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The first article in this collection of 12 is reprinted from "Auxiliary School Personnel," a booklet published by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards. A series on "S.721: Teacher Aide Program Support Act of 1967" includes a copy of the bill, remarks made by U.S. Senator Gaylord Nelson when he introduced it, and a summary of public reaction to it. "High School Training for New Careers in Human Services" reports a District of Columbia cooperative demonstration program to educate inner-city ghetto students for employment and careers, and "Teenage Teacher-Aide Project" describes a program to prepare Appalachia high schoolers to work as auxiliary school personnel. "Cultivating a New Crop of Human Resources with ESEA Title III" describes a variety of PACE programs for paraprofessionals. "New Branches Grow on the Educational Family Tree" discusses the new responsibilities that will evolve for principals when volunteers or paraprofessionals enter the school system. "School Volunteers: A New Challenge" presents suggestions for establishing volunteer programs and for helping teachers use volunteers. "Teacher Aides: A Survey" synthesizes a 1966 NEA Educational Research Service study. Several articles by school principals describe experience with auxiliaries: "Substitute Training at Belmont"; "Volunteers in the School Health Program"; "Volunteers in the Public School: Bonus or Burden?"; and "An Elementary Principal Views the Feminine Mystique." A 45-item list of references on teacher aides is included. (JS)

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NEXT YEAR

● The following topics will be dealt with in issues of the magazine next year: the nongraded school; the principal and professional negotiation; systems analysis approach to education.

Many other topics, including a specific curriculum area, are being considered. Further decisions will be made following the meeting of the Publications Advisory Committee in the fall.

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CONTENTS

PROCESS WITH MICROFICHE AND
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Auxiliary Personnel in the Elementary School	
Auxiliary School Personnel— <i>National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards</i>	6
School Volunteers: A New Challenge— <i>Ruth Perlman Klebaner</i>	13
References on Teacher Aides	16
Substitute Training at Belmont— <i>Pearl C. Brackett</i>	18
High School Training for New Careers in Human Services— <i>William H. Denham, Eunice Shatz, Naomi S. Felsenfeld, and Jacob R. Fishman</i>	22
Volunteers in the School Health Program— <i>Warren Hawkins</i>	29
Teacher Aides: A Survey— <i>Mary D. Shipp</i>	30
Volunteers in the Public School: Bonus or Burden?— <i>Thelma G. Wolman and Florence D. Shelley</i>	34
New Branches Grow on the Educational Family Tree— <i>Beatrice C. Boyles</i>	38
S. 721—Teacher Aid Program Support Act of 1967— <i>Gaylord Nelson</i>	40
Teenage Teacher-Aide Project— <i>Albert G. Leep and Frank Creason</i>	45
Cultivating a New Crop of Human Resources with ESEA Title III— <i>Richard R. Goulet</i>	49
An Elementary Principal Views the Feminine Mystique— <i>Robert F. Hillenbrand</i>	53

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"Mrs. Selkirk, do you want a teacher aide again next year?"

We have asked this question of hundreds of teachers who now have aides. The unanimity of the answers is surprising. The response in nearly every case is, "Yes, I don't know how I ever managed without an aide."

We have recently heard from scores of teachers who are reacting to the new statement, *Auxiliary School Personnel*, issued by the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.

Some typical reactions:

—"It [the aide program] has made much more individual instruction possible for the children who really need it."

—"I'm now able to spend much more of my time on the things I was trained to do."

—"I now actually have time to spend on program planning and curriculum development."

—"The role of the teacher is improved in schools utilizing the services of teacher aides."

—"The teacher aide has saved the day for me."

—"The role of the aide in our individualized program in high school mathematics is of vital importance."

None of this is scientific, of course. But we do have growing informal evidence that the teachers of America are going to welcome the introduction of large numbers of auxiliary personnel into the schools with more enthusiasm than was predicted by many experts.

There are already tens of thousands of aides, both paid and volunteer, in the schools. There will be tens of thousands more next year: teachers seem to want aides; principals generally like the idea. There is federal money available now, and Congress is considering new legislation to increase greatly the funds for aides. There are a number of successful programs already in operation; sev-

Editorial

eral influential organizations are endorsing the auxiliary personnel idea.

So, what's the problem?

The problem is that much work needs to be done to make sure that the auxiliary personnel idea lives up to its great promise; vigorous and imaginative leadership is needed to insure that it doesn't become another flashy but fast-fading educational gimmick. We need to move faster than we are accustomed to move in education.

What should be done?

1. Starting *now*, teacher-training institutions should help prospective teachers get ready to teach in schools in which auxiliary personnel are being used. The content of education courses and the nature of student-teaching programs should be revised *now* to avoid widening the gap between training and practice.

2. School districts, in cooperation with nearby colleges (including junior colleges), should plan effective training programs for aides and the teachers to whom aides will be assigned. We have an unusual opportunity to apply our most sophisticated knowledge about educating people to the task of preparing auxiliary personnel. Several promising training models have already been developed and tested on a small scale. Teachers and administrators together should insist that all plans for introducing auxiliary personnel into the schools should include adequate provision for both initial and continuing training.

3. Principals and others in leadership positions should point out that the introduction of teacher aides is but one important element in a broader search for more efficient and effective staff utilization and staff development practices. The ultimate aim is the appropriate and optimum utilization of time and talent in the school. Principals should take the lead in having staff discussions of utilization practices and should encourage the development of a variety of plans for improvement.

4. In each school in which aides will be working the faculty should devote time to proposing and agreeing on ground rules for the proper utilization of auxiliaries. Questions such as which jobs aides can perform, which can be shared, and which should be reserved for the fully qualified professional need good answers.

5. Each school planning to introduce aides need not reinvent the wheel; much can be learned from the failures and successes in existing programs. The demonstration centers in the TEPS Year of the Non-Conference, for example, are a rich source of ideas about the effective utilization of auxiliaries.

6. Principals and others in leadership positions should *lead* their faculties and communities in developing an understanding of the possibilities and purposes of using auxiliary personnel and in assessing the impact of such personnel on children and the school program.

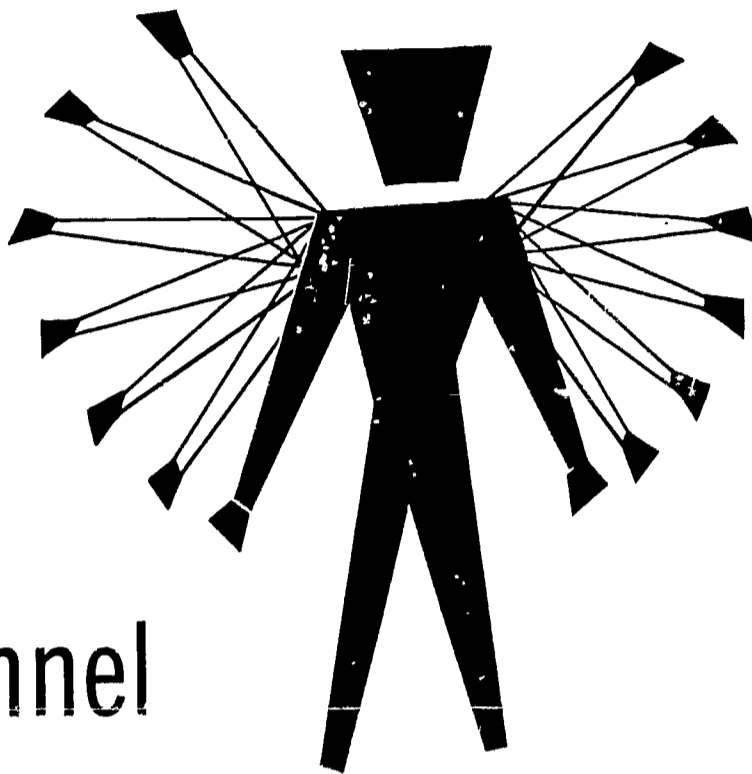
With strong leadership, the utilization of auxiliary personnel in the schools can help to make the job of the teacher more manageable and productive, and thereby make teaching a job that will attract and hold a larger number of talented people. Auxiliary personnel can help to make real the kind of individualized instruction about which educators dream and talk. Auxiliary personnel can help to make teaching a profession in reality rather than in slogan, because the teacher will, in fact, have time to think, read, plan, talk to colleagues, diagnose, and prescribe.

The articles on aides in this issue of *The National Elementary Principal* will help to trigger the kind of discussion and action needed. We commend the Department of Elementary School Principals for its foresight and leadership.

DON DAVIES

Executive Secretary, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards

Auxiliary School Personnel



THE National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards sees the addition of auxiliary personnel in the schools as one of the most challenging and hopeful advances in modern education. The needs of society require significant changes in our present school organization. The teacher is a skilled professional and as such must be permitted to do a professional level of work. He must be a diagnostician and a guider of learning experiences. He should not waste his time on trivia. The utilization of auxiliary personnel can provide the opportunity for teachers to teach.

Auxiliary school personnel are here; they are not an idle dream; they should not be a source of hidden fears. They are here because they are needed—needed by the professionals and by the children. The NCTEPS is committed to assisting people who are eager to find out more about the subject of auxiliary school personnel.

The following questions and answers are the views of NCTEPS on some of the crucial issues educators must resolve in the selection, training, and assignment of such personnel. The Commission is concerned in this statement with all kinds of aides but particularly with auxiliary personnel who assist teachers in instruction. These are the new people in schools about whom there is apprehension and uncertainty; these are the people who can most help teachers do a better job.

The intention of this statement is to present information that will be useful to educators who will be considering these issues in their own communities.

Reprinted from *Auxiliary School Personnel* with the permission of the publisher, National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards, NEA, 1967. The publication is one of many being prepared for the TEPS Year of the Non-Conference.

Initial Considerations

Who are auxiliary personnel?

Auxiliary school personnel, or teacher aides (we prefer the former term to either teacher aides or paraprofessionals), are people brought into the schools to assist teachers in educating children and youth. The use of auxiliary school personnel is not new; many systems have employed lay readers, library and lunchroom aides, and the like for years, drawing on parents, high school students, and college students for help.

Why are auxiliary personnel needed?

Auxiliary personnel allow teachers to do a better job of teaching, e.g., to individualize instruction. Teachers presently must handle many tasks which do not require professional skill and which infringe on the time they have to devote to teaching and planning. Teachers need time to reflect and more opportunities for professional growth.

What has caused the recent upsurge of interest in and emphasis on the use of auxiliary personnel?

Several social, educational, and economic factors have contributed to a sharp increase in the number of auxiliary personnel employed in schools and have evoked widespread interest in this development. Some of these factors are:

1. The expanding need and demand for school services.
2. New dimensions in education, such as reorganization of the structural patterns in schools, an expanded curriculum, and the concept of differentiated roles for teachers. These include flexible scheduling, cooperative and team teaching, and different approaches to learning, such as large group work, seminar work, and individualized instruction. These new dimensions make teaching a more complex and demanding job.
3. Acute shortages of professionals to meet these needs. The employment of auxiliary personnel can help alleviate these shortages by allowing educators more time for professional duties and permitting greater efficiency in the use of time. Auxiliary personnel would not replace teachers but support them.
4. The availability of federal funds for employing nonprofessionals in education through such sources as the Office of Economic Opportunity and Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. A bill (S. 721) has been introduced

in the 90th Congress to provide federal financial support for teacher aide programs. (See page 40.)

5. A heightened awareness of the special learning needs of all children and youth, but especially of the disadvantaged.
6. The belief that the use of indigenous people as teacher aides might bring about better communication between professionals and pupils of different backgrounds.
7. The plight of persons with less than a college education who are unable to compete in an increasingly automated economy but who could contribute to education and find personal satisfaction in working in schools.¹

What kinds of jobs and responsibilities might auxiliary personnel assume?

The kinds of jobs aides can perform vary greatly and are influenced by grade level, subject, kind of community, educational philosophy, and other factors. A few major job categories are evident and suggest the scope of possible paraprofessional tasks.

Clerical aides enter marks on report cards, compute averages, type and mimeograph stencils, and do other related jobs. *Library aides* assist in processing books and in handling circulation and reference work. *Housekeeping aides* take care of ventilation and lights, clean up after art classes, put up and take down displays, and help young children with their clothing. *Noninstructional supervisors* oversee halls, lunchrooms, and playground activity. *Instructional assistants* help teachers in classrooms, read to youngsters, keep attendance registers, work in laboratories, and prepare instructional materials. Still others take charge of audiovisual and graphic aids and operate and repair equipment.

Other roles for auxiliary personnel might involve the application of *human relations skills* in establishing relationships with parents and community leaders or the utilization of a *special talent* in assisting in the teaching of woodworking, dance, music, or art classes.

This listing is not complete, but it does indicate

1. Adapted from "Auxiliary School Personnel: Their Roles, Training, and Institutionalization." Based on a nationwide study conducted for the U. S. Office of Economic Opportunity. New York: Bank Street College of Education, October 1966.

some possibilities for utilizing auxiliary personnel services and highlights some jobs and levels of responsibility.

Auxiliary personnel should free professionals to execute professional responsibilities. Any hard and fast list of auxiliary duties could create a wrong impression because such assignments should be conditioned by the needs of a given teaching situation.

Who should determine what responsibilities auxiliary personnel should have and what duties they should perform?

The faculties of local schools. Defining the functions of auxiliary personnel should be undertaken at two levels. First, the faculty of each school district or building should determine the general guidelines and policies for the use of aides. Second, each teacher should specify the job and guide his aide in terms of the particular teaching need. A teacher aide should be just that—an aide to the teacher. But decisions at this point should be tentative and open to change until more data have been gathered on the use of auxiliary personnel.

Should all teachers have aides?

Local school faculties must answer this question. It requires a penetrating consideration of present practice and possibilities for differentiating teacher roles. Of course, other groups, such as TEPS, will influence their decisions by providing opinions about teacher and auxiliary personnel roles. Therefore, although final determination must be local, the criteria used in making decisions should be based on the judgments of a variety of professional educators.

Factors which need to be considered include the following: Some teachers prefer to work alone and may not want aides. Should they be forced to accept assistance? When only a limited number of aides are available, how should decisions be made as to which teachers will receive assistance? Should aides be assigned to beginning teachers who might have more difficulty because the whole job is new, or to skilled, experienced teachers who might have an opportunity to acquire new or deeper professional dimensions in teaching when someone takes over routine and nonprofessional duties? Should a teacher's needs and skills help determine the assignment of aides?

Some teachers lack the managerial qualities

necessary for supervising auxiliary personnel and will need careful guidance and assistance in developing these qualities. Others who possess such qualities may uncover, release, and direct the valuable potential of their aides.

Qualifications and Training

What qualifications should auxiliary personnel have?

Since all auxiliary personnel will not have the same skills or serve the same function, their qualifications and salaries should vary. The lunchroom aide, for example, does not need the degree and kind of skills a lay reader needs. A clerical aide might need only a high school education with emphasis on clerical skills, but a graphic artist hired to prepare instructional materials might need two or more years of college. Teachers and others must develop job classifications, and a specific job will dictate the aptitudes needed, the qualifications to be met, and the pay to be received.

It is difficult to specify qualifications until the requirements of particular jobs are determined, and they in turn may be influenced by the manpower pool available. Decisions about qualifications should remain flexible until more is learned about how to use aides.

Might some auxiliary personnel be people who are preparing to teach?

College students in teacher education are one important source of teacher aides. The experience of assisting a teacher can be extremely valuable and may help strengthen the tie between the theory of the college curriculum and the reality of the school classroom. Too, auxiliary programs open to undergraduate students in all college departments might attract some able people to teaching who might otherwise be missed; such programs could also be an avenue to a career in teaching for candidates who have not taken the usual college route to a profession. An auxiliary personnel program could be a route to full-fledged teaching for both college students and adults.

Should people indigenous to a particular environment be among the auxiliary personnel?

Auxiliary personnel indigenous to a community can be assets to its schools in many ways. By bringing a fresh and different perception of children of similar background and the educational

problems peculiar to them, they can help teachers and administrators to better understand a community and its people. This might be true particularly in disadvantaged neighborhoods where some aides have more rapport with and sensitivity to the children and parents than the teachers have. Such an aide might be able to explain education to parents and other citizens in the community who fear or resent it. As effective, well-trained, and skillful people doing important work, such aides might also become models for children, providing them with attainable goals to strive for.

However, no one should be accepted as an aide solely to provide jobs for the poor or unemployed. In all cases the aide should be able to make a contribution to the educational program, whether he is indigenous to a particular subculture or someone brought into the school without special regard for origin, background, or present environment.

How should auxiliary personnel be screened?

A preliminary step in the screening process might be to establish ground rules for selecting people who seem capable of being effective helpers with children. After initial interviews, most of the screening could take place in the training program, with senior teachers assuming major responsibility for selection and job counselors being employed to assist the people about whom there is doubt.

How much and what kind of training should auxiliary personnel have?

No definite decisions can be made now about desirable educational levels of prospective aides. Their training should depend both on the jobs for which they are being prepared and on the educational levels they have attained.

Experience in teacher education should have some value in developing training programs for auxiliary school personnel. For example, the frequent complaint that the relationship between theory and practice in teacher training is inadequate suggests that auxiliary personnel training programs should provide a close tie between real experience and abstract discussions. To avoid creating a gap between the pre-service and in-service programs for aides, parallel programs of training and work might be ideal. Joint responsibility by schools and colleges for planning,

financing, and staffing such programs would be of central importance.

In addition to academic and practical training, consideration should be given to aide training to improve self-concepts.

Any training program for auxiliary personnel should also entail a systematic follow-up, including evaluation, description of the program in progress, interviews with participants, and continuing assistance for teachers and aides. At this time, crystallizing training programs should be avoided in order that the results of evaluation can be used continually to make improvements in them.

Who should be responsible for training auxiliary personnel?

The local school system must bear the major responsibility. Since school staffs, particularly the teachers, will determine what roles aides should have, they should have a major part in their selection and training. When government support programs are available to colleges or other agencies for training auxiliary personnel, the teachers who will have direct supervision over them should be involved.

Preparing teachers to train and use aides may be the best way to initiate widespread employment of auxiliary personnel in effective roles and to overcome the great reluctance of many teachers about working with aides. The question today is not: Are teachers going to have aides? It is: How can aides be selected, trained, and used effectively? Colleges and social welfare agencies should be urged to cooperate in preparing teachers to train and supervise auxiliary personnel. Colleges are especially important here in developing pre-service and in-service teacher education which includes such preparation.

Should additional in-service training and continuing education opportunities be available for auxiliary personnel?

Most aides will benefit from in-service training and support after they begin working in schools. In many cases, informal seminars and the assistance of resource personnel may be all that is necessary to keep aides abreast of new developments which are relevant to their work. A position as an aide should be viewed as a desirable, satisfying, and status-giving terminal occupation for those who have no wish to acquire further education. However, opportunities for promising

personnel to realize their potential must be created for those who do desire further education. Colleges and universities could develop special programs for these people and could give college credit for aide training and classroom experience.

Since auxiliary personnel are in a unique relationship with children and will sometimes have confidential information about students, what can be done to sensitize them to the ethics of the profession?

Much of the information teachers use or share about students and school situations is of a confidential nature. Having and using such information is a professional privilege and prerogative and is guided by high ethical standards.

Since auxiliary personnel will have access to privileged professional information, it will be necessary to help them learn and operate on the basis of the ethics of the teaching profession. Teacher aides should know that a breach of educational ethics is as unacceptable as any other form of malpractice. How ethics for auxiliary personnel can be taught is a question educators will need to experiment with. Exemplary behavior on the part of teachers will certainly be important. But attention to professional ethics must go beyond helping aides learn. There should also be some arrangement for enforcing high standards. Policy and procedures for the protection and discipline of auxiliary personnel need to be established, and methods for enforcement should be clear.

If auxiliary personnel are going to work with children, should they be licensed?

Auxiliary personnel should meet proficiency standards determined by the nature of the jobs they will perform. In most instances, such standards should be formulated and applied at the local level. At the present time, it would be inadvisable for states to issue licenses for auxiliary personnel. Not enough is known about teacher aides and the qualifications they need to decide the basis on which they might be licensed. It would be wise for states to encourage experimentation with different practices and criteria for auxiliary personnel and to let decisions about licensure wait until more evidence is available.

It would also be appropriate for the state education agency to develop general standards for various types of aides. Professional associations

can serve a quality control function by helping to assess the effectiveness of aides, by defining qualifications for aides as related to specific subject areas, and by policing practice to assure that auxiliary personnel are not employed for professional responsibilities.

Current Programs

How many school systems are currently using auxiliary personnel?

There are only estimates available on the number of school systems using auxiliary personnel. One estimate is that 10,000 aides are working in poverty projects across the nation and that within a few years there may be several hundred thousand. One day auxiliary personnel may outnumber teachers.

Haven't many schools traditionally had auxiliary personnel doing some kinds of jobs on a volunteer basis?

Yes. There have been a substantial number of successful volunteer programs. Parents, usually at the elementary school level, have helped in school offices and served as tutors, lunchroom aides, and guides or chaperons on field trips.

The National School Volunteer Program, with headquarters at the Public Education Association, 24 West 40th Street, New York, N. Y. 10018, provides information on implementing volunteer programs and is currently sponsoring such programs in the nation's twenty largest cities.

There is an important place for volunteers in schools, and productive relationships between volunteer and paid aide programs should be worked out. But the auxiliary personnel discussed in this statement are employees, not volunteers.

What are the attitudes and opinions of school principals and teachers toward auxiliary personnel in areas where they are currently working?

In 1965, a study conducted by the New York State Education Department² indicated that 428 of 629 school districts in the state were employing 3,134 teacher aides. Ninety-three per cent of the districts considered their experience with aides favorable. Twenty-six districts were neutral, and

2. University of the State of New York, State Education Department, Bureau of School and Cultural Research. *Survey of Public School Teacher Aides, Fall, 1965*. Albany: the Department, April 1966.

only four expressed unfavorable opinions. Dissenting opinion seemed to appear principally where untrained aides were assigned heavy non-instructional supervisory responsibilities in the lunchroom.

Reissman and Pearl³ cite as a favorable experiment a team-teaching project begun in Pittsburgh in 1960. Twenty mothers were recruited to assist in duplicating teacher prepared material, operating audiovisual equipment, and performing other tasks. The project was so successful that the number of aides was doubled after the first four years.

Practical Aspects

Should auxiliary personnel be full-time or part-time employees?

Employment arrangements should depend upon the needs of the school and the availability of personnel. Traditionally, full-time people have been preferred because they can identify more easily with the school program. However, there are people who have particular skills the school system may need but who may not find it feasible to work full time. Many part-time noninstructional aides, such as typists, have been assets to schools for years. In addition, many wives and mothers, among them high school or college graduates, are available for part-time work. Some of these are former teachers who don't want to teach full time but would like to assist teachers.

When should teachers and auxiliary personnel have an opportunity to evaluate their efforts and develop new plans?

Teachers and auxiliary personnel and other professional-nonprofessional teams must have time to plan and evaluate their work. Evaluation should be frequent, perhaps every day, so that the team will be coordinated and well organized and each member can fully understand and develop his role. The opportunity for teachers and aides to discuss problems and make plans is also essential for success of the auxiliary personnel program. Auxiliary personnel need to have constant consultation with the professionals they are assisting, and teachers will benefit from this opportunity to hear aides' suggestions and to develop

3. Reissman, Frank, and Pearl, Arthur. *New Careers for the Poor*. New York: Free Press, 1965.

new working procedures with them. Teachers and auxiliary personnel who *work* as a team in the classroom must have the opportunity to *plan* as a team. In some schools that are now using auxiliary personnel, group planning periods are regularly scheduled during the school day. They could also be held after school hours, but extra compensation should be given.

Will extensive employment of auxiliary personnel be very expensive?

Employing auxiliary personnel *will* require increased expenditures by local school systems. The cost may be mitigated in some cases by government funds. Federal legislation for additional funds for teacher aides is now being considered.

Improvement in any field often involves more money. The most important question is whether the advantages gained from auxiliary personnel services are worth the additional cost. Allocating funds for auxiliary personnel can help to prevent the waste of time, money, and resources which occurs when professional people who are prepared to teach are prevented from fully developing their potential. Providing teachers with more time for professional activities is an important step toward ensuring that children receive the best education available.

If the number of auxiliary personnel increases, what will be the effect on teachers and the teaching profession?

The effective use of auxiliary personnel could be one of the most significant recent advances in education. As he is released from routine tasks, the teacher can devote more time to teaching and assume a truly professional role. New organizational patterns in the schools probably will evolve, and differentiated roles for teachers and teacher aides will develop. It is still too early to predict the exact nature of these patterns; for example, one obvious trend is differentiation of roles for career or master teachers, regular teachers, beginning teachers, assistant teachers, and different kinds of aides.

The use of auxiliary personnel also will affect teacher education programs. Being an aide may become a regular part of preparing to teach and should help students to learn how to work with aides as well as give them experience in the classroom. In such situations, colleges would need to

work closely with schools, and parallel programs of work and study could be evolved.

Cautions

What is to prevent the use of auxiliary personnel from becoming a cheaper way to man the classroom?

It is possible that on some occasions, aides will be used instead of teachers in order to save money. It will probably not happen often, but it would be foolish to ignore the possibility of its happening sometime. Teachers, administrators, parents, school board members, and all others concerned with education must see that this does not happen. One safeguard against the exploitation of teacher aides is to have the functions of auxiliary personnel largely determined by teachers. It should be the responsibility of educators to see to it that teacher aides are not allowed to assume the professional duties of the teacher. Since aides will be working directly with them, teachers should share the responsibility of seeing that they fulfill their proper functions.

Is it possible that, by using the services of auxiliary personnel, teachers might become more remote from the children—less involved in their problems and their lives?

This is possible, and teachers will have to make a conscious effort to see that it does not happen. Teachers who have aides will have the opportunity to gain increased insight as they have more time to study individual students. They also will benefit from hearing the opinions of the aides.

Programs of Action

What can teachers and administrators do to get ready for auxiliary personnel?

Teachers and administrators, individually and in faculty groups, should begin to assess the various tasks that teachers perform. They should study and determine professional and nonprofessional skills. They should be willing to accept help in performing lower-level duties. They should visit schools where auxiliary personnel are employed to see the possibilities for their service and obtain reactions of teachers, administrators, aides, and students in those schools. They should be willing to experiment with new approaches to the educational process in their own schools to find the most effective uses of auxiliary personnel.

What should be the role of the state department of education?

Many auxiliary personnel have come into the schools by virtue of federal legislation. Most of the legislative acts charge the state department of education with some responsibility. The state department should establish machinery for devising guidelines for school districts in setting up reasonable proficiency requirements. A broad cross-section of the profession should be involved in formulating the guidelines and setting requirements. They should consider and develop methods of protecting auxiliary personnel from exploitation as well as protecting teachers and children. And not only must there be leeway for experimentation, but it should be encouraged.

Until more information about aides is compiled, state departments should be wary of making official pronouncements and establishing rigid criteria.

What can the colleges do?

Colleges and universities can begin considering programs to help teachers learn how to train auxiliary personnel. They also can consider and develop ways in which future teachers might spend a semester or a year in a paid auxiliary position as part of their professional preparation. This, of course, would not overlap or replace student teaching. Most important, the institutions can provide internships and student teaching in schools which employ auxiliary personnel.

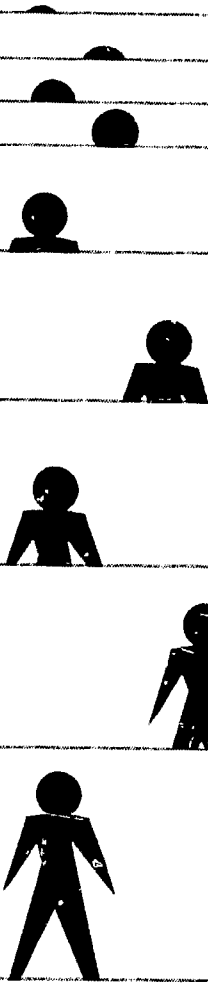
Colleges, universities, and junior colleges can also consider developing programs for the direct training of auxiliary personnel.

What can interested citizens do?

Board members, citizen groups, and individuals can become informed about the issues, problems, and advantages involved in hiring auxiliary personnel. They can visit other schools to see how aides are now being used. They can encourage teachers and administrators to join them in these activities and discuss with them the ways in which auxiliary personnel can assist in the vital job of education.

What can local education associations do?

Professional organizations can become informed about the issues involved in selecting, training, and assigning auxiliary personnel and bring them to the attention of the community.



School Volunteers:

A new challenge

RUTH PERLMAN KLEBANER

SCHOOL volunteers are a potential resource to be used by administrators and teachers in educating children. How this resource can best be utilized is not yet entirely clear. New concepts are emerging about functions which are appropriate for volunteers, and an increasing number of carefully planned programs are now in operation. This article discusses some basic considerations in establishing school volunteer programs, and offers suggestions for helping teachers to use volunteers in appropriate ways.

School volunteers are civic-minded citizens dedicated to the ideal of service. They believe in public education, and they hope to contribute to the quality of community living through their gift of service. Usually women, they range from teenagers to grandmothers and from grade-school graduates to Ph.D's. Often they are recruited by a women's club, a community agency, or a citizen's group. They are screened for health, emotional stability, and general suitability in a school situation. Frequently they are given some basic orientation prior to their assignment to a school. Many

volunteers are mothers and many of them have had experience as volunteers in community projects involving a wide variety of services. They bring enthusiasm and dedication of such power that they are able to juggle busy schedules to give a full day or morning each week for an entire school year.

The self-image of the volunteer is usually that of someone helping children, not of someone doing the things teachers do not like to do. Chances are, too, that school volunteers will worry about doing the "wrong" thing in the classroom and will prefer doing what they can do well and appropriately. They expect teachers to personify the ideal of truly professional competence—an ideal which they may learn to emulate in some small part.

A rationale for using school volunteers is essen-

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tial to effective use of the potential contributions of this auxiliary labor force. Before deciding to bring volunteers into the school program, each school or school system needs to give serious consideration to some basic questions.

Do we want to use school volunteers? If the answer is "yes," this implies that teachers and administrators are ready to invest the time needed for guidance of untrained, unsalaried citizens who signify an interest in helping children. It implies the availability of one or more qualified persons who can work with the volunteer program, someone who can "trouble-shoot," assign, re-assign, and keep necessary records. It implies a commitment on the part of teachers to identify tasks which volunteers can perform and to help volunteers perform such tasks in an educationally sound fashion.

Finally, it implies a willingness on the part of the professional staff—already busy with student observers, student teachers, student interns, and teacher aides—to accept volunteers in a warm and positive fashion as part of the total team and to include them in a variety of staff activities. It is doubtful that a school volunteer program will enrich a school unless it is accepted with a full understanding of the importance of these implications. A "program" in which unsupervised, unguided, ungreeted volunteers magically appear at stated periods is usually one in which they soon disappear as well, frequently as a result of some unpleasant incident.

What are the needs of our learners? Can volunteers help meet these needs? If so, how? If a remedial reading program is needed, volunteers are not the answer; highly competent specialists must come first. But if the specialists see ways of using volunteers within their program, then it is time to invite them to participate.

In deciding what volunteers can do and what they should not do, the professional staff must remember that volunteers are usually professionally untrained, that they are unsalaried, and that they can ordinarily be relied upon for the full academic year. Their sincere willingness to help probably marks volunteers as above-average human beings with some skill or training which can be put to good use. It is not practical to assign tasks that will call for a great deal of special training; volunteers come to help, not to drain the time of busy teachers. There are also some

legal problems to be resolved in assigning use patterns for volunteers.

Many programs now in existence have brought volunteers into pre-kindergarten groups. A few illustrations may be drawn from volunteer utilization patterns to illustrate some of the uses and misuses of such personnel. In one four-year-old group, Mrs. Cortez was asked to read to individual children if they asked her to do so. Some children came to Mrs. Cortez, became friends with her, and had many excellent and much needed experiences in listening and speaking. In another room, Mrs. Leed was asked to read to a whole group of children each day while the teacher set out materials for a later period. In the process, she had to make decisions about concept formation, answer questions which should have been cues for teaching, and contend with four-year-old differentials in attention span—and fighting. Unprepared for such problems, Mrs. Leed lost confidence in herself, the teacher decided that the volunteer was of no help, and Mrs. Leed left the school—never to return.

In another situation, Mrs. Jones was put in charge of painting. She spent the whole day cleaning, mopping, washing, and passing judgment on the children's use of brush, color, and line. She was happy and the teacher did not worry about the painting corner, but the children were inhibited from doing the type of experimentation which they might have done.

It takes time and skill to identify the tasks appropriate for volunteers, to screen and assign applicants, and to determine the limitations to be placed upon their activities. Once a school has identified the areas in which volunteer aid may be valuable, it should communicate its needs to the recruiting agencies as guidance for good assignments of available personnel.

It should be noted that an analysis of the functions and problems of a school may reveal the need only for additional professional staff and for paid aides to do clerical or technical jobs.

How can administrators and teachers work effectively with volunteers? If a school or school system has given careful consideration to the questions of whether volunteers are really needed and where and how they are to be used, their arrival on the school scene should improve the quality of education. If purposes are well defined, administrators should have little difficulty in assign-

ing volunteers and teachers will not greet them with a resigned, "Oh yes, my volunteer; now what should I do with you?"

Channels of communication must exist between each school and the assigning agency so that problems of teacher-volunteer and administrator-volunteer can be worked out and so that agencies can provide additional orientation as school personnel identify areas of concern. Conversely, assigning agencies should have the kinds of relationships with schools which enable them to raise and resolve issues which trouble volunteers. Some form of evaluation must be built into the program in order to determine whether volunteers are really helping the school and whether administrators and teachers feel that their contributions are worth the time and effort required to orient, assign, supervise, and evaluate their work. These procedures give school staffs direction for optimal use of school volunteers.

As the number of non-teaching personnel in schools increases, teachers will need more and more help in knowing who is who and what his relationship is toward each one. I was visiting a school recently when a dignified gentleman approached me and asked my identity. When I told him that I was the supervisor of student teachers he wanted to know who they were. After it was established that we all were from the college, he looked apologetic. "I can't tell nobody apart from nobody," said he. "I worked as a bus driver until I retired five years ago and now I work as a school aide. But the school is so full of people running up and down, I just can't tell who is who and who's got business here. But you look all right." With this endorsement to cheer me, and knowing exactly how he felt, I rushed down the hall to my next classroom visit. As I watched the student teacher, I wondered whether we at the college should not be doing more to prepare her to enrich her teaching through the use of specially assigned personnel.

Most teachers know that college students come to observe their classes and take copious notes. They also become accustomed to student teachers who start by taking notes and end up by carrying through ambitious teaching projects. They know that these students come for a period in the fall, reappear in the spring, and usually have a host of competing interests which make their tenure somewhat uncertain. Such students usually have col-

lege supervisors who give their work some direction and consult with cooperating teachers.

But what about the volunteer? She comes more to give than to learn. She can know only what the teacher shows her. She can draw upon her life experience and her education, but she probably has no special training to prepare her for work in a classroom. Her age, her questions, and her tendency to comment on what she sees may intimidate young teachers who are still testing their own powers. In addition, there may be many volunteers to cope with in a classroom, either because of multiple assignments or because each one of five volunteers comes on a different day of the week. It takes careful planning to keep track of so many different people.

How, then, can teachers learn to make good use of volunteers? First of all, teachers need to understand the "nature" of volunteers. An agency representative may be asked to describe the volunteers—what kinds of backgrounds they have, why they want to work in the schools. Teachers should have an opportunity to raise questions to clarify their understanding.

The next step is to explain to teachers the specificity which is needed in giving directions. It is not enough to smile at a volunteer and ask: "How would you like to supervise the housekeeping corner?" The volunteer may never have heard of a housekeeping corner. She will need to know which rules to enforce, when to enter play and when to stay out, how to set up, how to direct clean-up, and so on. It may be helpful to give teachers experience in drawing up a job specification sheet for tasks to be assigned volunteers. Such a sheet, used with different volunteers on successive days, would make volunteers familiar with the teacher's philosophy and purpose.

The next step in training should be to acquaint teachers with optimal patterns of volunteer use and teacher-volunteer relations. Tape recordings developed by schools and recruiting agencies can describe and discuss good situations. Problems and negative situations should also be considered. This can be done through role playing and by using panels of volunteers or teachers who are questioned by skilled discussion leaders. Such material, put on tape without identification of volunteers or schools, can be very helpful indeed.

Once teachers are sensitive to the kinds of people who volunteer, how they can best be

directed and how problems can be handled, they will be ready to develop guidelines for working with volunteers and to begin training sessions. Some training sessions with volunteers might be held during the lunch period. Throughout the school year, perhaps at six-week intervals, teacher-volunteer luncheons might be scheduled to strengthen relationships and allow for free discussion. It is valuable for volunteers to know what teachers are up against in trying to meet their many in- and out-of-class responsibilities and in making effective use of volunteer help. But sessions dealing with negative aspects of volunteer help should be limited to teacher participation so that teachers can raise problems without fear of intimidating or antagonizing school volunteers.

A good training program does not have to be complicated or expensive. It represents an investment of good will, a few lunch periods, and

the time of a good coordinator. Done well, it will pay great dividends in making it possible for schools to enrich their instructional programs through the effective use of well-placed, well-directed school volunteers. New insight and knowledge will develop about this exciting and promising new dimension in American education as school volunteer programs expand, as more federal funds make it possible to do the kind of work now being done by the Public Education Association's National Volunteer Program, as more schools gain experience in maximizing efforts of volunteers, and as more orientation materials for both volunteers and teachers are developed, revised, and redeveloped. Citizen volunteers can be of real help to the educational program of the schools. The understanding they develop will enable them to make the kind of decisions that are necessary to advance public education.

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Substitute Training at Belmont

PEARL C. BRACKETT

CYNTHIA looked up at her teacher as she came into the classroom with the line and said, "You can't guess what I brought for you this morning!" The teacher, Mrs. Beatrice Brown, smiled at her and said, "Let me think. Don't tell me! Just let me think!" Meanwhile the line was backing up and milling around the teacher and Cynthia. They knew! They had been in line with Cynthia in the school yard before the bell rang. They knew! She had told everyone within earshot.

Just as the teacher bent down to give her first guess, Cynthia let the cat out of the bag—literally. Cynthia had brought a fluffy, three-week-old kitten to school. Mrs. Brown cuddled the kitten and the children were delighted. She *liked* it! They hurried, then, to put their coats in their lockers and get back in the room to see what would happen today. This promised to be another exciting day in Beatrice Brown's second grade classroom.

Beatrice Brown "entered" Belmont Elementary School when it opened in September 1962. She was a parent of a fifth grade boy. Every month Gonzia, her son, brought home a calendar of the plans for the next month at his school. This calendar was posted in the kitchen and the whole family would check off the things they could take part in during the month. Every month he brought home a school "newspaper," a one-page mimeo-

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THE NATIONAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL



graphed sheet with easy-to-read bits of news about children, parents, and programs in and out of the school. Beatrice began to "belong" at Belmont.

One of the early newspapers listed and described *jobs* that needed doing by parents. Some required more skill than others; some were for day-time service; others for evening help. People were needed to help with clerical duties, to work with the school nurse, to help in the cafeteria. But no pay—that is in cash. There really was pay for all who served. First, there was the big "pay" received when children began taking pride in having their mother or father or some other relative "help" in school. Second, there was the "pay" carried home by the parent as she or he learned to do new things. Third, there was the "pay" gained from contact with children and teachers who need them and from contact with other parents who likewise were helping.

This was the beginning of Beatrice's work in the school. After helping in many projects, she learned through the "newspaper" of a program called "Substitute Training." This program was announced as one which could help parents help their children at home. It was one which would give any interested person some insight into the school program and some understanding of ways to help a teacher. It was a program which would help a person, who had at least high school education, learn the basics of "substituting" in an elementary school classroom. This program was directed by the principal,* and the "class" met for two hours every other Friday.

Before describing the program, it might be well to point out that in the City of Baltimore there is no list of certified teachers on call as substitutes. Each principal is responsible for somehow securing substitute teachers when they are needed. In a time of acute teacher shortage—and this is such a time—certification is not required of a substitute. The substitute training program at Belmont was devised to identify potential substitutes in the neighborhood and to provide appropriate training and experience—right in the school setting. Currently, some parents from other parts of the city are participating in the training program.

The program began in January 1963 and is now in its fourth year. At the very beginning, the participants are made aware of the fact that membership in this class does not assure one of getting substitute work. As a matter of fact, some persons who have taken the training have discovered reasons why they should not teach. Others have learned that they need more education and have enrolled in night school in order to equip themselves. Still others have discovered ways in which they can help their own children, and a few have gone on into substitute work. Some people have taken the course each year it has been offered.

* The principal had a friend who was a vice-principal in a school in the inner city. She wanted to help her parents, too, and it was *her* idea to provide the substitute training. She shared all of her material with the principal of Belmont.

They say they like to "get out in the mornings and they enjoy the contacts."

Beatrice really wanted to help the teachers, and she thought she might like to teach. She did not know the first thing about teaching except what she gained from helping Gonzia with his homework. She had graduated from high school but had no further formal education. You can imagine the eagerness and mixed emotions with which she answered this "announcement" in the school newspaper. She and 30 other parents and friends in the community came to the first session. Each person brought a notebook and pencil to class.

The class was held on the Fridays on which teachers were paid. Most teachers come to school on paydays, and no member of the class was likely to be called for duty on this day. (Remember that in Baltimore it is acceptable for a person to be called for substitute work without the training which Belmont was providing.) The group met from 9:15 a.m. to 11:15 a.m., and this is the agenda for the six-session program:

First Session

Tour of the building

Get acquainted period

Orientation to the program (an overview by the principal)

Study of attendance records used in public schools

Demonstration of equipment used by a classroom teacher (filmstrip projector, record player, overhead projector, etc.). Members formed small groups so each could learn to operate equipment.

Note: The principal and vice-principal share in this meeting. Homework is given when the progress and ability of the group seem to warrant it. Attendance is taken at every meeting. Coffee is served.

Second Session

Review of study of attendance data and general progress of last session

Discussion of plans for a "first day" in any classroom

"Philosophy of Education in Baltimore Public Schools"—speech by Assistant Superintendent of Elementary Education (emphasis on ethics and professional attitude)

Discussion of common problems faced by a substitute teacher

Third Session

Review of attendance data and general planning as discussed at earlier sessions

Description of basic activities which may be directed by a substitute in a classroom where the teacher did not leave a plan

"Some Basic Essentials for Being a Successful Substitute"—speech by a retired principal

Personnel cards are made by members of the class and given to the principal. The cards contain confidential information and will be used by the principal in private conferences with the members in counseling them about their work.

Fourth Session

Review of work of earlier sessions

Demonstration of classroom materials such as maps, books, slides, globes, art supplies, arithmetic materials, physical education materials which are suitable for use at lunch hour as well as during special periods of physical education; records, etc.

"Personnel Policies and Procedures a Substitute Should Know"—speech by the Director of Personnel

Discussion of plans for visiting in classrooms in the building

Sign up for classroom visits (members work in pairs)

Fifth Session

Review of program to date

Discussion of plans and philosophy for observation and work in classrooms in the school

Planning and study of techniques for grouping in reading and other curricular areas

"Some Hints I Found Most Useful When I Was a Substitute"—speech by a former substitute teacher, now a provisional teacher in Belmont

Plans for closing session with a luncheon

Examination of materials made by members as part of "first-aid kit for substitutes"

Note: Between the fifth and sixth sessions there will be two dates set for intervisitation. Members will observe and teach in grades of their choice. This is the "experience approach to the program."

Sixth Session

Review of programs to date

Discussion of observation and teaching experience

Reports from persons who visited as well as from those in whose rooms the enrollees observed and taught

Distribution of some teaching materials
Report of luncheon committee

Luncheon Meeting

Guests at the luncheon will be the speakers who came to the sessions during the training program. The classroom teachers who had trainees observe or teach in their rooms will also be guests.

Food will be prepared and served by members of the group. The program will be a light and entertaining one planned by the class. The luncheon will be held at school at 12 Noon.

When you look at the list of people who were guest speakers in this program you will see that retired principals were invited to talk about ethics and other topics dear to their hearts. The Director of Personnel was invited and spoke on school board policies and rules. The Assistant Superintendent of Elementary Education spoke on the role of teachers and the real service and responsibility of any who tried to "substitute for them." Throughout the program, it was emphasized that participation did not mean or guarantee work as a substitute. The teachers on the faculty at Belmont were intensely interested in the program and they helped, too. They were not required to participate but many chose to do so. These teachers invited the trainees to come into their classrooms to observe and to participate in their program. They allowed the trainees to plan an activity with the children and to visit for a half day. It was rewarding to see that many of the participants planned to come back to the classrooms on other occasions. In some instances they became real helpers to the teachers while they themselves learned more about working with children.

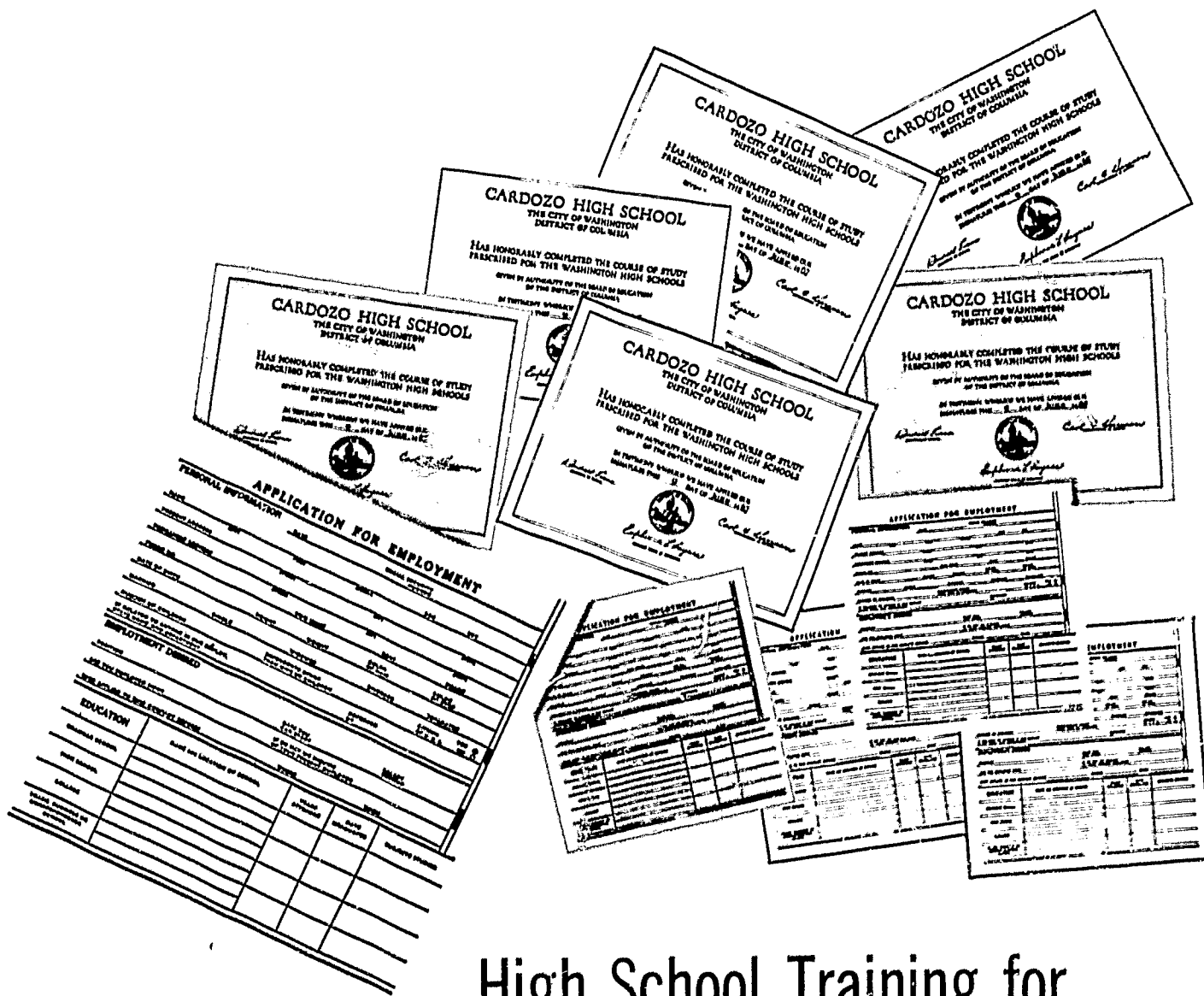
As mentioned earlier, substitutes who are trained in this manner are acceptable in the public schools of Baltimore. Our acute teacher shortage is the reason this particular plan was devised. Steps are taken to insure maximum professional help for these persons, however. Such topics as ethics, correct dress for work, and the correct use of English are stressed.

On many occasions persons who enrolled in the substitute training class have discovered that they were not ready to work as teachers. They recog-

nized handicaps they had in English or in other areas. This discovery led to the formation of classes at the school for adult education. On Monday and Tuesday nights, parents and community adults and their children of ages 8 to 18 attend classes in "Newer Mathematics" or "Improving Your Reading." These classes are taught by supervisors or specialists. There is no fee; there is no credit system. But there are big values when you see the ways in which members of the class improve in their ability to understand the school program and become less self-conscious in expressing their needs in learning.

No, these trainees are not certified. But they have qualifications which we hope *all* of our certified people have. They have a deep hunger for learning. They are dependable. They study and are eager to learn and to "try." Some have real ability to get along with others and to interest, and thereby guide, children. Others do not have this ability and are unable to work independently with children. Some of them have been used as aides. Working in this program is like panning for gold. You can pan for years and find very little gold. Then again, you may be lucky and strike pure gold—a Beatrice.

We can now finish our story about Beatrice who enrolled in this class in 1963. She has since taken two programs of study at Morgan State College Summer School. She has had two years at a child growth and development workshop. She has been a per diem teacher at Belmont for the past two and a half years, and she is highly respected as a teacher—by parents, by teachers, and by children. The faculty and the children recognize that special something she has which makes her a sought-after member of our school family. She has been helped by every person who works in our school: the speech therapist, the supervisor, the teachers at her grade level—because *she helps herself*. She knows she is working on a day-to-day basis. She knows that when our teacher shortage eases and we can meet our needs with fully qualified people, she will be released. But she also knows that if she uses every moment she can to increase her qualifications, she may, by that time, be able to meet the "requirements." We are keeping our fingers crossed. We want her to stay at Belmont. And we want to find more Beatrices among the genuinely interested people who join our substitute training program each year.



High School Training for New Careers in Human Services

WILLIAM H. DENHAM • EUNICE SHATZ • NAOMI S. FELSENFELD • JACOB R. FISHMAN

THIS is an interim report of an experimental demonstration program focused on educating and training high school students from the inner-city ghetto in Washington, D. C., for employment and careers in community services.

The Institute for Youth Studies of Howard University, and the D. C. Department of Public

Health, in collaboration with Cardozo High School's Cardozo Project in Urban Teaching,* is operating a pilot project which is attempting to test the applicability of the New Careers training model on a group of 30 seniors in Cardozo High School. This high school is situated in the target area of the District's anti-poverty program area.

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* The Cardozo Project in Urban Teaching (CPUT) is a program designed to train and equip as Teacher Interns, returning Peace Corps volunteers for service in urban ghetto schools. It is now in the third year of operation, as a result of funds provided by the Office of Economic Opportunity under Title II of the Economic Opportunity Act. CPUT operates within the framework of the Model School Division, the innovative arm of the D. C. Public School System.

During the past three years, through the New Careers Training Project (NCTP), approximately 150 young people were trained for a wide range of paraprofessional jobs, including pre-school aides, teacher aides, day care aides, and counseling aides. A majority of these 150 young people were school dropouts, unemployed, underemployed, undereducated, delinquent, or delinquent prone. They were recruited from the ghetto sections of Washington, particularly the Cardozo Area of the local anti-poverty program.

To our knowledge, this attempt to introduce the New Careers approach into an academic high school program is a pioneer effort in public education.

The project is an experimental effort geared to developing an academic curriculum that is integrated with a program of work-training in the human services—a program which is relevant and functional for contemporary social and occupational needs of youth, particularly the disadvantaged. Specifically, the New Careers Training Project is designed to realize the following broad objectives:

1. To develop in a group of educationally and socially handicapped high school seniors the motivation for learning and achievement as evidenced in their capacity to graduate with diplomas in June 1967;

2. To develop flexibility of attitude, role, and viewpoint in these youth so that they will not be artificially or rigidly confined to a specific job but, with additional training, can transfer from one human service position to another;

3. To teach specialized skills essential for functioning in a paraprofessional role in the education and health fields;

4. To develop in socially deprived youth the necessary motivation, identity, values, and capabilities for making the best use of the training offered for entering the world of work and beginning a potential career in human and community services;

5. To enable these youths to acquire basic interpersonal skills, attitudes, and knowledge common to all human service occupations;

6. To develop field work training and specific job opportunities for these students which will insure them meaningful work immediately upon graduation.

The plan was to develop a curriculum for high school seniors which would integrate the humanities and the physical and social sciences into a unified program of work-study that would be free from the artificial subject divisions of a traditional high school program. Trainees were encouraged to make critical suggestions about the academic component and to share in its planning as much as possible.

Units were constructed on broad themes that relate to the day-to-day experiences of the job training. The concept of community was a likely subject for one such unit. This topic can involve the aides in a range of activities and concerns—from a careful study of their own neighborhood and the City of Washington to a study of the history of urban development and the projection of an ideal community. Many traditional academic subjects can be integrated into such a unit—sociology, history, geography, literature, composition, civics, psychology, government, and public health.

Twenty-eight trainees—young people who had continually encountered difficulties in school, and who were on the verge, perhaps, of dropping out—were selected. In this group there were many who had serious deficiencies in reading, writing, and arithmetic skills; all were performing below grade level in some area. Remediation, therefore, was necessary, but the plan was to make it a part of the whole academic program, rather than treat it as a separate, unrelated, and compulsory appendage. The assumption was made that the trainees would be able to see fairly quickly that academic deficits were hindering their performance on the job. A further assumption was that they would then express a desire to remove these deficits, and the necessary remediation procedures could become an integral part of the academic program.

Student trainees spend approximately one-half day in an on-the-job training station. The remaining half day is spent in the academic portion of the program. Nineteen of the field placements are in the school system at the elementary school level. In these stations, students receive training to equip them for roles as teacher aides. Supervision is provided by the teachers in whose classes the trainees are assigned.

The remaining nine placements are in the health area. In a medical or health setting, trainees re-

ceive on-the-job instruction and experience to prepare them for roles as health aides. Such settings give experience in working under the supervision of physicians and nurses.

Specialty teaching and curriculum development in the health area are supplied by a public health nurse and in the school area by a former public school teacher.

From the beginning of the program a major task of job development has been to reach agreements with school and health agencies on the following: 1) a stated definition of a viable job to which training can be geared; 2) formal commitments by the agency to employ the trainee at a specific grade and salary for at least one year following graduation; 3) development of a job classification system to insure lateral and vertical occupational mobility of the aides in accordance with their capacities and abilities.

An additional feature of the project consists of the reimbursement of trainees for the work training as part of the program. Students receive work experience stipends of \$1.25 per hour in the Neighborhood Youth Corps program under Title I of the Economic Opportunity Act. The economic incentive may well prove to be of major use in motivating disadvantaged high school youth to continue their education.

The Core Group is another component of the project. It is essentially a group counseling process which serves a variety of purposes:

1. It encourages aides to support each other in the development of a common identity as nonprofessionals in human service fields;
2. It promotes the development of positive attitudes and behavior with reference to their work roles;
3. It accelerates skill learning in interpersonal relationships and communications;
4. It provides feedback to project staff about academic curriculum and job experience;
5. It serves as a vehicle through which a variety of problems—both job-related and personal—can be discussed;
6. It serves as an arena for the discussion of more general topics of interest—such as politics, birth control, consumer education, etc.

The Core Group leaders are the classroom teachers. In this connection, we are especially interested in examining the nature and extent to

which the high school teacher could be utilized in a new role—that of educator and group counselor—with a socially and economically deprived student population.

The rest of this article is devoted to presenting the highlights of a mid-year evaluation feedback on three areas:

1. The nature of the impact of this type of experimental training on the educational, social, and occupational aspirations of disadvantaged high school youth in accordance with project goals;
2. Description and analysis of program components and content inputs used in this experiment in terms of their utility in the learning process;
3. The problems and possibilities involved in developing and adapting a New Careers training model for more general use in the public high school system.

Impact of the Program

Out of the 28 students who were enrolled in the program, 25 are still engaged in school and work. Included in this group is one student who had dropped out of school at the end of the junior year and who, after being contacted by our staff, returned to complete his senior year in this program. One student who was pregnant and two others who were excessively absent have been transferred into other education programs. In the psycho-social area, mid-year evaluations by supervising teachers and nurses indicate that a majority of the students have shown substantial growth in job performance in terms of relationships with pupils or patients, in ability to accept criticism, and in preparation of materials and completion of assigned duties. Some improvement has taken place in regard to work habits such as attendance, punctuality, initiative, and the ability to ask questions related to the work situation. The area of least growth is that of attendance and punctuality. However, in response to staff concern, the students have devised rules and regulations regarding their attendance, and there has been a significant reduction in absences as compared with previous school records of the group.

While the aspirations of the student group were high at the outset, they tended to be unrealistic. Many indicated their desire to be high-level professionals in law, health, or engineering. At present, the students are more realistic about their

occupational goals. Five students have expressed their intention of going on to further education in health-related positions such as medical secretary and medical technician. One student has taken and passed the examination for further education leading to the Licensed Practical Nurse. Three students have taken, or will take, the entrance examination at District of Columbia Teachers College leading to education for teaching careers. Four others plan for further education on the college level in some area of human service. All of the students give evidence of strong motivation for work, either as health and teacher aides or in terms of actively participating in interviews with the representatives who come to the school to recruit employees from the senior class.

The Program Components

The Core Group process provided the leader with new insights into student learning needs, styles, and interests. For example, the students rejected academic content material which was heavily focused on poverty and the Negro and requested materials that related to broader issues which were the concern of all people. This was seen as a need to link themselves with the larger society and not remain prisoners of the ghetto. The feedback from the students then served as a kind of quality control for modification of curriculum. Complaints were voiced about so much material being in ditto or mimeograph form. The students seemed to feel that this represented a lower status of learning in comparison with book materials presented in the traditional curriculum. More books were subsequently provided from which selected portions were used.

The group served as a vehicle for the students through which to develop a greater awareness of their own behavior and how it could prevent them from realizing their own occupational goals. Illustrative of this process is a situation in which a student was absent from work frequently. The group members pointed out to her that her job was in jeopardy and discussed her absences with her whenever they occurred.

The group provided a medium to increase skills in communication as its members learned to participate in an exchange of ideas. At one session they borrowed a tape recorder in order to practice how to listen to others and to contribute their ideas so that they could be heard.

It was hoped that a common identity as human service workers would develop in the program through close association, common occupational situations, and special status in their class. While the staff felt that their status was different and special in a positive sense, the students seemed to feel that it was negative. They have banded together for mutual support, and some see each other after school, but it is not possible at this point to say that a new reference group has emerged.

Resistance to the Core component was noted in student dissatisfaction about the extra time now involved in the school day. Twice a week the students remain until 4:30 to participate in the Core Group. Since this means less time for extracurricular activities as well as an added demand on the ego, we anticipate that some dissatisfaction will continue, although the complaints have stopped.

In addition to the added length of the school day, there is considerable confusion and suspicion as to the real purpose of the group. Some consider it another "course," but one with ambiguous content and no credit. Students have maintained a deep sense of privacy and are patently unwilling to discuss personal problems—even when the problems relate to the job. They tend to be distrustful of the leader and of each other and do not want to expose themselves too deeply—in fear, perhaps, of how their problems might be perceived by others, or in fear that they might be misunderstood or ridiculed or that the group might not be interested.

An additional variable is the role of the leader who represents an authority figure as well as a benign group counselor. And a final factor to be considered is the inexperience and newness of the teacher to the role. This has resulted at times in inconsistency of leadership—ranging from authoritatively directive to widely permissive.

The Academic Curriculum has been the most complex and challenging of the components in terms of its development and implementation. This is the result of the following factors:

1. Competition with the on-the-job training and the specialty training components. On-the-job training not only offered the attraction of monetary reward but also provided work activity. Since most of the students are activity-oriented, the work activity is particularly important as an incentive for program involvement. Furthermore, the spe-

cialty training was able to provide them with the guidance and tools for performing on the job. Consequently, there were days when they cut academic classes but showed up for work and specialty training.

2. The cumulative resistance of a disadvantaged, marginal group of learners to an academic curriculum. Given the fact that academic learning had been an area of minimal reward to students who were assigned to the lowest tracks in the school system up to their senior year, it seems naive to expect any major change in motivation on the basis of several months of exposure to a potentially more rewarding but unfamiliar learning experience.

3. The unique structural character of the academic component—that is, a curriculum organized in units of learning instead of subject divisions, and the degree of variation of curriculum content from traditional material. The students were heard to ask: “When are we going to get English or Social Studies?” “Are we really going to get credit for this stuff?” “Will this really count toward graduation?” It was not until the first marking period that some of these anxieties began to fade.

4. Uncertainty of staff because of the untested nature of the academic input. To an extent, the anxieties of the students were echoed by the staff. Every staff member feels a particular and personal responsibility for the students in the program. Because the materials and approach were experimental and the students’ response was not enthusiastic, the staff became highly critical of itself—and at times defensive.

The Remedial Component is a subdivision of the academic and was designed to provide remedial work for those students who needed it to acquire generic skills necessary for performing in a work situation. The principal goals were:

1. To remedy specific individual weaknesses in the basic skill areas of reading, writing, and arithmetic;

2. To reinforce their knowledge of spelling and punctuation and of correct English usage—both written and spoken;

3. To prepare the students for Civil Service and college entrance examinations in order to further their chances for jobs with a future as opposed to dead-end jobs;

4. To teach job-related skills not covered in the

specialty curriculum. For example: taking and relaying telephone messages; requisitioning and inventory-taking; filling in forms such as Form 57, income tax, time sheets; and reading reports, messages, and newspapers.

Movement in this component has tended to be relatively limited as it has been in relationship to the total academic element. At this stage in the project, we seem to have brought the students to the point where they are ready to use remedial help. For example, they are now requesting assistance in preparing for classroom and Civil Service exams and in applying for post high school educational opportunities.

Specialty Training Component is designed to provide training in specific skills unique to the job situations in which the students have been assigned. The primary aim of such training is to develop the student into a competent employee, proficient in the skills and knowledge concerning the policies and practices of his employer so that he can be successful on the job.

In planning lessons and establishing goals the teacher aide specialty instructor used the following as her primary guide: suggestions from the cooperating teachers, the official job descriptions for teacher aides as outlined by the D. C. school system, and suggestions from the students as needs revealed themselves in their job placements. These took the form of training in specific behavior-related skills such as measuring (use of rulers, knowledge of feet and inches), learning to use a library to search for materials, setting up and operating audiovisual aid equipment. The conceptual task areas were oriented to such items as learning to use judgment in selecting appropriate games for different grade levels, selecting pictures to illustrate units of learning, and isolating a problem or a goal as in selecting a subject for a bulletin board.

An additional input of health specialty skills was included at a point when it appeared that teacher aide jobs might not materialize, while, conversely, the market for health aide jobs seemed more promising. In making this shift it was discovered serendipitously that some of the skills previously taught to the teacher aide trainees could enhance the job performance of the health aides—for example, use of audiovisual equipment and structuring of graphs and charts.

The goal model for the health aide component

was essentially the same as for the teacher aide specialty, but it was oriented to the specific tasks in a health aide role. Examples of curriculum areas covered include:

1. Acquisition of skills in general nursing care of patients with specific diseases;
2. Ability to begin to differentiate between normal and abnormal behavior and between imaginary and genuine symptoms by becoming an observant worker and a good listener;
3. Ability to cope with a variety of problems in the home, school, and clinic settings, and to recognize one's own limitations;
4. Knowledge of where and how to seek professional guidance.

The curriculum for the specialty class was adapted from manuals on nursing techniques and those used in the D. C. Department of Public Health. The involvement of the students in specialty sessions was directly proportionate to their expectations of how secure or tenuous the job prospects actually were. In general, students showed interest in skills which could be put to use immediately on the job—that is, ideas for creative displays, methods of operating duplicating machines, operation of audiovisual equipment, and songs and games appropriate for classroom use.

The On-the-Job Training component was essential to the program plan because it 1) provided a milieu in which the student could test out and apply the knowledge and skills he was acquiring in the academic and skills training areas; 2) provided a real experience with the world of work so that problems encountered could then be fed back and dealt with in the Core Group and specialty classes; 3) was a way in which students could earn while still in school; 4) provided a tangible rationale for learning, in that it was not learning in the abstract but would prepare them for the next major phase of their psycho-social development, namely, the world of work; 5) provided a medium for testing their capacity for functioning in these occupational areas; and 6) was a mechanism for enabling quality control for project staff in all the components.

In implementing the on-the-job training component, we placed a high premium on communication between specialty instructor and field supervisor. This channel was functional for a number of reasons:

1. It provided a mechanism for orienting and influencing professional staff in the on-the-job training setting to accept aides and use them constructively in meaningful job roles.

2. It provided a vehicle for making planned modification of the original tentative job description in light of actual experience.

3. It familiarized the on-the-job training supervisors with curriculum inputs so that work assignments could be tailored to what was being taught and learned in school. Similarly, it helped modify the curriculum to meet the job needs as they arose.

4. It helped to develop the role of the work supervisor as a teacher in the field.

The principal problem that seemed to flow from contact with the on-the-job training supervisors was the responsibility of supervising a student in training and the amount of communication with specialty instructors that was required. This constituted an additional task load for the already overburdened teachers or nurses without any tangible reward or incentive being offered them—incentives such as salary increase, promotion, or equivalent time off.

Administrative Strains and Problems

The project was a collaborative effort on the part of the Institute for Youth Studies and the Cardozo Project in Urban Teaching. In order to implement this partnership a variety of administrative structures were set up to promote joint decision making, planning, and coordination. The Cardozo Project in Urban Teaching was itself a highly experimental program within the Model School Division which is the larger experimental sub-unit in the D. C. school system. In short, this added up to an institutional climate oriented to innovation and change within the formal organization of a typical large urban school system. This pattern presented both advantages and problems in terms of project administration.

Advantages. The advantages may be listed as follows:

1. It enabled the recruitment and participation of a maximum number of highly inventive and dedicated personnel.

2. It increased the possibility of structuring in the high degree of flexibility that was required in administering a very experimental curriculum.

3. It enhanced the input of high personal commitment and tolerance essential for implementing this type of program at all levels of operation—administrative, supervisory, and teaching.

4. It provided an opportunity to demonstrate how a university and high school could collaborate in a search for more effective ways of dealing with the problems of educating disadvantaged high school youth.

Problems. The problems may be described as follows:

1. The problems of joint administration and policy making present a variety of strains, such as increased difficulty in getting consensus on matters of operational policy—delineating and maintaining areas of responsibility involving the two agencies; heightening ideological competition and conflict among staff between the work ethic and the educational ethic.

2. Students with resistances to learning must be offered inducements to learning. Payment in the form of Neighborhood Youth Corps stipends was one such inducement. This, however, added to the administrative complexity. Specifically, it meant that project administration had no control over the policies governing eligibility and disbursement of the Neighborhood Youth Corps stipends. There were several instances where students were not reimbursed for time spent in the project. The response of project administration could only be exhortative and persuasive in inducing any change, and in most cases it was ineffective.

3. The ability to deliver jobs at the end of the school year is essential for the success of the New Careers concept in an education context. A large investment of staff time, effort, and ingenuity has gone into job development activities with the school system and the Department of Public Health to maximize the probability that students will have jobs available upon graduation. While we have received tentative and general commitments that jobs will be available, a considerable element of uncertainty still exists—primarily because of the complexity of public agency fiscal and program planning. This means that a major program component must include a job development and vocational counseling effort. The school and the community agencies must collaborate so that a job feeder system can be established on a planned rather than an accidental basis.

Questions

On the basis of this review, we should like to raise the following questions:

1. How far can an innovative curriculum in human services depart from traditional curriculum standards and still be functional in terms of the learning needs of the students?

2. What are the levels of expectation of staff in terms of student performance? What are the levels of expectation of students in terms of their own performance? And to what extent must there be coincidence between the two?

3. How can the academic and job training components be kept in equilibrium to insure that a New Careers program supports the educational requirements and standards of the school system?

4. What can be accomplished in the senior year of student learning, considering a previous eleven years of preconditioning to failure and frustration in the academic area?

5. What kinds of psychological, social, and economic supports must be built into the New Careers model to help the student pass through the various transitional phases involved in movement on the educational-occupational ladder?

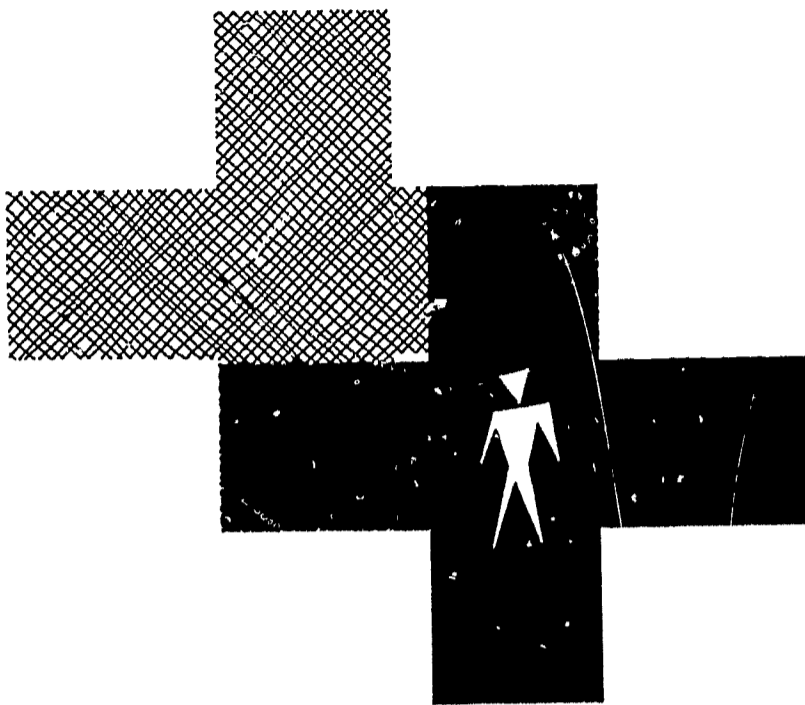
6. How can the high school develop linkages with human service agency employers and post high school educational systems in order to establish opportunity channels for occupational and educational advancement of disadvantaged youth?

7. How can we develop further testing of New Careers programs so as to move closer to institutionalization in the larger school system?

Despite the tentative nature of the findings at this mid-point, we believe that the project has a considerable potential as an important strategy for high school programs focused on the needs of a disadvantaged student body.

One final observation: The projected linking of local high school systems to the human services occupational systems and to post high school educational complexes on behalf of disadvantaged students, which was alluded to earlier, adds up to a problem of social planning that is immensely challenging. This suggests that broadscale implementation of New Careers in education is likely to have considerable impact on the policies and structure of school systems and human service agencies.

Volunteers in the School Health Program



WARREN HAWKINS

ONE of the problems facing many school administrators is how to provide proper care for children who become ill while at school or who are injured during the school day. At our school, the problem has been largely resolved by inaugurating a volunteer program in cooperation with the local chapter of the Red Cross.

We asked mothers of children in the school to volunteer for the program, and 22 agreed to participate. Each volunteer completed a required Red Cross program of 18 hours which included the Basic Red Cross Volunteer Course, Standard First-Aid, and Care of the Sick and Injured. This training was completed in the spring prior to the beginning of the program the following fall.

Each day, a team of two volunteers is assigned to the school health room. The mothers administer first-aid treatment to all children who are referred to the health room by their classroom teacher. If they think a child should be sent home, they inform the principal who makes the final decision. Volunteers also check and record on his health card the weight, height, and vision of each child. Further testing of the eyes, if indicated, is

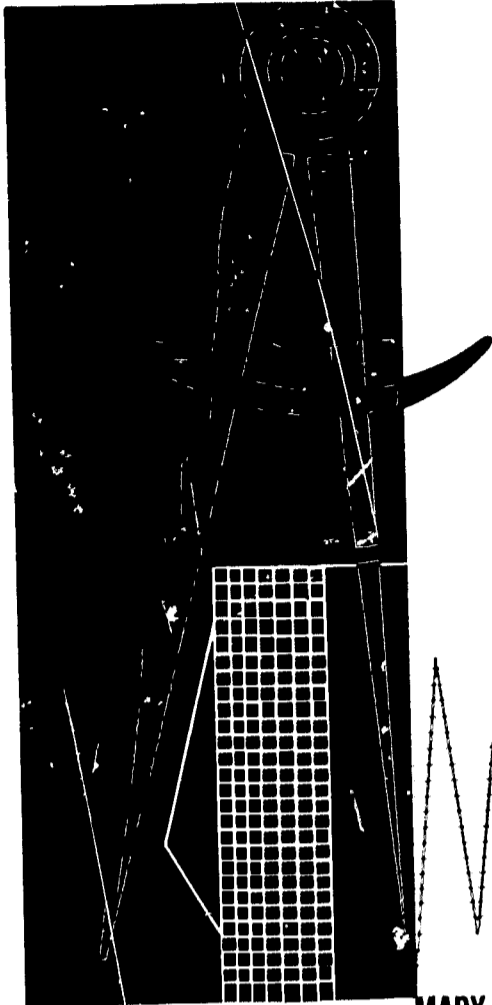
carried out by the public health nurse who makes regular visits to the school.

During the first 31 days of the program, 344 students visited the first-aid room and received attention. The volunteers spent approximately 115 hours in caring for these students. In addition, they have spent about 25 hours in checking the eyes, height, and weight of each child in the school.

From the standpoint of the administration, this program has provided a needed service to our school. The presence of the volunteers has enabled classroom teachers to carry on their regular teaching duties with the assurance that sick children are being cared for properly.

Other schools which might find such a program appropriate should contact their local chapter of the Red Cross. This service may be provided upon the request of school authorities and upon the signing of a written agreement between the local Red Cross chapter and the school.

At the time this article was written, Warren Hawkins was Principal, Lindley Park School, Asheboro, North Carolina. He is now Principal, Albemarle Senior High School, Albemarle, North Carolina.



Teacher Aides:

a survey

MARY D. SHIPP

TODAY'S elementary school teachers would probably balk at many of the non-instructional duties expected of their predecessors in the one-room school of several generations ago. Conversely, yesterday's one-room school teacher might resign on the spot if he were suddenly introduced to a modern elementary school classroom.

To take the place of the snow-shoveling, the hauling of water, and the hewing of wood which used to be a part of teaching, there are now many other duties. Ordering films, setting up a projector, making transparencies, or setting up a resource library all take valuable time. The corners of the elementary teacher's day are nibbled away by milk money collections, attendance reports, clean-up chores, and other details. Preparation for teaching takes much time, too. The teacher of today does not plan one lesson for all the children in his class; he is expected to individualize instruction to suit the needs of each of his pupils and hopes to spend time with each child each day. Today's teacher, far from being responsible for only the 3 R's, teaches in a rapidly changing

world. In addition to keeping up with his students' knowledge of moon probes and atomic energy, the teacher has many meetings to attend and at the same time is expected to keep up with new ideas in his field through graduate courses and in-service work.

All of these things may be considered a part of the teacher's job, but some are more directly related to teaching than others are. Every moment a teacher spends on the non-instructional phases of his position reduces the amount of time he has to spend on the real purpose for which he is hired—teaching.

Increasingly in recent years, the suggestion has been made that the teacher should be free to carry on the instructional part of his job and that someone else should handle as many of the non-professional duties as possible. Staff members—known as teacher aides, paraprofessionals, or

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THE NATIONAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL

auxiliary personnel—have appeared in the schools. Since *teacher aide* is the most frequently used term, this is the name we will use for them here.

The reasons for having a teacher aide program are reflected in this statement from the Oakland, California school system:

The goals of the teacher-aide program are to provide for more child-adult contacts within a classroom setting; to relieve the teacher of routine clerical duties, thus allowing for more individualized instruction; to improve the communication between the home and the school by involving people indigenous to the community; and to provide part-time employment for capable adults from the school community.

For three hours a day a parent or interested adult is in a classroom with the teacher to relieve her of time-consuming non-teaching duties. This extra adult assists students with drills and other activities which reinforce learning and develop appreciations. Therefore, the teacher has more time for individual instruction of her students. In addition, the interest given by another adult provides encouragement to the less able student, develops better work habits of the student, and enhances his feeling of self-worth.

Teacher aides in large school systems. To gather data on the use of teacher aides in large school systems, the Educational Research Service, in 1966, surveyed 251 school systems with enrollments of over 12,000 pupils with regard to their practices in the use of teacher aides. From this selected group of school systems, 217 were identified as using aides during the 1965-66 school year. The following descriptions of paid and volunteer aides in elementary schools have been synthesized from the results of this survey.

The paid teacher aide. Many types of people work in the schools as paid teacher aides. In a number of federally funded projects, mothers from the school's attendance area have been hired. In other cases, women on the Aid for Dependent Children rolls work out their checks by serving as teacher aides. Some aides are members of the Neighborhood Youth Corps. Sometimes the aide is a mature woman, often with children of school age, who wishes the shorter hours of part-time employment. Retired people, too, find work as teacher aides. Several systems have experimented with hiring college students as teacher aides. All of these groups have something to contribute to the experience of young children and all can benefit from working in the schools.

The typical paid teacher aide in 1965-66 is a

woman, and she worked more than 20 hours a week helping a teacher or a group of teachers in the upper elementary grades. The aide had a high school education and earned about \$2.00 an hour. She applied through the school district's personnel office for her job, after learning about it in one or more of several ways. She may have been recommended by the principal of the school or someone on the staff of a federal project; she may have read an announcement of the position published by the school system; or she may have known other people who were teacher aides. In most school systems the number of applicants exceeded the number of positions available, so the typical aide went through some sort of screening procedure to get her job. The central office staff and the principal of the school in which she worked cooperated in the selection of candidates.

Once hired, the aide was trained by a series of conferences with her immediate supervisor, the teacher with whom she worked. In some cases, the school system instituted a series of in-service workshops for aides. The aide was immediately responsible to one or more teachers, but her principal and often central office personnel supervised her work. The training of aides in Oakland, California, is described as follows:

Teacher aides gain much from weekly meetings. The content of the meeting should be developed from the interactions and needs expressed by teachers and teacher aides. Specific areas then are given the emphasis necessary to implement the program by developing the skills and insights of teacher aides.

A daily log of activities kept by each teacher aide assists in the in-service process. This becomes one of the instruments which is available for in-service program development.

What tasks were performed by teacher aides? Some of the aides' duties were purely clerical in nature—typing and duplicating class materials and tests, and correcting tests, workbooks, and homework of a factual nature. She also recorded data in students' files and often was responsible for attendance reports and worked on the attendance register. She ordered supplies and audiovisual equipment and was responsible for setting up this equipment and handling other instructional media. She came into contact with students when she helped with the classroom housekeeping, assisted younger children with their clothing, supervised on the playground or in the cafeteria, and took

charge of the numerous money collections in the elementary classroom. She may have played some part in the instructional process when, under the supervision of the teacher, she read aloud or told stories, assisted children in the school library, helped individual pupils do make-up work, or drilled small groups or individuals while the teacher worked with another group.

The following list of suggested tasks for elementary school teacher aides was drawn up by the Salt Lake City, Utah public schools.

- Writing on board
- Making charts
- Assembling games
- Doing housekeeping duties
- Cutting paper to proper size
- Sharpening pencils
- Recording tests and grades
- Making out summaries
- Making lists of student names, supplies, etc.
- Counting materials
- Supervising on the playgrounds
- Taking care of the lighting and ventilation
- Making masters and using the duplicator
- Checking papers
- Delivering items to other rooms
- Taking inventory
- Reading to children
- Listening to children
- Giving general supervision
- Acting as a resource person
- Making backgrounds for murals
- Playing the piano

The volunteer teacher aide. Sources of volunteer teacher aides are more varied than sources of paid aides. In a number of cities, women's clubs and other service organizations have established teacher-aide programs which bring lawyers, businessmen, former teachers, and others into the schools for a few hours each week. In other systems, volunteer aides are parents who assist in the library or in the classroom. Urban projects often make use of parents in an effort to involve them with the schools, although many systems have found that these people must be paid because they do not have the free time that more affluent parents have.

The following description of the volunteer aide comes from a publication of the Los Angeles School Volunteer Program.

School volunteers are men and women of all ages, in all walks of life, who are willing to serve a minimum of one-half day a week. They are united by one common purpose—an interest in helping children.

The tasks of a school volunteer are designed with one common purpose—to give the teacher more time to develop the teaching day, plan for special activities, and give individual pupils specialized attention. The school volunteer program is characterized by its extreme flexibility, and duties will vary from classroom to classroom. Generally, however, most volunteers assist classroom teachers by helping children who need individual attention, preparing teaching materials, reading stories, correcting workbooks, making posters, preparing inventories, translating, typing, and performing a multitude of clerical tasks.

In spite of the number of professional persons who serve as volunteers in some school systems, the over-all educational requirement for volunteer aides is lower than for paid aides—in most systems less than a high school education is acceptable and many systems have no educational requirements at all for volunteers. Maturity, an interest in children, and a desire to help are listed ahead of degrees as qualifications for volunteer aides. This philosophy seems justified to many individuals working with aides.

A volunteer aide works fewer hours than a paid aide; most volunteers donate about five hours per week of their time. Volunteers apply for their positions either through the school system's central office, or, in many systems, through the outside agency which organizes the volunteer program. Central office staff, principals, and teachers all have a voice in selecting volunteer aides, as do the staff of federal projects in many systems. Most volunteer aides have a training program before they enter the schools—in some cases organized by the sponsoring agency. The volunteer is supervised by the teacher and the administrative staff of the school in which she works and in some cases by a federal project supervisor.

Duties performed by volunteer aides vary from system to system to suit the needs of the schools. In general, the duties of the volunteer aide appear to be more child-centered than those of the paid aide. The volunteer aide may assist in the school library, help with the classroom housekeeping or with children's clothing, read aloud or tell stories, or tutor individual students.

Responsibilities of teachers and aides. When an aide comes into a classroom, a set of new relationships between teacher, aide, and students is

established. Since harmony in working relationships is so important, guidelines for the actions of both teachers and aides have been set up by many systems. The following paragraphs, delineating the responsibilities of teachers to their aides, come from a guidebook for teachers published in the Minneapolis, Minnesota, public schools.

While the teacher aide may attend in-service classes to learn skills that will be helpful in the classroom, the bulk of her orientation to work falls on the shoulders of the classroom teacher.

The aide can be made to feel comfortable and welcome if allowed to observe the class for a while, to learn the location of materials and to discuss the general nature of her duties. Gradually, she can become an integral part of daily classroom activity without doing any actual teaching. Depending on her abilities and the class needs, she can become a valuable addition to the classroom.

It is incumbent upon the teacher to discover any special talents the aide may have and to utilize them; to have conferences about her work when necessary, and to guide the aide to her fullest potential.

The following points regarding the ethics of volunteer aides, made by the San Francisco, California Education Auxiliary, apply to paid aides equally as well.

It is against the law for an uncredentialed person to replace a teacher in the classroom. Volunteers are not teachers, they are assistants, and the teacher's judgement is at all times final.

Professional ethics require that volunteers do not discuss teachers, students, or school affairs with other people. They must reserve judgement and not be critical of what they see or hear at school. As part-time workers it is often impossible to understand the whole picture.

Volunteers must present a good example of appearance and behavior at all times. Their dress and actions should show a respect for the work they do.

Statistics from the ERS survey. Of the 217 school systems upon which the Educational Research Service survey is based, 15 use aides only in their secondary schools, 64 use them only in elementary schools, and the rest have teacher-aides at both levels. A total of 44,351 aides, both paid and volunteer, were reported working in these 217 systems; of this number approximately 30,000 were utilized at the elementary level. Exact figures are not available, since some aides assist teachers at more than one level. A third of the aides in the elementary schools worked with the

primary and kindergarten age group, many in Head Start programs; about a quarter of them assisted teachers in the primary grades, and the remaining 40 per cent worked with the upper elementary grades. There was little difference between the percentage of paid and volunteer aides at each level.

The number of aides employed in the systems covered by the ERS survey ranged upward from one or two aides per system into the thousands. The largest number of aides reported by any one system was in New York City where 9,150 paid aides and 1,850 volunteer aides worked in the schools. All but 3,525 of these aides were on duty in the elementary schools.

Educational Research Service estimates that during 1965-66, aides gave about 400,000 hours of assistance to elementary teachers *each week* in the systems covered by the survey. At salary rates approximating \$2.00 an hour, the salary totals for paid aides during the 1965-66 school year amounted to many millions of dollars. About a quarter of the school systems covered by the survey indicated that they rely on federal funds to pay all of the expenses of their teacher-aid program—the same fraction of the total relies entirely upon funds from local and state revenues. About half of the systems use funds from more than one source—federal, state, and local funds plus foundation grants in a few systems—to pay for their teacher-aide programs.

Looking forward. Respondents to the ERS questionnaire were asked to indicate any changes that they anticipated in their teacher-aide programs during the next two years. The overwhelming majority of those venturing to comment on this question indicated that, if at all possible, there would be *more* aides in their systems. The teacher aide is becoming a recognized person on the elementary school scene, and the time has come for the teaching profession and school administrators to realize the potential of aides and to establish provisions for their employment, training, and utilization.

For further details see National Education Association, American Association of School Administrators and Research Division. *Teacher Aides in Large School Systems*. Educational Research Service Circular No. 2, 1967. Washington, D.C.: the Association, April 1967. 60 pp. \$1.50. NEA Stock No. 219-06234.

IN many schools in our large cities and in suburban communities such as New Rochelle, New York, volunteers are working in the classroom or just outside the classroom to provide "booster" educational services that are not otherwise provided by the present organization of our public schools. The very pressing, sometimes special, educational needs of many individual children are being met by volunteers working under professional guidance and direction. Where limited funds or facilities make other solutions to educational problems impractical, communities with high aspiration for all children have found in the volunteer a new reservoir of intellectual capacity and productive drive from which to draw.

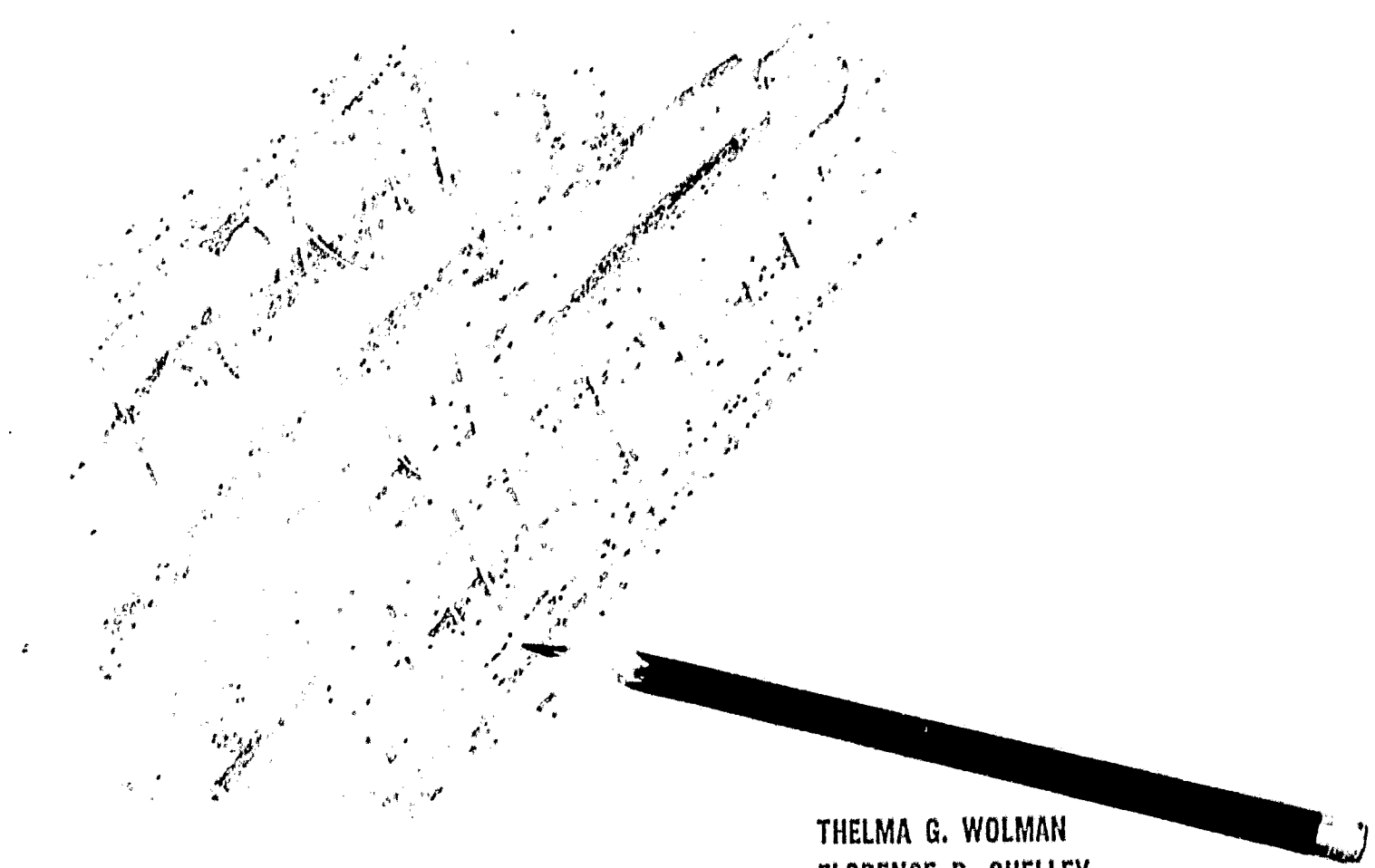
Today, professionals are welcoming volunteers to assist them, signifying a substantial change in

attitude from the years when the volunteer in the school was regarded more as an interfering nuisance than as a useful aide. Beyond urgent need, there appear to be several reasons for this growing acceptance of the volunteer. The changing role of women in our economy has served to expand their educational and vocational horizons. Since World War II, more women are graduates of high school, and indeed more women are college graduates. The NEA Research Bulletin of May 1964 reports that the number of degrees awarded to women, except for two brief leveling periods,

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Volunteers in the Public School:



THELMA G. WOLMAN
FLORENCE D. SHELLEY

has increased steadily: "In 1961-62 the number was 53.0 per cent higher than in 1949-50."

Many, if not most, of these women have had some business or professional experience prior to assuming full-time family responsibility and have known considerable independence and satisfaction as productive wage earners. We have also experienced a considerable increase of leisure time for wives and mothers. Technological advances have decreased the number of woman-hours needed to run a home. The housewife is now often left with some hours in her day to fill, and a personal need to fill as well. Her own view of herself demands an enhanced role in society beyond her household function. Too often, paid part-time work is unavailable to women who wish to combine work outside with work inside the home and who would find it suitable and satisfying to do so.

Concomitantly, the population press in our schools has pushed teaching services to the maximum of utility, even while educational needs have continued to mushroom. It would have been perverse indeed had there been a general failure to use large numbers of competent, dedicated, and civic-minded women to supplement the work of our educational institutions. Volunteers have filled a wide variety of jobs—from simple custodial and clerical tasks to jobs which include remedial tutoring, or direct instruction, under professional supervision, of educationally disadvantaged or emotionally limited children.

Classes are often so large or disparate that the average teacher is hard put to meet the many demands for individualized attention to students. Until such time as regular teachers are freer to devote more time to the individual student, the volunteer can help to fill some of these demands. In New Rochelle, we believe we have begun to use our large volunteer resources more and more effectively as time and experience continue to prove their value.

Acceptance of the volunteer by the professionals has been earned only over a period of years. Ten years ago the volunteer woman in the public school system of this small city was usually a member of the PTA who helped the teacher on class trips or other special occasions. She may have worked in the elementary school library once a week when her child's class had a noninstructional library period. During this time, she

checked books in and out, gave the teacher a few minutes to be out of the classroom or to give special assistance to an individual youngster working on a research project. She occasionally helped a child find a suitable book and on rarer occasions read the class a story selected by the teacher. This was often the closest kind of involvement of the volunteer with the school children in a potentially fruitful learning situation. Her presence was frequently challenged by the professional teacher-librarians.

During more recent years, the scope of effort of the volunteers in the New Rochelle public schools has been extended to allow for fuller utilization of available special talents. Assignments have included the use of such volunteer specialists as social workers, psychologists, and nurses. Several major areas of volunteer service are described to illustrate the ways in which appropriately selected women have contributed to the learning needs of students at no extra cost to the school system.

The Volunteer Bureau, a non-profit placement service, has sponsored a tutoring program for needy students for the past five years. Since its inception, when only four schools admitted volunteer tutors, the program has been included in ten elementary schools, the two junior high schools, and is now moving successfully into the high school. In the February to June 1965 period, 152 students were helped by 42 tutors in a total of 1,923 woman-hours of contributed effort.

During the first phase of its life, training and supervision of volunteers were at the discretion of the individual school principal, with some moderate orientation provided by the Bureau. As the tutoring increased in scope and responsibility, the necessity of providing additional professional supervision and training became more evident. Thereafter, several professional members of the school staff provided in-service programs to instruct the volunteers more thoroughly in the techniques and materials of compensatory education. At the present time, the tutoring program has proved to be of such value in its work with disadvantaged youngsters that a federal grant has been allocated to permit the Volunteer Bureau to engage paid professional supervision for preliminary training instruction.

In the past, women selected for this tutoring program have been required to hold college degrees. Currently, however, the possibility of

modifying these requirements is being explored. Women are now being considered who may have less formal education but who can offer the children strong emotional support or readier identification because of similar socio-economic backgrounds. With the supervisory arrangements now in process, it is expected that a skilled teacher can do much to crystallize the pedagogical potential of these dedicated and willing workers.

A second program in New Rochelle involved the use of volunteers as "Teacher-Moms" for severely disturbed youngsters. Following a successful experiment in Elmont, Long Island, on the educational habilitation of schizophrenic children, the National Institute of Mental Health sought to discover whether the Elmont experience with these children could be duplicated in other types of communities. Behaviorally disturbed children, heretofore uncontrollable in the public schools, are now taught individually on a regular basis, in special classrooms, under the supervision of a volunteer "Teacher-Mom." Over-all supervision and program planning are provided by one professionally trained director working with suitable psychological, psychiatric, and other special service staff.

The rationale of this program, as it exists today, is based fundamentally on the use of the volunteer. Indeed, the proposal to the federal government for support stated:

It is recognized, of course, that no school district can afford one teacher to one pupil. The alternative is to use volunteers. There are professionals who customarily take a dim view of the contribution non-professionals can make to the seriously emotionally disturbed child, but this viewpoint is not justified, in the light of the Elmont Program and now New Rochelle and Superior, the experiences of the Meningers, the California State hospital system, and other programs being tried all across the country. Furthermore, the sheer scope of the problem precludes complete dependence on professionals since there will never be available sufficient numbers of them to cope adequately. Experientially and philosophically the author questions such reliance on professionals because it has not been demonstrated that any one approach will always be successful. Educators generally and the supporting service attached thereto are oriented to academic success and sometimes do not have an opportunity to concentrate on the individual needs of the whole child. If what these children need in great quantities are love and acceptance, what better source is there for these commodities than mothers in a position to help, and willing

to do it, for no pay, whose motivation is to contribute to a handicapped child? ¹

The design of the experimental program, including the one we have had an opportunity to observe in New Rochelle, was to discover if these children could be educationally salvaged outside of residential institutions and gradually introduced to the formalities and challenges of the public classroom. The techniques involved the use of volunteer women from the community whose qualifications of warmth, maturity, and stability, and whose own successful experience as mothers, would make them desirable "Teacher-Moms."

Last year, 22 women worked in teams of 2 per child for two half-days, four days a week, with a total of 9 children. Eighteen were regular "Teacher-Moms." Four were substitutes. They were selected from nearly twice that number who answered the first recruiting calls. Candidates were chosen after initial screening by the Volunteer Bureau and further interviews with the responsible professional staff.

The first year's experience in New Rochelle has already indicated that the successes at Elmont can and are being duplicated. The volunteers have served with great dedication and constancy. Some of the successful candidates were high school graduates, others were college graduates. Several had advanced degrees.

Despite the diversity of academic or socio-economic background and personality, a common purpose united the volunteer corps. Meeting in weekly group sessions with the professional director, they discovered they were able to complement each other's strengths. As a group they shared unusual sensitivity, perception, and an honest concern for children. Their commitment to the program's purpose was total.

At the end of the first year's work, the volunteers agreed they had come away exhilarated by the opportunity to work effectively, humbled by their heightened insights, gratified by the obvious progress accomplished, and eager to participate in the program the following year.

It should be emphasized that the youngsters' ability to accept teaching from their "Teacher-

1. Funded under a Mental Health Project grant by the National Institutes of Health entitled "Rehabilitation of Childhood Schizophrenics."

Moms" grew out of the emotional rapport that each volunteer developed with her charge. But her specific teaching skill was achieved through the direction of the professional supervisor who was always available during the school session and who provided the program and materials appropriate for each child. To make a teaching situation educationally successful a volunteer needs more than good will or good intention. The ability of the "Teacher-Moms" to work educationally as well as in emotional rapport with these selected children was constantly supported and enhanced by the direction of experienced professional staff members.

Another most successful demonstration of the effectiveness of the volunteer has been in our pre-kindergarten program. By the spring of 1964, funds had been received from state and federal agencies to develop a program of compensatory education for 150 three- and four-year-old children from educationally disadvantaged backgrounds. Enough money was available for some teaching staff, a program director, and instructional materials, but funds for salaries of the sizable network of people required to put such a project into immediate action were not available. The need for volunteers to do the work was vast and the variety manifold. The call went out for community canvassers, seamstresses, artists, teacher aides, clerical workers, photographers, drivers, collectors, and people with a wide variety of special talents. The community responded with alacrity and with an abundance of contributed effort and materials. Assignments to jobs were made by the director of the program with the help of the PTA and the Volunteer Bureau. Women rang doorbells in selected areas, participated in courses that trained them to help teach in the classrooms, collected equipment, painted posters, spoke on radio programs, made phone calls, combed lists for potential pupils, and publicized the program in many civic and philanthropic organizations in the city. Volunteers ran the gamut in age and background.

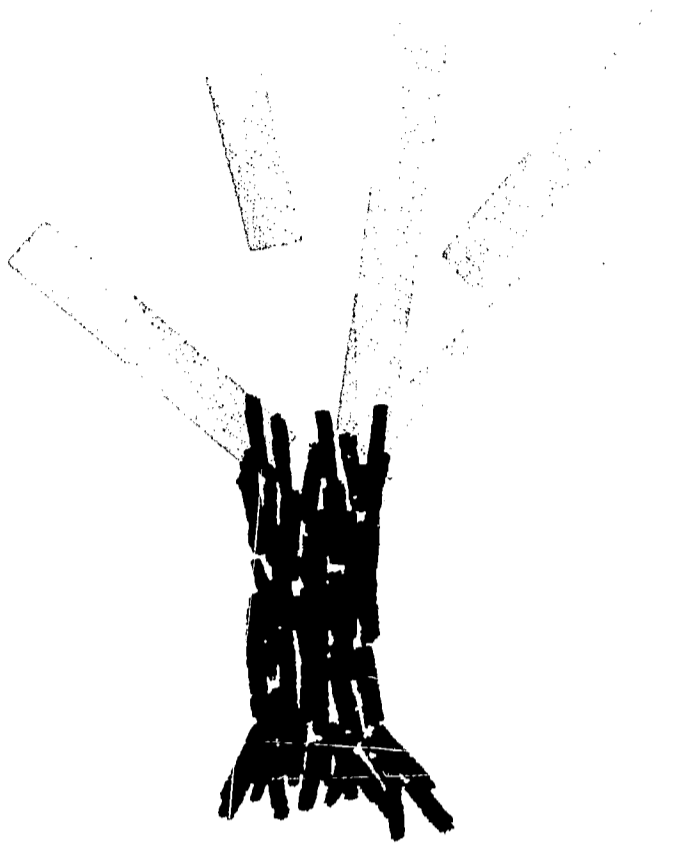
The essential criteria for selection were willingness to work, type of work desired, amount of time volunteered, and capacity to do whatever the job required. Well-educated volunteers thus worked at every aspect of the program, from the simpler assignments (such as driving or canvassing) to the more demanding areas (such as assist-

ing with classroom teaching or developing public relations programs), according to their skills and available time. Here, too, less formally educated women were assigned to jobs at all levels. The relatively unschooled woman in the pre-kindergarten classroom, working under the teacher's observation, also serves as an effective bridge between children from socio-economic or ethnic backgrounds comparable to her own and the goals of this specialized classroom. We found that volunteers were useful whether they were of high school or college age or members of the Golden Age Club, whether they were barely literate or postgraduate trained.

At the present time, the pre-kindergarten program has developed its volunteer affiliations along two main lines. One group of workers is available for temporary, short-term assignments and is called upon when such immediate jobs as new registration drives or parent-teacher "coffee hours" have to be carried on. The second category of volunteers covers the permanent, long-term assignments. Volunteers who are willing and capable assume committee chairmanships, take on teaching assignments for the school year, or, where special interests or skills exist, aid in developing classroom, community, or parent-school programs.

The lessons to be learned from the use of volunteers in the public schools are easy to derive yet broad in implication. Given a school system with needs, commitments, and aspirations that are bigger than the tax resources, essential programs can still be developed. Volunteers can be used to help ease the stress of disproportionate teacher-pupil ratios. This means that more children in more schools can be helped in more ways. Volunteers, properly trained and supervised, can relay a professional teacher's skills to many pupils on a more individualized basis. Instead of being frustrated by educational deficits, a school system thus has the opportunity for the extension of its educational services.

Our experiences, arising from the particular demands of our community, may not be specifically applicable to all other school systems. But the basic potential for developing school programs as the need arises lies within the scope of every community if volunteer programs are carefully developed and supervised. We recommend exploring the possibilities.



New Branches Grow on the Educational Family Tree

BEATRICE C. BOYLES

THE educational barometer points to fair and clear, for the ratio of children to adults will go down as we use volunteers and paraprofessionals.

People are the greatest resource of mankind.

Extra people, volunteers or paraprofessionals, can bring into the school the romance of travel, the rich pageant of history—both local and world—the delights of music and dance, the excitement of the business world, scientific discovery, the adventure of knowing people from other countries. They make possible a different kind of

curriculum. They banish the need for any school to be only a place which holds the undisciplined energy of children with time but not resources.

They make possible a different kind of curriculum—one inside and one outside the school. They open doors to a wider world—one which values emotions more, which values minds more, which values conscience more.

Extra people—these living, breathing humans—serve another need. Each child can begin to collect friends, whether this be an aide who helps him with his lunch, a grandparent figure who tutors in reading, or a teenager who really knows how to play ball.

People, even if they are innocent of university degrees and consider education courses a retreat from reality, are able to take over about 30 per cent of what teachers do now—things which are done by people for children in homes and at parties or other places children are found. These people are going to relieve teachers of direct and continuous involvement in such duties, and this will cause a great increase in the dignity and prestige of the teaching role. They will allow the teacher greater flexibility in using instructional resources and in responding to the whole range of each child's needs.

People's motives in wanting to work with children are the highest. People who work with children need children as an actor needs an audience.

In emphasizing the positive, the heartaches, the struggles, and the crises are usually kept in a low key. Communication is always a problem, and often problems arise—not because people don't understand what we say but because we say things we shouldn't or fail to say things we should. Sometimes we hit the nail squarely on the thumb; but we do better to face problems squarely, so a discussion of problems follows.

The principal is the catalyst, the buffer, the sponge for necessary hostility. He is the person who now cheerfully adds another hat to his wardrobe, considering it an addition which will sometimes become a bit heavy, for the lining of each hat is made of responsibility.

The time is past when education could move like a turtle with rheumatism. The present over-

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takes the future rapidly. Our times are times of exuberant energy and curiosity and opportunity. Thanks to changes in technology, people are available.

The job of principal is many-faceted. The facets are intermingled and complement one another. The functions of relating to volunteers and paraprofessionals cannot be separated entirely from other functions. The same simple rules of human conduct necessary to any responsibility must be applied to any new conditions.

The principal's job calls for a concentration of responsibility, but expediency dictates that responsibility be diffused in considerable degree, not just among teachers but now among others. Coping behavior will be needed.

The principal must judge volunteers and paraprofessionals before they are gathered in. This will be difficult, especially with no list of references from colleges and other sources to depend on. People, whether principals or paraprofessionals, will markedly resemble the rest of the human race. No list of qualities is sensible to write, for the list of virtues would sound like something copied from the New Testament and the Handbook for Girl Scouts. It would apply equally to principals and board members and to other people.

Perhaps the principal could best try to decide whether the prospective helper is a warm person, rather than a cold fish; whether he could serve well on a team, has devotion to duty and to the interests of the children and the public, and serves as a reasonably good model in speech, behavior, and human kindness.

The principal will have to choose wisely, delegate responsibility, and then back up the ones doing the job. Of course, he can't abdicate. He can't have the initiative of an echo.

Undoubtedly some paraprofessional somewhere is going to work out a program with an intensification of the lines developed by Simon Legree, and some paraprofessional will also have a hair-trigger martyr complex and a firm faith in the value of spanking.

He will also probably think the principal mainly sits at his desk and watches the paraprofessionals wear themselves out. This is the time for the self-winding principal to convince others that he may be as busy as a cat with two mice, but he is not going to simply forgive evil-doers. He is also

going to prevent the evil they do. Some people will loaf. Others are so timid and fearful that they are colorless. Some talk too much. Others carry tales and gossip. Some are as sensitive as ingrown toenails. Others bottle things up and develop ulcers. Some clown inconveniently. Some are dictators and should be weeded out quickly. Some run down their colleagues. Some are much maligned because they are as out-of-style as Jane Russell in a year that idolizes Twiggy. These need appreciation. Naturally some of them are going to disapprove of the fact that half of the children in the United States are lower than the other half in such things as beauty and ability to read. They must learn to be accepting.

Just as most teachers are good, kind, delightful people to know, so are the volunteers and paraprofessionals.

Of course, the volunteers must be treated more carefully in some ways than the paraprofessionals, since their only motivation to serve comes from within, and their wallets are not involved in the transaction. They may be treated as members of the family only to the extent that the family is treated with gentleness and care.

The principal will need to gauge public opinion carefully. His capacity to move ahead depends on the support of the people he serves, and sometimes it will be necessary to know where the middle is and to lead from there.

The principal will need audacity, zest for the job, and sometimes he'll have to walk the fine line between tenacity and bullheadedness.

He will need a sense of proportion and perspective—and a sense of humor may come in handy.

Possibly the mathematicians among us will find time to work out some equation by which pensions could be advanced for those days on which we age most rapidly. Clearly, as the ratio of adults to children goes up, the ratio of principals to staff goes down; so this is not a suggestion of a time-saver for principals. The better use of more people is long overdue and has enormous advantages for everyone.

We're moving into a time of abundance and leisure and culture. Technology has given us the people. The children need the people who are no longer needed by the farm and factory.

We can no more help children in that world with our present numbers than we can go to the moon by jet.

S.721 Teacher Aid Program Support Act of 1967

The following are excerpts from remarks made by Gaylord Nelson, United States Senator from Wisconsin, at the time he introduced S. 721:

Mr. President, I have sent to the desk, for appropriate referral to committee, a bill for the creation and implementation of a nationwide teacher aide program. This proposed legislation would be a major step toward relieving the burdens of the elementary and secondary classroom teacher through the utilization of teacher aides—personnel qualified to perform clerical and monitorial tasks now required of teachers and, under the supervision of certified teachers, to assist children in need of additional instruction and attention.

* * *

Teachers are alone among professional people in the volume of nonprofessional work they are required to do. Patrolling school grounds before and after the school day and during recess, supervising cafeterias during lunch hour, standing watch in corridors between periods, distributing and collecting materials, and performing clerical jobs are but a few of the cumbersome tasks required of today's teacher. The teacher's job has become loaded down with nonteaching duties.

Teachers must continue to follow new develop-

ments in their fields. A letter to me signed by a group of some 20 school teachers from Madison, Wisconsin, listed the duties they must perform, in addition to teaching:

1. Supervising the lunchroom.
2. Itemizing monthly lunch bills for each pupil.
3. Supervising the playground during the noon hour.
4. Collecting lunch money.
5. Collecting savings stamp money.
6. Collecting photograph money.
7. Selling tickets for school events.
8. Collecting PTA dues.
9. Pre-school supervision (due to bus schedule).
10. Post-school supervision (due to bus schedule).
11. Daily, quarterly, yearly attendance reports.
12. Yearbook orders and collecting money.
13. Checking standardized tests.
14. Playground recess duty.
15. Typing dittos.
16. Preparing duplicated materials.

The added responsibility of performing tedious nonteaching tasks has a greater effect than merely being time consuming.

The teacher's image as a professional person

is tarnished and his morale is adversely affected. The years of study and intensive training teachers undergo culminate in inadequate salaries and in relegation to menial tasks that their fellow professionals—lawyers, technicians, and scientists—do not have to perform.

An idealistic, highly motivated young person can hardly be faulted for his reluctance to embark on a teaching career. In recent years, one million persons have left the teaching profession.

The children are also victimized by this system. How can a teacher, so immersed in trivia, give proper attention and counsel to his students?

President Kennedy said:

Our progress as a nation can be no swifter than our progress in education. The human mind is our fundamental resource.

The educational crisis facing our nation must be met with new and imaginative ideas. The problems created by modern society and technology are new and so must the solutions be new. Old patterns of thought and policy must be replaced when circumstances prove them outmoded.

* * *

The utilization of teacher aides can be a valuable tool in reshaping the professional image of the teacher.

There are large numbers of talented, conscientious housewives and other personnel able to spend part or all of the school day at work.

These people, some having college credits and others even possessing degrees, will play a valuable role in their local educational system.

Three categories of aides may be drawn:

School aides—who would assist with general noninstructional school activities.

Clerical aides—who would assist with the mechanical tasks in libraries, school offices, and other locations.

Classroom aides—persons qualified to work under the supervision of a teacher in the classroom, with certain specified pupil activities.

The list of specific tasks, now performed by teachers, that could be done by aides is convincing evidence of the trivia now burdening our teachers.

* * *

Eleven pilot projects in this field were conducted by Bank Street College of Education in

New York City last summer. They were financed under a grant from the Office of Economic Opportunity. Four additional projects are currently under way.

Auxiliary personnel trainees included low-income whites in Appalachia and Negroes and Puerto Ricans in East Harlem, Mexican-Americans in California, and residents of the slums of Detroit. The detailed, in-depth report of these trainees' experiences has not yet been published but it was immediately apparent that many benefits would be realized by both educator and trainee alike.

Other projects implementing teacher aides have been developed by local school districts throughout the country.

It would be most sensible to coordinate the efforts being made under such programs as ESEA, MDTA, and OEO into one teacher aide program throughout the Nation, and to expand it.

The functions of the aides may vary substantially among the different communities depending on the need.

* * *

The technical workings of the bill and machinery for the program's operation will insure that local control over the projects will be complete.

Applications for the teacher aide program will be filed jointly by the local educational agency and a local college or university which will conduct the preservice training course for the aides.

Teachers and principals of participating schools will attend these sessions and adequate inservice followup by the university will enable any difficulties in the program's operation to be discovered and resolved.

* * *

Mr. President, since I announced my intention to introduce the teacher aide program legislation, I have received many letters from teachers and school officials expressing their enthusiasm for this idea.

These letters, which I have asked to have printed in the RECORD, have come from my own State of Wisconsin and from several other states as well.

Teachers describe in the letters the burdens they now bear because of the mass nonteaching tasks they must perform. The teacher aide program would relieve them of these jobs and enable them to do what they were trained to do—to teach.



United States
of America

Congressional Record

PROCEEDINGS AND DEBATES OF THE 90th CONGRESS, FIRST SESSION

A BILL

S. 721

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That this Act may be cited as the "Teacher Aid Program Support Act of 1967."

AUTHORIZATION OF APPROPRIATIONS

SEC. 2. There are authorized to be appropriated \$50,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1968, \$100,000,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1969, and \$150,000,000 each for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1970, and for the two succeeding fiscal years, to enable the Commissioner of Education to make grants to local educational agencies and institutions of higher education to assist them in carrying out projects for the development of teacher aid programs provided for in applications approved under this Act.

APPROVAL OF PROJECT APPLICATIONS

SEC. 3. (a) The Commissioner may approve an application for a project under this Act only if the application is submitted jointly by a local educational agency and an institution of higher education and if he determines that—

(1) the project is designed to provide a combined program of training and experience to prepare persons to serve as teacher aids in preschool and elementary and secondary education programs;

(2) the project is part of a comprehensive program for improved utilization of educational personnel in schools where the teacher aids are to serve;

(3) the project is designed to provide more individualized attention for students and to relieve teachers and other professional staff of functions which can be performed competently by teacher aids under the supervision of professional staff;

(4) the institution of higher education partici-

pating in the project will undertake to provide pre-service training programs to prepare persons to become teacher aids and to provide, to the extent practicable, preservice programs bringing together teacher aids and the teachers and other educational personnel who will be supervising them;

(5) the institution of higher education and the local educational agency participating in each project have satisfactory plans for maintaining cooperative arrangements throughout the three-year duration of the project in order to relate inservice and summer training programs to the work experience of the teacher aids in the schools;

(6) the local educational agency participating in a project has, prior to the filing of an application under this Act, submitted its plans to the State educational agency for review and has taken into account its recommendations in developing the proposal for the project; and

(7) the project is of sufficient scope and quality to provide reasonable assurance of making substantial improvements in the educational programs of the schools participating in the project.

(b) A school which has participated for a total of three years in an approved project receiving Federal payments under this Act shall not be eligible to participate thereafter in any further project assisted under this Act.

FEDERAL PAYMENTS

SEC. 4. (a) The Commissioner shall (in advance or otherwise) pay to the local educational agency and the institution of higher education jointly carrying out each project approved under this Act such portion of the costs of the project as each of the joint applicants incurs under the terms of the grant.

(b) For purposes of this section, the costs of the

project covered by the Federal grant include all of the costs of training programs for teacher aids and for teachers and other professional staff members supervising teacher aids, including appropriate stipends; and the Federal grant shall cover not to exceed 75 per centum of the costs of the project attributable to compensation to be paid to teacher aids while serving in the programs of the schools of the local educational agency participating in the project. Federal payments toward the costs of the project may not cover any compensation for any teacher or professional staff member employed by the local educational agency.

APPORTIONMENT AMONG STATES

SEC. 5. From the sums appropriated to carry out this Act for each fiscal year, the Commissioner shall apportion to each State an amount which bears the same ratio to such sums as the number of children aged three to seventeen, inclusive, in the State bears to the number of such children in all the States. To the extent that it is determined by the Commissioner that the amount apportioned to any State will not be required for grants in that State, such amount shall be available for grants in other States able to use additional grants pursuant to this Act. Such amounts for any year shall be apportioned among such other States on the same basis as the original apportionment for such year.

DEFINITIONS

SEC. 6. As used in this Act—

(a) The term "teacher aid" means assistant to teachers, library aides, school recreation aids and other ancillary educational personnel who are under the supervision of professional members of the school staff, but the term does not include persons who are primarily responsible for the instruction of pupils.

(b) The term "local educational agency" means a public board of education or other public authority legally constituted within a State for either administrative control or direction of, or to perform a service function for public elementary or secondary schools in a city, county, township, school district, or other political subdivision of a State, or such combination of school districts or counties as are recognized in a State as an administrative agency for its public elementary or secondary schools. Such term also includes any other public institution or agency having administrative control and direction of a public elementary or secondary school.

(c) The term "institution of higher education" means an educational institution in any State which (1) admits as regular students only persons having a certificate of graduation from a school providing secondary education, or the recognized equivalent of such certificate, (2) is legally authorized within such State to provide a program of education beyond secondary education, (3) provides an educational program for which it awards a bachelor's degree or

provides not less than a two-year program which is acceptable for full credit toward such a degree, (4) is a public or other nonprofit institution, and (5) is accredited by a nationally recognized accrediting agency or association approved by the Commissioner for this purpose or, if not so accredited, (A) is an institution with respect to which the Commissioner has determined that there is satisfactory assurance, considering the resources available to the institution, the period of time, if any, during which it has operated, the effort it is making to meet accreditation standards, and the purpose for which this determination is being made, that the institution will meet the accreditation standards of such an agency or association within a reasonable time, or (B) is an institution whose credits are accepted on transfer by not less than three institutions which are so accredited, for credit on the same basis as if transferred from an institution so accredited. If the Commissioner determines that a particular category of such schools does not meet the requirements of clause (5) because there is no nationally recognized accrediting agency or association qualified to accredit schools in such category, he shall, pending the establishment of such an accrediting agency or association, appoint an advisory committee, composed of persons specially qualified to evaluate training provided by schools in such category, which shall (i) prescribe the standards of content, scope, and quality which must be met in order to qualify schools in such category to participate in teacher aid programs under this Act, and (ii) determine whether particular schools not meeting the requirements of clause (5) meet those standards. For purposes of this subsection, the Commissioner shall publish a list of nationally recognized accrediting agencies or associations which he determines to be reliable authority as to the quality of training offered.

(d) The term "State educational agency" means the State board of education or other agency or officer primarily responsible for the State supervision of public elementary and secondary schools, or, if there is no such officer or agency, an officer or agency designated by the Governor or by State law.

(e) The term "State" includes, in addition to the several States of the Union, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, Wake Island, Guam, American Samoa, the Virgin Islands, and the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands.

FEDERAL CONTROL OF EDUCATION PROHIBITED

SEC. 7. Nothing contained in this Act shall be construed to authorize any department, agency, officer, or employee of the United States to exercise any direction, supervision, or control over the curriculum, program of instruction, administration, or personnel of any educational institution or school system, or over the selection of library resources, textbooks, or other printed or published instructional materials by any educational institution or school system.

Public Reaction to S.721

Late in April, Senator Gaylord Nelson made the following brief report on public reaction to the Teacher Aide Bill:



Since introducing the Teacher Aide bill last January, I have been very much encouraged by the favorable responses of educators and laymen to the proposal.

Most encouraging of all has been the reaction of classroom teachers, whom the bill was designed to assist. A high school teacher in Ladysmith, Wisconsin, wrote to me, "I have invested five years of my life and a great deal of money preparing for my chosen profession. Now I would appreciate very much being given the opportunity to teach instead of being relegated to the status of a highly paid clerk."

Through conversations with teachers and school officials, I became aware of the enormous amounts of time teachers are required to spend performing noninstructional and often trivial tasks. A study made several years ago revealed that from 21 per cent to 69 per cent of a teacher's day is occupied by such noninstructional jobs.

Now we have proposed a good piece of legislation to meet that problem.

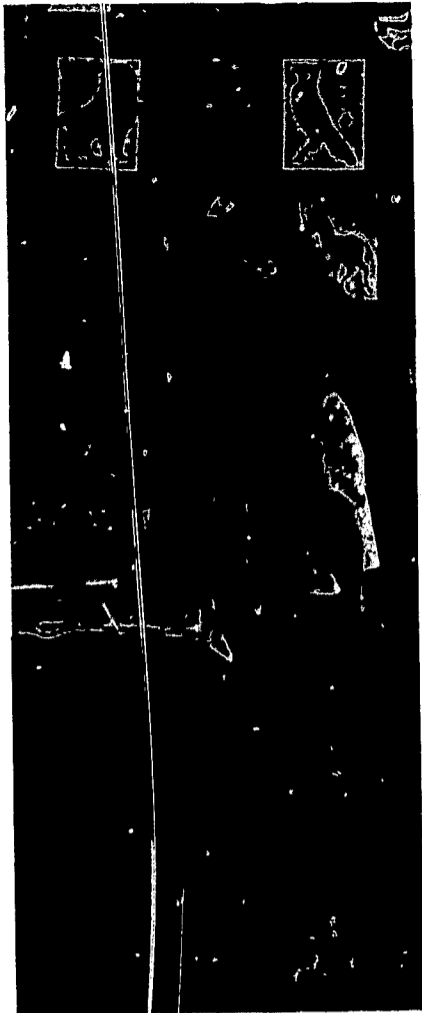
Robert Gilberts, superintendent of the Madison, Wisconsin, school system, wrote of the Teacher Aide bill, "This kind of assistance in our schools can in a great measure contribute to the more

effective use of our professional teachers in the learning process."

The counsel and assistance of the National Education Association's legislative staff has been of great value in the development of the proposed legislation. School administrators in New York, Minnesota, North Dakota, and Connecticut have also offered their support.

In March, the Teacher Aide proposal was reintroduced as a new title to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. It is logical that this proposal, designed to help the classroom teachers of the nation's elementary and secondary schools, be administered within the Elementary and Secondary Education Act.

The United States Senate Subcommittee on Education will soon consider the 1967 amendments to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. At that time, hearings on the Teacher Aide proposal will be held. The process by which a bill progresses from introduction into law is a long and difficult one. But with the widespread support and assistance of educators throughout the United States, I am hopeful that the Teacher Aide bill will become a permanent part of the American public school system.



TEENAGE TEACHER-AIDE PROJECT

ALBERT G. LEEP
FRANK CREASON

RURAL Appalachia is confronted by problems associated with poverty which, at first glance, appear to be very similar to those so evident in the inner-city belts of our large metropolitan areas. Certainly the deprivation of learning experiences, health facilities, and aspiration levels of youth commonly coupled with poverty are found in both the rural and the urban settings. However, the Appalachian area is having to deal with a problem that is unique to rural pockets of poverty, namely, the emigration of its youth. Every year, many young people, discouraged by lack of opportunities for employment locally, leave for the large cities to seek employment there. Those who remain must cope with steadily decreasing chances to obtain stable and rewarding jobs, and they settle into poverty.

Within the larger matrix of poverty, three major educational problems confront the communities of Appalachia:

1. Schools with limited economic support and a diminishing number of public school teachers
2. Underprivileged preschoolers
3. Appalachian teenagers who can't find work and have neither the means nor the aspiration to continue their education.

Ohio University efforts to aid in the alleviation of these pressing problems culminated in the initiation of the Teenage Teacher-Aide Program during the summer of 1966.¹

Objectives

A major aim of this project was to prepare 150 high school teenagers from economically deprived homes in nine counties of southeastern Ohio and Wood County, West Virginia, to work as auxiliary personnel with young children in kindergartens, Head Start centers, and primary grades of elementary schools. The endeavor was planned to improve the quality of education and attack Appalachian poverty by:

1. Attempting to build the confidence and lift the levels of aspiration of teenagers and thereby

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Frank Creason is Associate Director of the South Central Region Educational Laboratory, Little Rock, Arkansas. He was formerly Director of the Teenage Teacher-Aide Project at Ohio University.

1. The Teenage Teacher-Aide Program received federal financial support from the Office of Economic Opportunity, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Department of Labor.

motivate some high school youths to continue their education

2. Preparing teenagers for an economically productive vocation which could be utilized while completing their high school education

3. Providing a community source of trained paraprofessionals to help alleviate the shortage of teachers in Head Start and other preschool areas.

Another objective was to provide firsthand summer education experiences for 75 prospective teachers enrolled in Ohio University. It was hoped that by having this experience some of these university students might be motivated to teach in deprived areas after graduation from college. As college sponsors living and working closely with the participating high school students, prospective teachers had the opportunity to establish a wholesome counseling relationship with participating teenage teacher aides. Also included in the experiences of the prospective teachers was the opportunity to work with preschool children enrolled in Head Start centers throughout the area included in the program. The work experience with young children and the ten-week period of association with the high school student participants gave prospective teachers an insight into the reality of poverty and its influences. At the same time, these experiences dissipated any preconceived idea that economically deprived children are a "different breed," lacking the abilities and potentials commonly associated with children from more affluent backgrounds.

Another aim of this program was to obtain research data which could be used to answer questions about 1) the components necessary to the successful preparation of teacher aides, 2) the role of teacher aides as perceived by professional educators working in preschool and school situations, and 3) the feasibility of utilizing high school students to meet the immediate needs in this country for educational opportunities for preschool and early school experiences for deprived children.

Structure of the Program

The program was designed to operate in four phases. In Phase I, the prospective teacher aides and the college student sponsors participated in a five-week workshop held on the campus of Ohio University. During this part of the pro-

gram, the high school participant underwent medical screening, testing, and general orientation and was assigned to a college sponsor who lived and worked with the student in a residential setting throughout the summer program.

The high school participants and their respective college sponsors were then divided into five instructional groups to each of which was assigned an experienced kindergarten teacher who moved with his group through five areas of concentrated instruction directed by an area specialist. One week was devoted to each area of content, on a rotating cycle. The general theme of the instruction was learning about young children, namely, the developmental pattern of child growth, the possible implications of the environment upon behavior, and the uniqueness of the individual.

A concerted effort was made to develop within the aide the attitude that true educational experience for young children evolves from situations in which children are encouraged to broaden the range of their knowledge, to follow interests, to feel the joy of knowing, to be curious, and to question. Therefore, the role of an aide, like that of a teacher, is one of supporting children in the process of personal development. It involves a positive attitude about the worth of the individual that will permeate all interactions with children.

Great emphasis was placed on the importance of early learning experiences in the on-going development of a child, and, with help, the aides developed a repertoire of materials, experiences, and skills appropriate for aiding in the instruction of young children in language arts, science, music, art, and recreation. For example, they selected books and read aloud to the children; they presented and discussed a brief science experiment; they assisted on a science field trip; they helped with music and art; they presented and kept a record of games appropriate to different age levels and sizes of groups and learned to teach them to children; and they helped with minor first aid.

During the five weeks, provisions were also made for students to observe directly, and indirectly via closed circuit television, two kindergarten classrooms, two Head Start centers, and a private summer play school. Through these facilities, the prospective teacher aides were able to relate the instruction received to a variety of ages, socio-economic backgrounds, and teacher approaches.

Arrangements were also made for periodic group dynamics sessions in which small groups of high school participants and college sponsors met with a faculty discussion leader. The purpose was to encourage independent thinking and to stimulate a realistic appraisal of one's attitudes and capabilities in relation to working as an auxiliary with young children of economically deprived backgrounds.

An equally important aspect of the on-campus program related to the experiences students had outside the instructional program. The residential arrangement and the provision for free participation in many college-sponsored social and cultural events encouraged close interaction among the high school participants and the college students. It was felt that the cultural experiences, the responsibility of being "on one's own," and the relationships established with college students would give the high school students an opportunity to gain firsthand information about the values, goals, abilities, and experiences of college-oriented individuals and might encourage them to re-evaluate themselves and determine the alternatives, including college attendance, that might be open to them.

As this phase of the program progressed, a remarkable change in many of the high school students became apparent. Many exhibited a level of confidence and a view of self that was not present before. One high school student, summarizing the influence the campus had on her, said:

I am not as shy as I was when I first came here. I would never talk to anyone for a very long time. It was always brief. Since I have been with all the nice people here, I have changed considerably. Everyone has recognized these changes in me. As a matter of fact, one of the girls from my school said that the students and teachers would be surprised when they see me this fall because now I am talking all the time.

As the personal concept of self improved, there was a new awareness of personal appearance and an interest in grooming which motivated the planning of special evening seminars on grooming, hair styling, and clothing selection.

The maturing influences of the experiences on campus were expressed by one student in her statement:

I've found that we have to work for what we have or expect to get. I have decided that the college routine is definitely for me because I love the atmosphere of freedom and the right to choose. I've come to the understanding that everyone has the right to opinions without being criticized—and when criticized I can take it without using protective devices for I realize that it is to help me.

Phase II

Phase II of the program consisted of four weeks of field work in Head Start centers. High school participants and the university student sponsors worked together in centers near the homes of the high school participants. During this period, the high school students lived at home and the university students found temporary housing in the area of the centers to which they were assigned. Both the high school participants and the university student sponsors were assigned by the administrators of the Head Start centers as aides to teachers of classes for culturally deprived preschoolers. A teacher education team from Ohio University traveled to the Head Start centers to supervise the trainees, to assist them with their problems, and to evaluate the success of the student aide and the contributions of the five-week program in preparing the aide for the role expected of him in the field.

Phase III

Following the four weeks of field experience, the high school students and college students returned to the campus for one week. During this week they evaluated the program and their own experiences and tried to synthesize the total experience as it related to their personal growth. At this point, the program was concluded for the university college sponsors, and the high school students returned home to commence the next phase of the program in conjunction with their regular high school activities.

Phase IV

Phase IV, to last from September 1966 until June 1967, will include part-time employment for one to two hours a day in kindergartens, primary classrooms, hospitals, and other community agencies and will provide work experience with young children under the supervision of professionally trained adults. In each community, a practicing

teacher, designated as an adviser to the teenage teacher aides, will coordinate the part-time employment and supervise the planning and directing of regularly scheduled child development seminars.

At this stage of the program, an extensive evaluation of the full impact of the program would be premature. However, through the phases now completed, it was possible to gain some indications of the influence the experiences were having on the participants. It would be incorrect to imply that all the participants either exhibited through their behavior or verbally expressed similar reactions to the program, but the following general reactions were typical of feelings expressed following Phase II by a majority of the high school students and university student sponsors.

I have learned a lot about working with children that I never knew before. I think that under the guidance of our teachers in this program, we can all be useful to our communities and to a very good cause.

Although I've thought about college a lot, I never really expected to attend one because of the money, but now I think I know some of the many ways a college freshman can get scholarships, funds, etc., to go to school, and I hope I'll be able to qualify for some of these. All in all, the program has done me a world of good. Even if I don't get to college, it will always be useful with my own children.

. . . it [the experience] gave me a desire to help those less fortunate than myself.

I have learned a great deal about children and myself from the program. The program has provided a lot of advantages which are good.

I think this has made me a better person all around.

As to the contributions made by the aides to the Head Start center, the following observation is indicative of those found throughout the various centers:

I think that young people do a very good job as teachers' aides. The children like them and especially enjoy watching when an aide participates in something with them. It seems that a younger person's enthusiasm and energy influence the children's ideas.

One administrator of a Head Start program, during his visit to the campus phase of the program, stated that the aides would be better prepared to work with young children than some of the teachers that his center was able to employ. His prediction was borne out by those observing

Phase II of the program and by two Head Start teachers who said:

He [the aide] had such a fine way with children and had so many good ideas for science activities that I asked him to lead the science discussion each day.

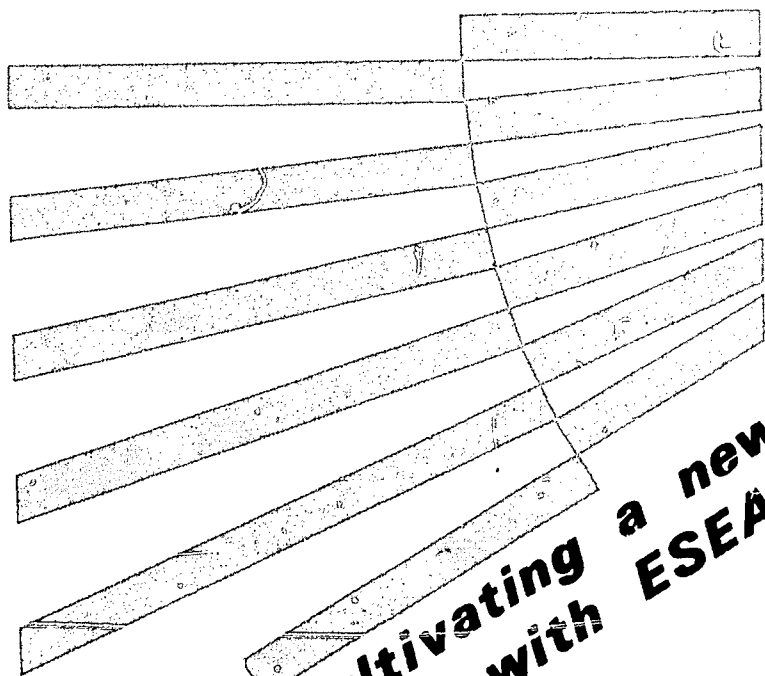
At first, I didn't want one of the aides because in past summers I had untrained aides assigned to me and they were more trouble than they were worth. I soon found that these girls [aides in the Teenage Teacher-Aide Program] were different. They knew what to do and had a knowledge of many activities that I didn't have. These aides were a real help.

However, there were a few Head Start teachers that reacted in less positive terms. One retired elementary teacher, employed for the summer, indicated that she did not need help in her classroom. Another felt that she did not want the additional responsibility of working with a teenage aide. Many teachers at the completion of the four weeks described the experience as being a good one for the professional growth of the teacher, because the teacher was required to examine the classroom functioning to determine those activities which could be shared with auxiliary personnel and those which could not.

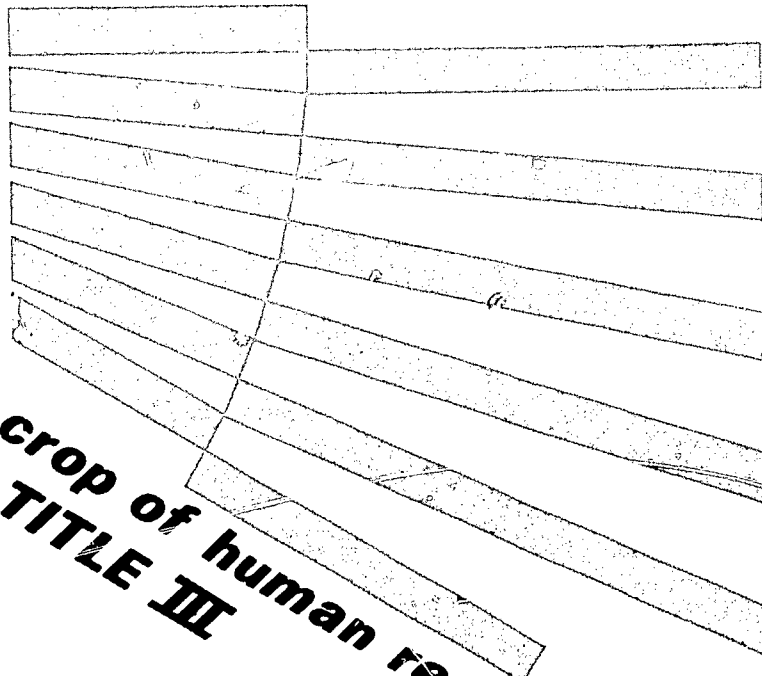
As stated earlier, many of our questions concerning the program cannot be answered as yet, but those of us involved in the planning and execution of the program are encouraged by 1) the wholesome and maturing influence that the experience has had to date on the high school students, 2) the fact that all but four of the students continuing to attend high school in the areas involved in the program are presently placed in part-time positions as aides, 3) the present indication that the aides are truly assisting in the provision of better education for young children, and 4) the increased interest on the part of the teenager in completing a college preparatory program so that he might attend college.

The teachers share our enthusiasm. As one experienced primary level teacher observed, "Now [with an aide] I will have the time and the help to do some of the important things I have always wanted to do with and for children but couldn't do by myself."

Perhaps by the time the final phase of the program is completed, many elementary administrators will agree with one principal who, at this early stage of having teenage teacher aides, said, "I don't know how we ever did without them."



**cultivating a new
with ESEA**



**crop of human resources
TITLE III**

RICHARD R. GOULET

"TEACHERS' jobs are getting harder and good teachers are harder to find." This familiar comment has been heard throughout the country during the past two decades from principals and others who have been groping for solutions to what has appeared to be an insurmountable problem: how to increase and broaden the scope of the teacher's effectiveness by relieving him of certain nonteaching duties. Among other possible solutions examined in their search, educators have found that many persons of high potential but without professional preparation for teaching could be trained as aides. The first step in freeing teachers of many auxiliary duties has led to the cultivation of a whole new crop of human resources—the paraprofessionals.

Rapid social change, the great mobility of American people, the increasing growth of our suburbs, and advanced technological developments have resulted in school changes which make increasing demands upon the teacher's time and competencies. The shortage of trained teachers and supportive specialists to staff our schools has suggested a need to re-examine the role of these professionals to find new ways of utilizing their skills to the fullest, thereby increasing their effectiveness and broadening their reach.

Under Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, known as the

PACE Program (Projects to Advance Creativity in Education), school administrators across the Nation are re-examining the role of professionals in the school and attempting to determine in which areas they may function alone more effectively and in which areas their skills can be supplemented by paraprofessionals under appropriate supervision. Many are designing and implementing innovative and exemplary programs—some on pilot bases—to better utilize the lesser skilled in capacities which provide needed but otherwise unavailable services to both the school and the community. Through other PACE programs, educators are experimenting to determine the best means to recruit, train, motivate, and supervise these new human resources and to develop measures for evaluating their impact upon learning.

The following descriptions of PACE projects now in the planning or operational stages illustrate the extreme flexibility and diversity of uses for these new personnel resources. They attempt to show the advantages and mutual benefits which may result from well-conceived programs for the pupil and the paraprofessional and for the school and the community.

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Curriculum Resource Volunteers

To enrich the learning environment of all elementary school children in the community, school officials in Minneapolis, Minnesota, are establishing a program to utilize volunteer community resource persons in the classroom. Community volunteers with special talents, experiences, hobbies, or occupations that coincide with areas of study in the curriculum can contribute in a variety of ways. Volunteers may furnish additional information, supplement units, or extend the experiences of children through demonstrations and discussions of their occupations, experiences, and hobbies.

Each volunteer, initially, is scheduled in a classroom so that his contribution may be evaluated by a consultant (the principal, the classroom teacher, or the program director) in the curriculum areas involved. Suggestions then are made to the volunteer of ways in which his presentation might be better adapted to the age group involved—for example, visual materials such as charts or slides might be recommended.

A monthly newsletter, issued to all elementary school teachers and principals, gives suggestions for the use of volunteers and information on specific volunteers. In addition, information sheets are prepared concerning volunteers whose contributions appear worthwhile, and these are incorporated into loose-leaf guidebooks which are placed in each school.

The Male Image

A PACE project in Arlington, Massachusetts, is intended to improve the learning situation for boys in grades K-2 by providing male teacher aides with whom the boys can identify. The program is based on the theory that the boys need to be around men not only at home but in a learning context as well. Boys with learning problems are often those from fatherless homes or where fathers give little time to the children. Educators in Arlington feel that a man in the classroom who values learning can show boys that school activities can be masculine and can provide a new image of learning for them. The attention of a male tutor may take the place of visits to the school guidance counselor and of costly remedial work.

The experiment involves six schools in Arling-

ton and 600 public school pupils in kindergarten and first and second grades. Aides are recruited from the graduate schools in the Boston area and from members of the Arlington community. The teacher aides need not be trained or experienced in teaching, but emphasis is placed on using men who are imaginative and creative and who enjoy learning and working with children.

Aides work in the classroom for about two hours a day, assisting in the teaching of basic skills. In addition, each aide conducts tutorial sessions with small groups of boys who have already repeated a grade or who have trouble learning. These sessions are informal, and the activities are determined by the boys' needs.

While any increase in personal attention would undoubtedly bring about some improvement in the boys, the main purpose of this experiment is to demonstrate that personal attention from a man will have more effect on a boy's ability to learn than the same attention coming from a woman. In order to judge how much more boys can learn from a man, the schools have some women teacher aides working with groups of boys who are slow learners. When the interest and achievement of students in the two different types of groups are measured, school officials believe that the results will provide dramatic evidence of the need for male teachers in the lower grades.

Library Aides

School officials in St. Louis, Missouri, feel that all of the functions of the library need not be accomplished in a single location and that a librarian's job can be divided into separate teaching, clerical, and guidance functions with different people performing each function.

This PACE project involves ten overcrowded schools in a low-income area of downtown St. Louis. In each school, the room which once served as a library has long since been appropriated for classroom space. Since library space is nonexistent, entire school buildings are considered "libraries"; halls, entrance ways, and other unused space serve as repositories.

The main collection of books is in the Library Services Center, a separate building serving all ten schools. Here the new books are processed, with much of the work being done by a computer. The books are then taken to individual schools where a library clerk takes charge of them.

Volunteers are recruited to work part-time in the schools as library aides. They help select the books for each grade level and work with each child individually. Volunteers learn to understand and interpret reading test scores and receive training in children's literature and story telling before beginning to work in the schools. They stimulate students to read and they work closely with the teacher, learning all they can about the children.

Educators in St. Louis feel this project makes the best of a bad situation. It enables students to receive more personal attention than they would with only one librarian on duty.

Senior Citizens and Youth

Through a comprehensive PACE program to utilize all available inter-community resources, educators in Riverside, California, are giving minority group children the opportunity to interact with educators, scientists, artists, athletes, public employees, and various civic and cultural representatives. The program strives to promote the active involvement of senior citizens by enlisting their talents, interests, and vital enthusiasms to help educate and enrich the experiences of disadvantaged students.

Officials hope that the project will help to establish a dynamic interrelationship between the young and the very old in the community, with the aim of stimulating value judgments, increased levels of aspirations, and higher goals. Interaction is fostered through concerts, demonstrations, lectures, or informal gatherings, using a variety of stimulation aids such as films, slides, or recordings. Other activities might include group participation in visual art, drama, and dance programs, or instruction in sewing, in the culinary arts, and in wood-working.

Work-Study for Teenagers

Thirty teen-age girls from disadvantaged areas of Brooklyn, New York, are increasing their chances of achieving productive adult lives by serving as paid teacher aides two hours each day. Using an interdisciplinary approach with a wealth of resource personnel—including psychiatrists, pediatricians, public health officials, and cosmetologists—the program attempts to strengthen the family for future years through the development of the teen-age girl's self-image as she grows into adulthood.

The fact that inner-city teen-age girls may often be in charge of younger siblings for a major part of the day while the mothers are working often causes hostility and unrealistic attitudes about the mother's role in the family. Through this action program, educators in Brooklyn hope to break the cycle of poor communication between mother and children which results in alienation in many families.

These young women are becoming involved directly with children under the supervision of professionals who are trained in specific aspects of child care and family living.

Reading Clinic

Concerned about the large number of students in their district needing special attention in remedial reading, educators in Omaha, Nebraska, have established a reading clinic to serve area schools.

It is estimated that 10 to 15 per cent or 8,500 of the pupils in the Omaha district have mild or severe reading disabilities. Although eight special teachers in the public school system had been teaching remedial reading and giving diagnostic services, there was a great need for more teachers and for a central facility to serve children with the most serious problems.

The clinic serves as a diagnostic center and provides training for those students who cannot receive sufficient help at the home school. Two reading clinicians make up the permanent staff, with one clinician serving half-time as director. Four teachers from the school district serve at the clinic each year, teaching those students with severe reading problems and receiving advanced training from the staff clinicians. At the end of the school year, they have increased their knowledge of reading education and broadened their experience. They are then reassigned to a district school.

About eight full-time lay volunteers have been assigned to assist the professional staff. Volunteers who are interested in children and willing to learn clinic procedures are selected for part-time work. They help teach some of the remedial reading students, assist clinic members in testing and evaluating equipment, and catalogue clinic materials, enabling professionals to give more attention to pupils.

Colleges in the area have recently stepped up

their training programs for reading specialists and use the clinic for demonstrations in teacher education. The new equipment and techniques used there attract interest throughout the area, supporting the clinic's role as a model for future facilities of this type in the region.

Communication Skills Tutors

The target of a Logan City, Utah, Title III communication skills project is the student in the middle academic range who is neither high nor low on the scholastic ladder and who is quite often ignored. The "C" student who gets by but never distinguishes himself often is left in the educational limbo, these educators feel, because he belongs to neither of the extremes which attract attention.

Senior students in a teacher education program at nearby Utah State University are recruited as special tutors to work with underachieving students in an effort to improve their reading and writing skills. As students learn to express themselves verbally about what they read, they gain the ability to develop ideas for written expression. Tutors help them expand ideas through discussion. They then show them how to organize their ideas and put them into good prose.

Tutors are required to have a good understanding of children and some knowledge of child psychology. They themselves must be competent in reading and writing skills and be able to evaluate another's writing. They must also have the ability to stimulate and involve their students.

School officials believe that the close relationship between student and tutor will stimulate students to achieve in other areas, while the strong guidance of the tutors will enable them to advance substantially in communication skills.

Opportunity to Gain Professional Status

To strengthen communication between home and school and to foster a greater mutual understanding, as well as to provide more individual attention for pupils, the New York City Board of Education is training parents and others in "Spanish Harlem" to work in classrooms.

The project is unique in that it offers members of the low income area who have at least an eighth grade education an opportunity to attain professional status as teachers. Candidates chosen for the project must demonstrate a willingness to

advance in responsibility and education as well as an ability to work well with children. They begin by performing simple tasks to assist the teacher who herself is studying to gain a greater understanding of Puerto Rican and Negro cultures. The assistant receives training in teaching skills from New York University professors. She also has frequent conferences with cooperating teachers. The assistant is salaried, a factor which often enables her to remain in the program. An assistant with the ability and desire to progress can advance, through study and experience, to the positions of teacher associate, teacher, and supervising teacher.

The program also has important advantages for the school. Relieved of many nonteaching duties, the teacher can devote herself more fully to the students. Pupils receive greater attention in the classroom and benefit from having a member of their own neighborhood in a position of authority at the school. Puerto Rican and Negro children have persons from their cultures to emulate, while white children may overcome prejudicial attitudes by seeing a Negro or Puerto Rican as a leader.

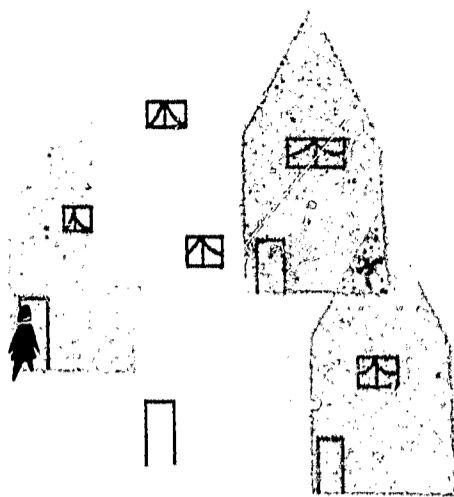
Avenues Unlimited

Many other PACE project participants are finding that the avenues for imaginative program development in the use of paraprofessionals are unlimited. In addition to helping in areas of acute staff shortages, such personnel are helping to make large classes more manageable and learning more meaningful. They also are having an effect upon school organization; newer concepts such as flexible scheduling, team teaching, and independent study may become easier to implement with their assistance. Some educators are discovering that through well-planned uses of trained aides, high staff turnover as a result of large classes, problem students, or work overload may be lessened.

Fostering the further study and use of paraprofessionals on a paid as well as a volunteer basis in various school-related activities may help to provide answers to many school and community problems, both economic and educational. Through the use of these aides in many capacities, school officials are finding a new source of manpower and new patterns of staff utilization. In addition, they are creating exciting auxiliary positions in school programs and new job opportunities for citizens in their communities.

An Elementary Principal Views the Feminine Mystique

ROBERT F. HILLENBRAND



In her book, *The Feminine Mystique*, Betty Friedan tells in a scholarly fashion how American women have been persuaded to seek the shelter of their homes and points out that advertising and industry have a strong interest in keeping them there. Her stand is that this concept of the femininity of the American housewife has impaired her opportunity for intellectual growth and has endangered the emotional development of her children.

No elementary school principal can realistically feel that service to the school will answer all the needs women have to fulfill positive and useful roles in society other than the role of housewife—a position that Mrs. Friedan places at the bottom of the scale of productive roles open to women. But there are possibilities and opportunities that are often missed. Unfortunately, mothers who conscientiously want to provide help to the school program often get caught up in a somewhat traditional PTA pattern of operation that does little to foster productive home and school relations. Furthermore, there is seldom a creative plan for using parent talent to improve the educational opportunities of elementary school children.

The talents of the parent group of any school can be identified and tabulated through the use of a questionnaire developed by the parents' organization in cooperation with members of the school staff and sent to the home of every student. A good questionnaire will list areas in which a housewife can serve the school on a volunteer basis and will also provide opportunity for the parent to add other areas, depending on indi-

vidual talents and interests. The questionnaire should also ask for the days and hours when mothers will be available. The information obtained will provide names, addresses, telephone numbers, areas of interest or skill, and times available to the school. The itemizing of information can be a function of the parents' organization rather than of the principal's office.

This search for talent is not merely an effort to relieve a principal and his staff of some of their more mundane tasks; it is, rather, a sincere effort to locate parental talents and resources that can enrich the total educational program of the school. At Beebe School we have discovered a number of ways in which mothers can be of real service to the school and at the same time find satisfaction in the contributions they make.

The School Library

The elementary school library often is unstaffed or understaffed. Even when there is a full-time librarian, lay helpers can be of great benefit to the school library. Much of the clerical work and shelving can be performed by mothers under the direction of a librarian, thus freeing the librarian to use the professional skills she has. Originally, Beebe School had a library but no librarian. A parent volunteer was found who had a teaching and librarian background. This volunteer helped to organize our library, developed the use of other volunteer help, and, in time, was hired as a school

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librarian. Her performance and those of the volunteers made the need of a qualified librarian more evident than it ever had been before.

A committee of the Naperville school librarians has developed the following suggestions for work that may be assigned to volunteer library aides:

Clerical Work

Typing correspondence, bibliographies, and lists, requisitions for books and supplies, overdue notices, catalog cards

Circulating books

Filing: circulation; clippings; pictures; periodicals

Checking orders

Taking inventory

Keeping statistical records

Putting up displays

Accessioning

Checking periodicals

Mechanical Work

Carding books

Shelving and shelf reading

Labeling: books, audiovisual materials

Pasting and stamping books and audiovisual materials

Mending books and audiovisual materials

Caring for periodicals

Mounting pictures

Collating books

Cleaning books

Library housekeeping

Nurse's Helpers

Usually, through the health and safety committee or some similarly titled committee of the parents' organization, help is given the school nurse during eye and ear checks, height and weight measurements, and routine record keeping. The pool of parent talent uncovered through the use of the questionnaire will often point up a number of mothers who are former nurses, willing to aid the school nurse on a volunteer basis.

Picture Ladies

A fast growing movement in many school systems is the use of "Picture Ladies" as a means of fostering art appreciation in the elementary school. The concept of the Picture Lady Program is that mothers, on a monthly basis, present a work

of art (usually a reproduction of a painting but sometimes a piece of sculpture) to a class.

The Picture Ladies, through the use of creative dramatics, develop an atmosphere conducive to responsiveness toward the art object offered. The painting or sculpture is left to "live with" each class for approximately a month. At the end of this time the Picture Lady returns and exchanges it for another piece of excellence. To set the stage, the Picture Lady may bring with her anything from a rooster to a 19th century bathtub. Or she may bring nothing—nothing but a creative, informed mind.

After this endeavor was started at Beebe School, we discovered that many of the women who willingly served as Picture Ladies were former teachers, art majors, college graduates in a variety of fields, or housewives with a genuine desire to make children more aware aesthetically.

The training program included tours of and workshops at the Chicago Art Institute for the Picture Ladies themselves and the discovery of resources such as the Chicago Public Schools Art Society. During its embryo stage, the program, through an informal connection with the Naperville Art League, sponsored a workshop on the successful "Show Me A Picture" program conducted in the Rockford, Illinois, schools; a series of lectures by visiting Chicago Art Institute lecturers; and a series of lectures with slides offered by the chairman of the Art Department of North Central College, Naperville, Illinois—all for the benefit of the women spending time voluntarily with children.

Parents learned about this new approach in teaching art appreciation by observing a presentation with a class and its Picture Lady during an evening meeting of the parents' organization.

The Picture Lady Program, possibly more than any other parent activity in the school, allows for artistic and individual development of the women themselves. At the same time, it adds a valuable dimension to the art curriculum of the school.

School Newspaper

A school newspaper can be an effective instrument of communication between the home and school. A good school paper will carry news of coming events, calendar-type information, reports of classroom activities, and examples of student writing. At Beebe School, *The Compendium* was

organized under the editorship of a parent who had a graduate journalism background and had served as editor of a number of papers, including a political paper and a church newsletter. She established a format for our paper and developed the procedures for getting materials and having the central administration office print it. After she and her family moved to another state, other people were able to continue the work she had started.

Clerical Help

There is an increasing need for clerical help in the elementary school with usually only a limited amount of paid help available. An investigation of parent talents will uncover many women with clerical skills and experience. Volunteer clerical help can be particularly helpful on kindergarten round-up days, opening days of school, and at orientation meetings for parents. During the first day of school, parent clerks can aid in the distribution of materials and the collection of forms and fees.

Special Projects

Parents can be useful on special projects that may be of an occasional nature. For example: during the past American Education Week, a committee of mothers prepared a map showing the birthplace of all of our 690 students. It graphically illustrated the high mobility of our suburban neighborhood school.

Recently a parent volunteer, through an announcement in our school paper, formed a group of both parent and pupil volunteers to come to school on a Saturday to help with the landscaping. Their work included the usual landscaping activities of pruning, weeding, and planting.

For three years, our school has sponsored a Kite Day in the spring. The children make kites at home with the assistance of their parents. Then during recess periods on Kite Day, classes fly their kites. They are judged on a number of categories by a committee of parents. Ribbons are awarded by grade level for originality of design and the effectiveness of flying performance.

The use of parents as resource people on an expanded and varied basis can bring new experiences in learning to children. Furthermore, the women who are involved have an opportunity to donate their talents to a productive enterprise—the education of their children.