- Textbooks that have been rejected or become outmoded in the city schools
- Examples of curriculum outlines and experimental curricula
- A copy of the state education code
- A copy of job descriptions and employment requirements for school personnel
- The current year's budget for the school district.

For the Specialty Curriculum Units:

Unit 1. *Child/Adolescent Growth and Development:*
- 16 mm. sound projector and screen
- Chalk and chalkboard.

Unit 2: *Audiovisual Techniques and Materials:*
- 16 mm. sound projector and screen
- Opaque projector
- Overhead projector
- Chalk and chalkboards
- Flannel or felt boards
- Magnetic boards
- Peg boards
- Bulletin boards
- Construction paper
- Rulers
- Scissors
- Paste
- Cellophane tape
- Pins
- Thumb tacks
- Magazines and newspapers
- Colored yarn
- Chalk
- Drawing pens
- Paper cutter
- Tracing paper
- Cardboard
- Exacto® knives
- Masking tape
- Lettering devices: stencils, rubber stamps, etc.
- Rubber cement
- Dry-mount press and/or flatiron
- Dry-mount tissue
- Sealamin® laminating film
- Adhesive spray
- Adhesive wax sticks or disks
- Ditto® masters
- Ceramic or grease pencils
- Permanent and water soluble marking pens
- Clear acetate (cleared x-ray film is least expensive)
- Typewriter
- Frosted acetate
- Colored acetate
- Heat-sensitive transparency film
- Thermofax® copy machine
- Diazo® film and printer
- Record player
- Tape recorder.

Unit 3: *Testing and Evaluation Skills:*
- Samples of IQ, achievement, reading, aptitude, and other standardized tests used in the local school district
- Scoring devices: window stencils, strip keys, etc.
- A copy of the marking system and grading policy recommended in the local school district
- Samples of report cards from local schools
- Samples of permanent cumulative records and progress reports made in the local schools.

Unit 4: *Social Skill Development:*
- No special materials.

Unit 5: *School-Community Liaison Skills:*
- Simulated telephone from telephone company
- Samples of medical forms, free lunch forms, etc.
- A copy of the constitution and by-laws of the local PTA
- *Robert's Rules of Order*
- Information on field trip procedure: charter buses, free tours of local attractions, procedural guidelines for the local district.

Unit 6: *Remedial and Developmental Skills in the Language Arts:*
- Subscriptions to popular magazines: *Ebony, Life, Jet, Look, Scope, Sports Illustrated*
- Chalk and chalkboards
- Flash cards and elementary primers
- Comics sections from the Sunday papers
- A selection of Comics Code Authority Approved Comic Books

APPENDIX B

SELECTED CONCEPTS AND SUBSTANTIVE ELEMENTS RELATED TO THE NEW CAREERS TRAINING MODEL

The concepts and substantive elements listed below represent those underlying the New Careers Training Model on which core group process and its related curriculum are based. Sources used to derive these concepts mainly are those developed over the past few years by the Institute for Youth Studies, Howard University, and other New Careers Training Programs.

The listing of concepts and substantive elements has as its central aim the belief that there are common ideas about people and their specific and general environments which must be built into and reinforced in any learning situation to achieve New Careers' stated outcomes. These common ideas include (1) recognition of the dignity of the individual, (2) his right to self-determination, (3) maximum opportunity for his further development and learning, (4) the experimental basis of learning, (5) and the futility of verbal procedures as a substitute for the personal experiences of the individual.*

As concepts become increasingly refined and understood by both the trainer and the trainee, the supportive substantive elements also become clearer and easier to apply to the learning process. No attempt has been made to arrange the following list in sequential order. The New Careers Program is a system composed of many complementary parts which interact with each other and which cannot be isolated from each other.

1. *Concept:* Success in conducting a New Careers Training Program depends on firm commitments from human service agencies for employment and career mobility for trainees.

   Substantive Elements:

   A. Training should start only when firm commitments for jobs have been received from the employing agency.

   B. Prior to training, the employing agency should have a comprehensive job description for each potential position as a base for core, remediation, skill and OJT curriculum development.

   C. Prior to training, the employing agency should have determined realistic career mobility for aides through at least two additional steps with concomitant job descriptions and agency requirements for promotion.

   D. Prior to program initiation, there should be a general orientation to the New Careers program for all employing agency staff and trainees.

2. *Concept:* The optimum New Careers Training Model is experience-based from which flows a series of "core" progressions: a core in generic human services; a core in a specific human service; and the specific skill and OJT core.

   Substantive Elements:

   A. The core of generic human services must stem from the life and job experiences of the trainees.

   B. The total training program should support and underline the responsibilities of the trainees to raise issues and problems.

   C. All succeeding cores are built on the basic core, detailing specific elements in each human service area and specific occupational area.

   D. The experiences of the trainees, prior to and during the training period, are incorporated into the content of the progressions of cores.

   E. The New Careers Training Program must move from simple to complex elements.

   F. Opportunity is provided for experiencing success, through incremental steps of difficulty.

   G. Trainees are better able to learn generalized principles when they are linked to their own concrete experience and/or observation.

3. *Concept:* The New Careers Training Model attempts to "screen and keep people in" rather than out of training.

   Substantive Elements:

   A. Remediation should be based on the functional needs of the trainee as derived from the job situation.

   B. Remediation should prepare the trainee to take and pass appropriate tests or examinations and obtain the necessary credentials leading to further education and/or career mobility.

   C. Supportive services (medical, dental, legal, day care, etc.) should be provided trainees to help them maintain continuity of training.

   D. Employing agencies must plan for in-service education for aides beyond entry training.

   E. On-going formal education and training for career mobility of human service aides should be incorporated into the normal work week, through released time or work-study programs.

   F. The New Careers Training Program must accept and build upon the life style of the New Careerist for maximum development of his potential.

   G. The trainee must be helped to become aware of the unique role he plays and the contribution he makes to the training program and agency.

   H. Professional staff involved in New Careers Training Programs must believe in the value of human service aides and transmit this belief to trainees in the program.

   I. Trainees in New Careers must be adequately compensated during the training program.

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*Woodruff, A. D. *Basic Concepts of Teaching.* San Francisco, Chandler Publishing Co., 1961.

4. *Concept:* The New Careers Training Model will be most successful when agencies and agency professional personnel restructure their own specific functions and services along with those of New Careerist, involving both the professional and the Human Service Aide in the process.

   Substantive Elements:

   A. Training of skill and OJT professional supervisors should parallel that of the trainees and relate to the specific program in which both are involved.
   B. Job development and job description in employing agencies should develop based on the optimum utilization of professionals and aides.
   C. At the same time, training curriculum must be revised and updated to support the on-going process of job development.
   D. The possibilities of improving services are greater when the responsibilities of the HSA and the professional compliment and supplement one another.

5. *Concept:* The New Careers Training Model emphasizes individual participation in meaningful and challenging activity in all its elements.

   Substantive Elements:

   A. Trainers – core, skill, OJT, remediation – must see the trainee as able to make decisions and act responsibly consistent with his own interests and needs.
   B. The core group provides a medium for the development of human relation skills and their integration with technical skill and OJT experience.

6. *Concept:* The New Careers Training Model provides a new way to help people bridge the gap between lack of credentials in a human service occupation and job entry with potential career mobility.

   Substantive Elements:

   A. The New Careers process enables the trainee to gain insights into his capacities as well as his deficiencies as he has the opportunity to test skills and perform tasks.
   B. The community needs to be familiarized with New Careers concepts and programs – i.e., professional groups, business groups, colleges and universities, community action groups, etc.
   C. Linkage with local junior colleges, colleges and universities should be established to provide for continuing education for human service aides.

7. *Concept:* New Careers training programs for human service aides are inseparable from the job situation.

   Substantive Elements:

   A. Immediate involvement of the trainee in meaningful job-centered experience is critical for overall success.
   B. Specialty and OJT experience should provide the basis for curriculum in remediation and the springboard for core group discussion.
   C. The optimum training vehicle for New Careers is an informal, small group.

8. *Concept:* Entry training is just that amount of training which can best and most feasibly prepare the trainee to responsibly assume the duties of a HSA in the shortest amount of time.

   Substantive Elements:

   A. The trainee should be scheduled to function in a service-providing capacity as quickly as possible.
   B. The training program must include those necessary skills as early in training as possible to allow the trainee to assume this service function.
   C. Prior to training, the job description for the entry job should contain enough detail to reasonably estimate the length of training and responsible involvement of the trainee.

9. *Concept:* The employing agency must be deeply involved in all phases of planning and implementation of the New Careers Training Program.

   Substantive Element:

   A. Expectations and regulations pertaining to the training program and employing agency must be clearly defined to all participsnts at the beginning of the New Careers Training Program.