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AUTHOR	Getz, Howard G.
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ABSTRACT

The use of paraprofessionals (lay readers, instructional aides, clerical aides, and homekeeping aides) in secondary English departments in a three-state area (Illinois, Indiana, and Michigan) is determined and evaluated. Chapter One reviews related literature, and Chapter Two surveys paraprofessionals in the English departments. Questionnaires were sent to schools using paraprofessionals and to schools that had discontinued using them. Findings relate to the following conclusions reached: (1) Larger schools (1,500 or more students) were more likely to use paraprofessionals and less likely to discontinue that use; (2) Schools seemed willing to hire lay readers but not instructional aides; (3) Paraprofessionals were paid near adequate salaries; (4) The involvement of English department heads with the selection of paraprofessionals seemed inadequate; (5) Preschool and inservice training for both paraprofessionals and teachers who used paraprofessionals was unsatisfactory; (6) The evaluation policy was inadequate; and (7) The ratings of paraprofessional programs as successful by approximately 86% of the schools could be considered adequate. Recommendations for more effective use of paraprofessionals are made. Twenty-three tables and a bibliography are included. Appendix A is a Questionnaire Sent to Schools Using Paraprofessionals during the 1968-69 School Year; Appendix B is a Questionnaire Sent to Schools That Had Discontinued Paraprofessional Use. (Author/LS)

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PARAPROFESSIONALS IN THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

Howard G. Getz

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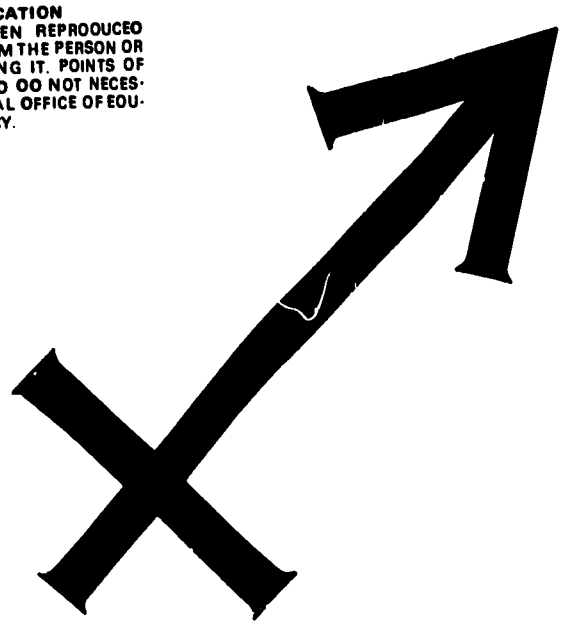

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Segittarius is represented by an upward pointing bow end errow, a symbol of the ettempt to strike out in new directions in search of the truth. Those born under this sign ere seid to be sympathetic, deep-thinking, independent men and women, well suited to the role of paraprofessionals.

NCTE/ERIC Studies in the Teaching of English

PARAPROFESSIONALS IN THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

Knowledge is of two kinds: we know a subject ourselves, or we know where we can find information upon it.

– Samuel Johnson

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PARAPROFESSIONALS IN THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

HOWARD G. GETZ
ILLINOIS STATE UNIVERSITY

National Council of Teachers of English
Educational Resources Information Center
Clearinghouse on the Teaching of English
1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois 61801

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FOREWORD TO THE SERIES

The National Center for Educational Research and Development (NCERD—formerly the Bureau of Research) of the United States Office of Education has in recent years considerably expanded its support to basic and applied research in education. It has also made possible and encouraged the dissemination of findings and conclusions. As the body of information derived from research has expanded, however, so has the gap between research and classroom teaching. Recognizing this problem, NCERD has charged ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) to go beyond its initial function of gathering, evaluating, indexing, and disseminating information to a significant new service: information analysis and synthesis.

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Each state-of-the-art paper focuses on a concrete educational need. The paper attempts a comprehensive treatment and qualitative assessment of the published and unpublished material on the topic. The author reviews relevant research, curriculum trends, teaching materials, the judgments of recognized experts in the field, reports and findings from various national committees and commissions. In his analysis he tries to answer the question "Where are we?"; sometimes finds order in apparently disparate approaches; often points in new directions. The knowledge contained in a state-of-the-art paper is a necessary foundation for reviewing existing curricula and planning new beginnings.

NCTE/ERIC, with direction and major substantive assistance from its Advisory Committee, has identified a number of timely and important problem areas in the teaching of English and has commissioned state-of-the-art papers from knowledgeable members of the profession. It is hoped that this series of papers, each subject to review by the National Council of Teachers of English Committee on Publications, will provide a place to stand. The next step is the lever.

Bernard O'Donnell
Director, NCTE/ERIC

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INTRODUCTION

In the past decade a number of new innovations were introduced on the American educational scene. Some of them, like SMSG (School Mathematics Study Group) math or BSCS (Biological Sciences Curriculum Study) biology, started as the result of the technological and space race, received funding from the National Science Foundation as well as other governmental programs, and therefore mushroomed quickly into widely used programs. Other innovations, while perhaps equally relevant to the problems of American education, did not fall on such fertile ground and grew at a much slower rate. Only gradually did they gain the acceptance of teachers and the general public.

Among the latter group of innovations was the paraprofessional program. Paraprofessionals had been used in American classrooms as early as the 1800s (63:94).[1] However, the Ford Foundation experiment in 1952-57 using paraprofessionals in the Bay City, Michigan, schools was the first systematic approach to this type of program. Alarmed at studies showing that some teachers used from 21 to 69 percent of their time on nonteaching chores (35:48), the Bay City officials attempted to free teachers for the more significant of their instructional tasks by hiring housewives and other community personnel to perform clerical, housekeeping, and paper-correcting tasks.

The Bay City Plan drew a great deal of professional criticism, particularly from teachers who saw this as an administrative device for hiring fewer teachers and enlarging class size. At the same time, many other teachers who were either overloaded with noninstructional jobs or overloaded with pupils saw a modest panacea for their problems in the paraprofessional program. English teachers in particular, burdened by increasing class size and the growing demand for more student writing

[1] All references in parentheses are coded to correspond to the books and articles cited in the bibliography which begins on page 74.

(and, consequently, more teacher grading), sought relief through the use of paraprofessionals.

In the late 1950s, aided by a Ford Foundation grant, Educational Testing Service conducted a lay reader experiment that started in 3 high schools in Massachusetts and New Jersey and expanded to 16 high schools throughout the country (35:50). An important outgrowth of the study was the discovery that most communities had an abundance of the kinds of talent required to help English teachers (27:229).

The two projects mentioned above suggested the possibilities for utilizing paraprofessionals in the general school program as well as in the particular area of English. But few studies are available to show how paraprofessionals are actually being utilized, particularly in instructional departments. The Educational Research Service of the American Association of School Administrators-National Education Association conducted a large-scale study on the utilization of teacher aides in large school systems throughout the United States (28:1). Statewide studies on the use of paraprofessionals were conducted by Moody (46) in Pennsylvania and more recently in Indiana by Kinghorn (41) and Kindy (40). While these studies probably were of considerable interest to generalists, they were less relevant to those who were involved with a specific subject area such as English, thus the need for the present study.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS MONOGRAPH

Virtually every major educational conference in the past few years has had a section devoted to the discussion of paraprofessionals. Particularly in the elementary school, use of teacher aides (one of many synonyms for paraprofessionals) is a common topic. Yet a lack of fundamental knowledge about specific practices involving paraprofessionals has long been a major problem. Additionally, while many articles have been written on the subject, compilations of these articles are rare and, where they exist, less than adequate. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine and then to evaluate the use of paraprofessionals (lay readers, instructional aides, clerical aides, and housekeeping aides) in secondary English departments in a three-state area, Illinois, Indiana, and Michigan. Among the

various items with which this study concerned itself were the following:

1. the number and type of schools–metropolitan, suburban, and nonmetropolitan–using paraprofessionals;
2. the pay scale for each type of paraprofessional;
3. the relationships, if any, between the size of the school and the types of paraprofessionals employed;
4. the nature of the duties performed by each identifiable category of paraprofessional;
5. the various processes followed in selecting paraprofessionals;
6. the local training of paraprofessionals for their duties, including preservice preparation and preopening workshops as well as in-service preparation and on-the-job training;
7. the local preparation of teachers for work with paraprofessionals, including preservice preparation and preopening workshops, in-service preparation, and on-the-job training;
8. the degree to which handbooks, guides, or job descriptions were used to outline paraprofessional tasks for teachers and for paraprofessionals;
9. practices and procedures related to the supervision and evaluation of paraprofessionals including methods of, responsibility for, and frequency of supervision and evaluation.

The study also concerned itself with schools that had discontinued the use of paraprofessionals. With these schools the main purpose of the study was to determine the reason for the discontinuation. A secondary purpose was to determine how satisfied these schools had been with paraprofessionals.

Although the items mentioned above were studied in relation to all four categories of paraprofessionals,[2] special consideration was given to their relationship to lay readers. This emphasis was an attempt to reflect the current interest in the lay reader program. This interest, as seen in the literature, resulted in part from the publicized conclusions of successful experiments carried out by Educational Testing Service and by the U.S. Office of Health, Education, and Welfare (13:9).

The intermittent debate in periodicals between adherents and opponents of lay reader programs during the early 1960s merits

[2]The four categories were later reduced to three since so few schools used housekeeping aides in their English departments. Of 44 housekeeping aides reported in the survey, 32 were from one suburban school.

mention here. An overview of the situation giving some idea of the opposing issues was presented by Burke and Richards in the *NEA Journal* (14:20-22). Another example of the discussion on lay readers was found in *English Journal* with Ford (34:522) taking the positive side and Krueger (42:528) the negative. Although the lay reader program now has few opponents, interest in the program is seen in discussions of its merits by the Department of Classroom Teachers (25:126), by the National Council of Teachers of English (50:47), by Blondino (7:1028), and by Squire and Applebee (72:123).

WHAT'S IN A NAME?

The term used in the title of this monograph, *paraprofessional,* is only one of many designations used to distinguish the jobs of people who help teachers. Shakespeare's troubled lover who asked, "What's in a name?" (68:43) saw only one aspect of the terminology problem. When confronted with as many as seven other terms that have the same meaning as *paraprofessional,* the educator first looking into this area is sure to be confused.

Joseph Lancaster (43:42), who in 1798 started using senior boys to teach reading and writing to as many as 1000 students at a time, called these helpers *monitors.* In more recent times the helpers have been called *nonteachers* by J. William Rioux (65:42), while John K. Fisher (33:49) has called them *subprofessionals* and Robert Cloward (18:604) referred to them as *nonprofessionals.*

J. Lloyd Trump (78:80), well-known for his innovations in scheduling and team teaching, referred to these helpers as *teacher assistants.* In a 1964 book, Henry J. Otto (59:80) used the term *paraprofessional* to name the noncertificated member of a teaching team; and at a 1968 preconvention institute, the International Reading Association used the same term to label teacher helpers.[3] The chairman of that institute, however, preferred to think of paraprofessionals as professionals who work

[3]Pre-Convention Institute VI, *Use of Paraprofessionals in the Teaching of Reading,* International Reading Association, April 23-24, 1968.

beside other professionals (e.g., a psychologist working beside an educator).[4]

The Department of Classroom Teachers, in a booklet about the classroom teacher's supportive staff, seemingly skirts the name issue by using both *paraprofessional* and *auxiliary personnel* in the same context and on adjoining pages (24:14). The U.S. Office of Education and the National Education Association, however, take firmer stands and call the helpers *teacher aides.* In fact, the U.S. Office of Education specifically defines a *teacher aide* as "a person who assists a teacher in the performance of his professional teaching or administrative duties" (63). The National Education Association similarly defines these aides as "all nonprofessionals who relieve regular teachers of some nonteaching duties, whether they are paid or volunteer their time" (28:2). The term *teacher aide* also became widespread because of its use in the Ford Foundation-sponsored Bay City experiment (61:99). In addition, this term was adopted by both the Illinois Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction (60:1) and the New England Educational Assessment Project (54:1).

The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards recognized both *teacher aides* and *paraprofessionals* as possible terms but preferred to use *auxiliary personnel* as did the Bank Street College of Education (55:1) in its numerous projects involving lay helpers. This writer, after considering the many possibilities, preferred the term *paraprofessional.*

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Specific terms, as they are used in this monograph, are defined as follows:

Clerical aides. Paraprofessionals who help teachers by performing clerical tasks, grading objective test papers, recording grades, and doing comparable tasks.

Department head. The head of the English department.

Housekeeping aides. Paraprofessionals whose main assignments are housekeeping duties such as preparing bulletin

[4]Statement by Douglas G. Ellson of Indiana University, November 26, 1968.

boards, collecting money, running errands, distributing and collecting materials, operating audio-visual equipment, and making arrangements for field trips.

Instructional aides. Paraprofessionals who help classroom teachers with such tasks as working with small groups on special projects, helping students complete individual work when the teacher is busy, and checking students' make-up work, including assignments missed due to absence.

Lay readers. Paraprofessionals who are basically limited to reading themes, holding conferences with students, checking revisions and corrections of themes, and conferring with the teacher about such papers.

Metropolitan district. A county or group of contiguous counties containing at least 50,000 persons and conforming to certain other specific criteria. Examples are Chicago, Detroit, and St. Louis.

Nonmetropolitan district. A district that lies outside a metropolitan district.

Paraprofessionals. The inclusive group of clerical aides, housekeeping aides, instructional aides, and lay readers employed by the school.

SMSA. Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, a term from the *U.S. Census of Population: 1970 Preliminary Report.* For this study, SMSA will refer to three population groups: metropolitan, suburban, and nonmetropolitan.

Suburban district. A district in a given metropolitan area that is not the central city district. Examples are Evanston, Livonia, and East St. Louis.

OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

Chapter 1 deals with the literature available on paraprofessionals. The first section of this chapter gives a brief historical review of the use of paraprofessionals, from the eighteenth-century occurrences in India and England to the recent and continuing Bank Street College of Education studies.

The next four sections involve paraprofessional programs as a whole. In section two the use of objectives with paraprofessional programs is discussed. Section three contains descriptions of suggested as well as actual practices involving the recruiting,

screening, and selecting of paraprofessionals. This is followed by a section on tasks for these lay personnel. The fifth section contains a discussion of the training of paraprofessionals from both theoretical and practical standpoints.

Section six includes descriptions of three specific types of paraprofessionals: housekeeping aides, clerical aides, and instructional aides. Since the lay reader is of especial concern to English teachers, section seven is devoted to this one type of paraprofessional. The eighth and last section provides an overview of guidelines, laws, and recommendations on the use of paraprofessionals.

The results of the three-state study are found in chapter 2. The first part of this chapter deals with schools that used paraprofessionals during the 1968-69 school year. Besides giving general information, this section discusses paraprofessional duties, selection and supervision, training programs, evaluation, and overall program ratings. The second part of chapter 2 deals with schools that had discontinued the use of paraprofessionals before the 1968-69 school year and cites reasons for the discontinuation.

The final chapter of this monograph presents an evaluative summary; a summary of findings, both from schools that used paraprofessionals and schools that had discontinued that use; conclusions; and recommendations for more effective use of paraprofessionals.

CHAPTER ONE

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The paraprofessional is a topic widely discussed in current professional literature. While only a few articles were seen in professional journals before 1959, a rather constant number was written from 1960 to 1964, and a mounting interest in paraprofessionals since 1966 has been reflected by the increasing number of articles and books available on the subject. Before the time of this study, most of the literature was descriptive and all of the research had been descriptive and subjective.

GENERAL OVERVIEW OF THE PARAPROFESSIONAL PROGRAM

The use of paraprofessionals in teaching has an extensive history. Among the earliest publicized situations were two similar and yet apparently unrelated cases, both occurring at the end of the eighteenth century. In Madras, India, Andrew Bell (6) used tutors and teacher assistants extensively to aid his educational program at the Male Asylum. At about the same time, Southwark, England, was the scene of Joseph Lancaster's use of monitors (43:21). Lancaster's project was perhaps the better known because of his extensive writing on the subject. Bringing into his school poor boys who otherwise would not be receiving an education, Lancaster emphasized the small cost of educating up to 1000 students at a time with the help of monitors—senior boys who had already gone through the program. Every day each monitor taught one plain, simple fact or procedure—perhaps the tracing of one letter in the sand—to his group of 40 boys. The next day another fact or procedure was added while previous ones were tested. While studies were not made to test the effectiveness of this teaching, the low cost per pupil was known and widely publicized.

In 1805, the Free School Society of New York adopted the Lancasterian system and retained this as the official system of New York City until 1853. Economy, of course, was the reason for the adoption, but the resulting poor instruction under this system eventually led to the abandonment of the program (64:94).

Although paraprofessionals were used in a few programs between 1853 and the present, the first extensive program was developed in Bay City, Michigan, in 1952, the result of elaborate studies made jointly by the Central Michigan College of Education and the public schools of Bay City (35:48). Charles B. Park, superintendent of the Bay City schools, first wanted to know how much of each teacher's time was spent in routine tasks not closely associated with instruction: cleaning blackboards, helping children with clothes, collecting money, monitoring lunchrooms and playgrounds, taking attendance, watering plants, etc. The results of a stopwatch survey of the system's 137 elementary teachers showed them devoting from one and a quarter hours to four hours and nine minutes of each day to these nonteaching chores (47:64).

Other reasons for the study were to scrutinize methods and materials of instruction, to examine recruitment practices, to evaluate teacher education in terms of changing needs, and to try out experimentally new and different ideas bearing on each of these areas (61:102).

The first steps taken as a result of the survey were the hiring and training of teacher aides to be used in the 45-student experimental classrooms (control classes contained 30 students). Compared to the results of the original time studies of teachers without aides, new time and motion surveys of teachers using aides showed these teachers (1) spending one-fifth more time making assignments, (2) adding more than a full hour of classroom recitation each day, (3) giving 27 percent more individual help to each pupil, (4) spending 48 percent less time on nonprofessional and clerical chores, (5) giving more personal counseling to students, and (6) spending over twice as much time on important lesson plans.

Besides having the advantages mentioned above, the Bay City aide program was apparently successful in hiring well-qualified aides, in giving them a good training program, in carefully

matching aides and teachers, and in leading some aides into a teacher-education program as a result of their experiences.

For all of the advantages of the program, however, criticism focused on the impossibility of dividing teaching duties into professional and nonprofessional categories. Further concerns included the decline of high teaching standards because of the use of nonprofessionals, the employment of nonprofessionals to take the place of professionals, and the threat of nonprofessional availability keeping professional salaries depressed (47:73).

Perhaps the sharpest criticism, however, concerned adding more students to the classes in which aides were to be used. Instead of using aides without an additional expenditure of money, some critics suggested that Bay City officials face the fact that adding paraprofessionals to a profession inevitably costs more money (74:333).

While the Bay City experiment was the target of some criticism, it also opened the door for additional teacher aide projects. Fairfield, Connecticut, and New York City were the scenes of projects that followed the Bay City experiment. The Fairfield project involved unpaid volunteers and paid assistants; the New York City project, using volunteers only, grew from 20 to 250 aides in only a few years (35:50).

Research involving paraprofessionals became widespread in the 1960s. Many programs involved the use of lay readers, which will be discussed later. Others, like a high school study in Logan City, Utah, involved paraprofessionals used in any way to help the language arts teacher. Although both favorable and unfavorable reactions were cited at Logan City, teachers using paraprofessionals concluded that they preferred smaller class loads without the help of auxiliaries rather than large class loads with auxiliaries (56:175).

A 1967 survey of teacher aides in large school systems was undertaken by the Educational Research Service of the American Association of School Administrators (AASA)-National Education Association (NEA). This survey showed that in most schools aides were first used in 1965-66. Almost three-fourths of these aides (74.2 percent) were paid, rather than being volunteer help, and only 15.6 percent of the aides were found in the senior high school. Most of the schools responding to the evaluation section made favorable remarks about their parapro-

fessional program, particularly emphasizing the need for the program (28:2-3, 11).

The need for incorporating paraprofessional programs into the school program has been recognized by many. Harold Howe, former U.S. commissioner of education, said that in view of the increasing manpower deficit, we must start using community resources to the fullest advantage. He also said these auxiliary jobs must not be dead-end but must allow talented subprofessionals to move up a scale of increasingly difficult jobs (39:57). An earlier report from a White House conference on education acknowledged this need and recommended that we carefully study the teacher's duties to determine what can be economically delegated to nonprofessionals (21:391).

The Bank Street College of Education explained the need for paraprofessionals as an outgrowth of what is heard every day about the school. Students complain that home and school teach opposite ways of acting, talking, even eating. Parents lament that the schools do not teach their children to read. Teachers ask how they can give extra time to those who need it when so many demands are made on their time. Administrators question how the demands for additional, needed services can be met when too little money is available. One answer to these problems, according to the Bank Street College of Education, is the use of paraprofessionals (often parents) as teacher aides, family workers, and counselor aides (55:2-4).

Senator Gaylord Nelson of Wisconsin, who proposed a teacher aide bill to the U.S. Senate, felt that menial tasks and poor pay have tarnished the image of the teacher. He thought that the use of teacher aides could help reshape the teacher's professional image (53:40-44).

Regardless of the reasons for using paraprofessionals, there has been an upsurge of interest in the program, possibly the result of the increased availability of both personnel and funds. One study (17:58) corroborated this to a degree by showing that the wealthy, large suburban high schools tended to be the fastest to accept such an innovation. The National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards (NCTEPS) gave the following additional reasons: expanding need and demand for school services; new dimensions in education (e.g., expanded curriculum, concept of differentiated roles for teachers); a heightened awareness of the special needs of all

children, especially the disadvantaged; and the belief that better communication between teachers and students of different backgrounds can be gained by hiring indigenous personnel (4:7).

The use of paraprofessionals to aid teachers goes hand in hand with the concept of differentiated staffing. And although there are different opinions about the make-up of teaching teams, working models for the team structure are available. Franklin School in Lexington, Massachusetts, had a formal hierarchy made up of team leaders, senior teachers, regular teachers, student interns, and clerical aides (35:12). Anderson (2:114) not only approved of the hierarchy but also felt the tasks of the school should be organized by levels of difficulty, the more difficult tasks being performed by the more competent members of the team.

Widespread resistance to differentiated roles has been expressed by both teachers and theoreticians, but equally widespread is the feeling among teachers that paraprofessionals provide a great deal of assistance. In fact, 51.4 percent of teachers responding to an NEA poll said their aides were of "great assistance," while 38.4 percent checked "some assistance." Only 10.2 percent checked "little" or "no assistance" (51:16). In a survey of 30 California districts by *Nation's Schools,* 19 indicated that aides provided a great deal of improvement to the school program, 10 districts reported some improvement, and 1 district noted very little improvement (22:68).

The Bank Street College of Education studies at California State Colleges, Southern Illinois University, University of South Florida, and in Puerto Rico showed typical teacher reactions to paraprofessionals. Although apprehension was initially expressed by most teachers who were to receive disadvantaged parents and students as aides, this apprehension soon turned to relief and then to appreciation for the success of the aide projects. In some cases, of course, doubts and concerns persevered. Members of the Bank Street faculty pointed out, however, that problems that did persist probably could have been avoided if there had been adequate specification of roles and functions prior to the project's initiation (8:6).

PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

If any one area of development of paraprofessional programs seems inadequate, it is the setting of objectives for each program. In the previous section several paragraphs were devoted to the need for introducing paraprofessional programs; in fact, the need for these programs pervades the literature. By comparison, objectives for neophyte or established programs are generally not available. The 1967 AASA-NEA questionnaire on teacher aides in large school systems asked these systems to enclose any guides, handbooks, or other publications available on their teacher aide program. Of 16 publications received, virtually all gave job descriptions, but only 1 included objectives of the program (28:52).

Objectives, while not plentiful, are available. One writer (32:3), explaining a paraprofessional program in reading, gave objectives that showed concern for the present teacher's status as well as for that of the auxiliaries. Another, also involved in a reading program, presented objectives giving emphasis to individualization during reading instruction with a large number of eighth graders who were reading several years below grade level (67:19). Cloward (19) used student tutors to help fourth and fifth graders improve reading skills. His objectives were quite precise: to find (1) which tutor variable or combination of tutor variables best predicted gains in tutor reading skills and (2) which tutor variable or combination of tutor variables best predicted gains in reading skills of pupils.

Where objectives of studies were imprecise, conclusions tended to be equally imprecise. In one study of staff utilization, a typical objective was to discover if using teacher aides made the teaching of remedial math more effective. The findings were that the use of teacher aides seemed to work "quite well" (16:224).

In comparison to the above objective, the Bank Street College of Education's studies required objectives that were far more precise. A paper by Bowman and Klopf (8:4) exploring the overall plan suggested objectives relating to the pupil, the teacher, other professionals, the paraprofessional, the school administrator, family life, and the community at large. A

second publication from the Bank Street College of Education gave equally precise objectives that involved only paraprofessionals (55:7).

RECRUITING, SCREENING, AND SELECTING

Recruiting. For a paraprofessional program to begin successfully, a recruitment program designed to bring in people with the proper qualifications is necessary. Burke suggested that the best means for recruiting lay readers was to advertise through the local newspaper. She listed the following advantages of this method:

> First, advertising is the fairest way to tap all community resources and secure the best available. Second, with three or four times as many applicants as needed and with competition keen, it is not difficult to explain to an individual why she has not been selected. Third, the impersonality of this method protects the school against charges of nepotism or favoritism. (13:16)

Cutler (22:69) also suggested using advertisements but felt that this method should be supplemented by PTA announcements, by referrals from the community, and by contacting retired teachers and those on substitute lists. Perkins and Becker (62:40) prescribed a list similar to Cutler's but added that announcements should be sent home with the children. Using television and word-of-mouth communication were also among their suggestions. The Educational Research Service of AASA-NEA further recommended using employment agencies and local colleges (28:6).

While the suggestions given above were quite good, in actual practice only one or two of these ideas were generally used in any given situation. Investigating recruitment practices in several large cities, Noar (57:12) found one school system using only newspaper advertising while a second system used announcements in the neighborhood center. Both systems averaged over 20 applicants for each job available. In Altoona, Pennsylvania, surveys among PTA groups produced four qualified applicants for each position (9:61).

To recruit disadvantaged Appalachian high school students for paraprofessional positions, Ohio University used high school

principals as well as newspaper advertising to spread the word (58:3). Sawyer (67:17) used high school English teachers to recruit reading tutors, and a Puerto Rican project used vocational guidance counselors, principals, and teachers to recruit paraprofessionals for Head Start programs (20:2). The California State Colleges used schools, churches, and neighborhood delegate agencies (e.g., a community action agency) to aid recruitment of Head Start paraprofessionals (15:5).

Screening. Once applications for positions have been received, the next step toward a successful program involves screening these candidates. Procedures for screening vary appreciably. NCTEPS (48:12) said that a preliminary step was to set up ground rules for selecting people. Then, after interviews with applicants, screening would be worked into the training program.

In comparison, Burke (13:17-18) proposed an elaborate screening process for prospective lay readers. As part of her program, she insisted that all applicants go through exactly the same screening process. First, she would invite all interested persons to attend a meeting where the program would be explained and an application blank would be filled out. About a week later tests would be taken, the results determining whether the applicant was considered an "active" (good) or "inactive" (reserve) prospect. Personal interviews, given to at least the active group and possibly to the inactive group also, would be the third and final screening stage.

Noar (57:14) observed that the criteria for screening paraprofessionals generally involved one or more of the following: a judgment on personality traits, test scores, and educational requirements. Perkins and Becker (62:40-44) relied primarily on an application blank to be filled out. However, they also suggested sending each applicant a letter stating the qualifications needed, nature of the position, and compensation. They felt that unqualified applicants would then screen themselves out.

In actual practice, screening processes varied as much as the suggestions above. A Southern Illinois University project used the following criteria for screening: level of verbal ability, level of reading comprehension, attitudes toward institutions, and involvement in community organizations (70:2). Sawyer (67:12) reported the following qualifications as part of the screening process for aides in North Carolina's elementary instructional

programs: (1) 60 semester hours of college preparation; (2) good physical health; (3) interest in the program and a friendly, understanding disposition toward children; and (4) intelligence, cooperativeness, resourcefulness, and industriousness.

Brannick (9:61) showed that prior education, background, work history, and test results were the criteria used by the Altoona, Pennsylvania, aide program. Both Ohio University (58:4) and Ellson (29) relied on short interviews to screen prospective candidates, while the Puerto Rican project used questionnaires and interviews for screening (20:3).

Selecting. Once the screening process is over, the selection of paraprofessionals is generally just a matter of having one or more people use the screening criteria to decide on the best-qualified candidates. Burke (13:19) warned, however, that screening is also a matter of rejecting candidates. Therefore, carefully worded letters should be sent to both those chosen and those rejected. Burke did not say who should be involved in the selections. Perkins and Becker (62:44) felt that the selecting team should include members of the main office staff (generally the principal, but if clerical help is involved, the business manager) and the team leader or teacher to whom the auxiliary is assigned. Both Archer (3:1) and Wilson (82:3) thought an aide should never be assigned without the acceptance of the teacher with whom the aide would be working.

In the paraprofessional project with which Sawyer was involved, the selection committee was composed of the principal, guidance director, reading teacher, representatives of various content areas, and the sponsor of the student NEA club (67:17). A national survey by *Nation's Schools* showed that selection was generally made by the administrative staff. In New York, for instance, in only 7 percent of the schools was there cooperation between teachers and administrators (22:116). The survey of large school systems by the Educational Research Service showed the central office staff involved in 93 percent of the selections while teachers were involved in only 29 percent (28:8).

TASKS GIVEN PARAPROFESSIONALS

Of the areas of interest relating to paraprofessionals, the one discussed most frequently in the literature is the tasks given these personnel. Some articles divided tasks according to the type of paraprofessional to be employed. Others presented long lists of precisely described tasks for the paraprofessional. Still others included brief lists of all-encompassing activities, while a fourth group described jobs actually being performed by auxiliaries.

Archer (3:2) separated paraprofessionals into two types–task-oriented aides and people-oriented aides. The former group would perform such tasks as grading papers, typing tests, collecting money, filling out reports, duplicating materials, and building up displays. The people-oriented aides would help the teacher on instructional tasks without intruding on the teacher's domain.

Noar, rather than suggesting particular duties for paraprofessionals, presented questions and issues to be resolved, such as, "Should paraprofessionals be thought of and used as change agents? . . . Would one well-trained, full-time secretary, for example, do more and better work than a number of adult aides who come in for several hours two or three days a week or a number of student aides who may or may not show up when expected?" (57:21).

Before identifying uses of paraprofessionals, Bowman and Klopf (8:6-7) felt that specifically defining the roles and prerogatives of paraprofessionals was essential; one of the ways this definition of roles would help would be to prevent the overuse of paraprofessionals in roles which teachers should fill.

Long lists of paraprofessional tasks are readily available in the literature. Of the lists available, that presented by the Bank Street College of Education (55:8), while not the most inclusive, is perhaps the most useful because it separates the functions according to the type of aides who should perform them. In her article, Brunner not only provided the standard list of tasks but also stressed the psychological importance of the paraprofessional, particularly to children (11:21).

Suggestions on how to use aides are undoubtedly important. Equally important, however, is knowing how aides are actually used. Presenting the results of its study of paraprofessionl use in

large school systems, the Educational Research Service (28:4) ranked the following list of duties with the duty performed most often by paraprofessionals at the top of the list:

1. duplicating tests and other materials
2. helping with classroom housekeeping
3. typing class materials, tests, etc.
4. setting up A-V equipment and other instructional materials
5. helping with children's clothing
6. supervising playground
7. correcting tests, homework, workbooks, etc.
8. reading aloud and story-telling
9. assisting in school library
10. collecting money from pupils
11. supervising cafeteria
12. recording data in student files
13. keeping attendance register and preparing attendance reports
14. tutoring small groups of students while teacher works with others
15. ordering A-V materials and other supplies
16. tutoring individual students
17. supervising loading and unloading of buses
18. helping with discipline
19. assisting in school laboratory
20. monitoring corridors
21. reading and correcting students' themes
22. administering tests

Ellson (29:7-8) found that three kinds of tasks are commonly assigned to paraprofessionals: activities not involving teaching (e.g., clerical work, operation of audio-visual equipment), teacher-support activities (e.g., reading stories, supervising study periods), and actual teaching or assisting instruction.

In his study of selected Pennsylvania schools, Moody (46:72) discovered that of the diverse tasks performed by paraprofessionals, secondary teachers thought that the typing of tests was the most helpful. It was also the task most often performed. Kindy's study of Indiana secondary schools (40) and a study by the New England Educational Assessment Project (54:6-7) similarly discovered that teachers asked their aides for clerical assistance more often than for any other kind of assistance.

TRAINING OF PARAPROFESSIONALS

A well-prepared training program is one of the essential elements in a successful paraprofessional program. Suggestions for training are readily available to the interested, and these suggestions are adequately varied to fit most budgets and most existing conditions. To help state education agencies encourage the development of paraprofessional programs, Congress passed the Education Professions Development Act in 1967. States requesting funds were to submit plans which provided for the preservice and inservice training of paraprofessionals (1:9-10).

Among the suggested paraprofessional programs available, Brunner (11:22) emphasized inservice training consisting of regular planning sessions with the teacher, conferences on children's needs, regular staff meetings, workshop sessions, and evaluation sessions. The Department of Classroom Teachers (25:117) asked administrators to consider two training sessions—one for teachers and one for paraprofessionals.

Perkins and Becker (62:48), realizing how busy teachers generally are, thought that on-the-job training had to be supplemented with workshops. Ample time could then be given to procedures for filling out records and reports. Even audio-visual workshops emphasizing machine operation could be provided.

Ferver and Cook (31:23), in their handbook for teachers and administrators, provided a broad curriculum outline for training aides. Their outline started with an orientation program and worked through training programs for each subject area. By comparison Burke (13:19-20) presented training programs in one subject area, suggesting a relatively complete program for lay readers in English.

In their booklet on paraprofessionals, NCTEPS (48:12) stressed flexibility in training programs. They felt that training should depend on the jobs to which paraprofessionals were assigned as well as the attained educational levels of auxiliaries. Placing the burden of training on the individual schools was designed to help each program fit its school.

A nationwide study conducted by the Bank Street College of Education (55:5) convinced this group that team training of

teachers and their auxiliaries was the essential element for effective use of paraprofessionals. Therefore, they briefly suggested specific training programs for each type of paraprofessional and for teachers working with each type of paraprofessional.

With all of the possible help provided from these publications, one must still realize, however, that more than a good training procedure is necessary to produce a good paraprofessional program. As a member of an urban teacher education committee noted, unless the project moves into the middle of the school curriculum and unless the superintendent feels the program is worthwhile, even a good training program will not help (74:327).

Once teacher aides were selected, some type of training was given in over 92 percent of the schools surveyed by NEA (52:38). However, most frequently this training was composed only of conferences between aides and supervisors. Of 217 schools surveyed by the Educational Research Service, 82 percent made the teachers with whom aides were working responsible for the aides' training (28:9).

In each school system studied, the training seemed to be unique to that system. Bay City's training program consisted of weekly two-hour workshops (47:73). In Arlington Heights, Illinois, training programs for paraprofessionals began three weeks before the fall term. In addition, on-the-job training was available. When later evaluating their programs, Arlington Heights school officials thought a weekly inservice session also should have been provided (16:218).

At Cordoza High School in Washington, D.C., the program to train inner-city high school students to be community service paraprofessionals was a part of the high school curriculum. Students spent approximately half the school day in a special academic program. The remaining half-day was spent at an on-the-job training station (23:23-27).

Sawyer (67:18) reported that high school seniors hired as paraprofessionals in a high school reading program were given a two-week reading workshop before the fall semester. In addition, intensive training was given on the job. Most of the time was spent in studying materials and in role playing. Ellson's programmed tutors (29:11), by comparison, were provided a simple yet exact training. They were given one concrete

and explicit set of rules and then trained to follow these rules precisely.

How much training actually occurs in a given situation is generally a matter of opinion. In Moody's study of Pennsylvania schools (46:105), 60 percent of the administrators contacted indicated they had a training and orientation program for aides. However, only 30 percent of the elementary aides and 37.5 percent of the secondary aides from the same schools reported having undergone a training and orientation program.

HOUSEKEEPING, CLERICAL, AND INSTRUCTIONAL AIDES

The four types of paraprofessionals considered in this survey were housekeeping aides, clerical aides, instructional aides, and lay readers. Extensive discussion of lay readers, because of their widespread use, was found in the literature. Therefore, a separate section has been devoted to them. Since far less has been written about the other three types of paraprofessionals, they will be considered together in this section.

Housekeeping Aides. Very little has been reported concerning housekeeping aides. Trump's description of a "general aide" for the high school matches that used for a housekeeping aide in this study (77:367). In some schools Neighborhood Youth Corps enrollees have concentrated on housekeeping chores (24:121). Duties for these aides included cleaning and oiling audio-visual equipment, cleaning blackboards and desks, and performing custodial tasks. Aside from these references, every other mention of housekeeping aides was on the elementary level.

Clerical Aides. Clerical aides were an important part of the literature. In his suggestions for an instructional staff, Trump (77:367) considered the clerk to be an integral part of this staff, working 40 hours per week and dividing this time among four teachers.

Perkins and Becker (62:45) recognized that the clerical aide was indispensable, but they suggested that the skills required of these aides should depend on their assignments. For example, typing skills are generally necessary for all clerical aides. But for some clerical positions, office skills other than typing are less

essential than initiative and intelligence. High professional ethics, for example, might be the prime prerequisite for an aide who is to work with confidential records.

To start providing clerical assistance, Trump and Baynham (78:107) gave the following procedures. Teachers would first be asked to list all the clerical tasks they performed and then to estimate the time spent on these tasks. They would then indicate how they would use this time if they had clerical assistance. Once the information was gathered together, recommendations could be made to the school board. Trump and Baynham further suggested a slow start, perhaps hiring only one clerical aide the first year.

In the field of English, the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) (49:15) made the following recommendation: "Every English department should be given part-time clerical help and in a large department (fifteen or more teachers) full-time clerical help should be available." NCTE further suggested that where a teacher's pupil load was too great (more than four classes of 25 students each), one clerical assistant should be available for each six or seven teachers. James Squire (71:252), former executive secretary of NCTE, added that the department chairman required a half-time typist and clerk to maintain departmental records.

Another publication by NCTE (50:48) raised many points about clerical aides, but the final one reflected the primary concern of most people who question the use of paraprofessionals: Will teachers become more effective once they have more time for preparations, conferences, and evaluation?

In a study of the classroom use of clerical aides in Davidson County, Tennessee, Turney (79:339) found that secretarial help was a real boon to the teacher. Time saved by clerical help led to improvement in the teachers' instructional program and to uses of more as well as a greater variety of instructional materials. More adequate provisions for individual differences also resulted. And 72 percent of the participating teachers said that secretarial assistance affected their methods of planning for instruction.

Both the Neighborhood Youth Corps and the New York City School Volunteer Program (24:121-25) placed their enrollees in clerical aide positions in the schools. In all of these cases, the

primary goal was to save time for the teacher. One study showed that secretaries saved each teacher almost 100 hours per year, and teacher records indicated that 76 percent of this time saved was used for improvement of the instructional program (24:135).

Instructional Aides. Although not used as universally as clerical aides, instructional aides were certainly as important. In his proposed instructional staff, Trump (77:367) ranked the paraprofessional assistant (either an instructional aide or a lay reader) next in importance to the professional teacher.

In an argument that teacher aides should be more than clerks, Esbenson (30:237) provided some convincing arguments for the use of instructional aides. While arguing that teacher aides should be under the supervision of the classroom teacher, he also felt that aides were qualified to take over many tasks related to instruction. Some of these included reading to students, helping them locate materials, and repeating directions and assignments. Esbenson felt that an aide should be restricted only by his own limitations.

Marks (45:56-60) thought that the instructional aide, whom he called an assistant teacher, might perform the following tasks in English:

1. compile spelling lists from reading to be assigned
2. develop lessons and research projects to improve students' library skills
3. develop materials for use by retarded readers
4. improve articulation by consulting junior high schools
5. conduct individual make-up tests
6. present closely supervised lessons in his area of specialty
7. take responsibility for a semester-long activity

In guidelines prepared by a committee of the Indiana State Teachers Association (76:2-4), the following instructional activities were suggested:

1. talking quietly with a pupil who is upset
2. telling a pupil what happened when he was absent
3. helping a pupil locate information
4. taking charge of a small group working on a special project while the teacher works with another group
5. helping pupils with drill activities

At University City, Missouri, instructional aides were an important part of the instructional program (80:43). Most of the activities listed above were implemented in the program. In addition aides worked with pupil committees, answered messages, and even took care of fringe disciplinary activities.

Trump and Baynham (78:82-83) reported on the use of instructional aides in several schools. At Alexander Ramsey High School, Roseville, Minnesota, aides were hired to supervise extra science laboratory sessions during the daily student activity period, one afternoon a week, and on Saturday mornings. At another school college students used as aides were given the following responsibilities: (1) management of desk work during class; (2) supervision of various subgroups, both high and low levels; and (3) routine checking of student work.

Volunteers in New York City have been used for a wide variety of tasks. Among these were scoring and tabulating tests, working with small groups, and collecting and preparing materials for science projects (25:125). At Clover Park High School in Tacoma, Washington, instructional aides in the English department corrected tests, vocabulary notebooks, research papers, and some themes (37:247).

LAY READERS

Most of the literature studied involving paraprofessionals in English departments centered around the use of lay readers. English teachers have long been faced with a dilemma—a desire to have students write more without having time to read and evaluate the writing. "Contract correcting" by a lay reader seemed to be one solution to this dilemma. Under this system qualified lay personnel were hired, provided a brief training program, and then given a certain number of themes to evaluate (78:83).

From 1956 to 1959 the Fund for the Advancement of Education sponsored a lay reader project designed by Educational Testing Service (35:50-51). Initial trials were held in 3 school systems in New Jersey and Massachusetts. Later 16 other high schools throughout the country were brought into the experiment.

One of the systems to take part in the expanded Educational Testing Service project was Des Moines, Iowa. Classes assisted

by lay readers were not expected to show any marked improvement over other classes. It was only hoped that students in these classes would not suffer from having lay readers (38:9). Teachers participating in the study seemed quite pleased with their lay readers. One teacher, who had a newspaper TV critic for a lay reader, was eager to continue the program because of the superior job done by the reader (73:14). Other teachers, while noting the project's shortcomings, also realized that students were able to write more and receive a fair criticism of their writing. These teachers regretted that the program was not to be continued (5:12-13).

For a lay reader program to be successful, some guidelines should be followed. Perkins and Becker (62:37-38) suggested that aides be selected and screened carefully, that a close working relationship be established between teacher and reader, and that the aide be introduced into the program by stages. Further, a test of English usage was suggested for selecting the readers.

As mentioned previously, Burke (13) had compiled rather complete guidelines for lay readers. Her book carried suggestions for each phase of the program: recruiting, screening, selecting, training, and using. She suggested that the lay reader program could provide several achievable goals: a way to improve the writing of students, an inservice training program for teachers, a step toward curriculum revision in composition, and a new outlook toward student writing.

After hearing all the benefits of the lay reader program, Krueger (42:533) still thought some questions needed to be asked. He seemed most interested in knowing whether the lay reader could do an adequate job of evaluating compositions, particularly when the reader did not know the students as individuals.

An NCTE publication (50:47-48) also asked many questions about the lay reader program. Besides questioning how effective the lay reader would be, it suggested that questions remain about professional qualifications, proper remuneration, and delineations of responsibility.

To help improve lay reader programs, Burke and Diederich offered further suggestions. Burke (12:261) felt that consistent guidance was essential to the program. Diederich first suggested what he called the Rutgers Plan (27:230-34). According to this

plan, lay readers would grade three of every four papers. Several days each week the students would read in large groups, under the supervision of instructional aides. The remaining days the teacher would meet with small groups, trying to individualize instruction. Under this plan teachers would see fewer students per day, and yet more papers would be written and more books would be read.

In a later paper, Diederich (26:4-5) commented that the lay reader program was the only realistic way to have students write more. He further stated that by grading just one out of every four papers written (about one paper per month), teachers would not lose touch with their students. His main suggestion for readers was that they look for as many good things as possible in papers and for only one major point of improvement. With only one area to improve at a time instead of many, students might be able to face the challenge of improvement.

Further suggestions to improve the mechanics of the lay reader program were suggested by Wilson (81:350). She felt that the teacher first had to evaluate the reader before appropriate work could be assigned. The reader must also get to know the student's work. Here Wilson suggested a method whereby the reader had a carbon copy of comments the teacher had written on each student's previous themes. A review of these comments would then tell the reader whether the student was improving his writing.

Since 1961, and particularly in 1964, a plethora of articles has been written to show how operative lay reader programs functioned. Among the most interesting articles was one by Ford (34:522-28). In explaining the early Educational Testing Service program, Ford brought out some revealing information. While determining the value of a program, he learned that testing seniors too late in the school year produced poor results, probably because they were thinking of college, not high school. He also found that a program does not prove itself until the second year of operation. By that time teachers and readers have learned to function as a team.

Singleton (69:44-46) presented a program using twelfth grade honor students to grade themes of large eleventh grade classes. Most graders found that their own knowledge of usage improved perceptibly once they were forced to mark other papers. Mahnke's report (44:40) of the lay reader program in

Plymouth, Wisconsin, showed one regular English teacher being relieved of his teaching duties to work as a lay reader for the rest of the department.

The New York City Volunteer Program (25:126) used volunteers to grade papers in the classroom and also to talk individually with each student in an attempt to improve his writing. Blondino (7:1028-31), in a report of a Kent, Washington, program, showed that using lay readers according to firmly set guidelines helped to stabilize the program. The Kent teachers, when given a choice, voted unanimously to retain the program rather than spend the same amount of money on other teacher services.

Sauer (66:54-59), reporting on the early lay reader programs, concluded that the writing graded by lay readers did improve each year, but not at the .05 level of significance. However, the amount of writing increased appreciably in his school's program and the students also gained from the frequent conferences. This study confirmed the reports of other studies that an adequate supply of enthusiastic readers is readily available in virtually all communities.

Conducting a study of lay readers at Urbana, Illinois, Braun (10:54) failed to prove that the writing of even superior students improved when lay readers were used. Teachers did, however, appreciate the relief provided by lay readers, and they did assign more themes to students.

In a national study of high school English departments by Squire and Applebee (72:123), 20 percent of the participating schools indicated they used lay readers. In general, student response to the lay readers was negative. The authors suggested that lay readers will not improve a poor writing program, but they can make a good one better. The authors also found that the best programs were in schools where the teacher load was already down to four classes with not more than a total of 115 to 125 students.

GUIDELINES, LAWS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

To aid educators in the administration of paraprofessional programs, some of the literature is devoted to guidelines for use of paraprofessionals, reviews of legislation concerning parapro-

fessionals, and recommendations for more effective use of paraprofessionals.

A committee of the Indiana State Teachers Association provided nine general guidelines for the use of paraprofessionals (76:2-4). These guidelines stressed the importance of the professional staff in determining policies, directing supervision, and selecting, aiding in the training of, and evaluating paraprofessionals.

State laws and regulations certainly affect the use of paraprofessionals. A 1967 article says that aides in Florida were not allowed to instruct pupils, assume responsibility for classes, assign actual grades on papers or tests, or administer discipline (75:39). The following year in Illinois, while being allowed a considerable amount of latitude, aides could not supervise a study hall or initiate instruction (60:1). Nevada enacted perhaps the most comprehensive legislation regarding paraprofessionals, even requiring local boards to develop written policies governing the duties and functions of paraprofessionals (1:5-6). In the state of Washington, paraprofessionals had the same legal rights as other noncertified school employees (3:3).

Although the states mentioned above do have statutes involving paraprofessionals, enacting legislation has not been the trend. Where statutes do not exist, however, judicial precedents indicate that local districts have the power to hire and pay paraprofessionals (1:4).

Recommendations for the better use of paraprofessionals were presented by several authors. As the result of a study of library aides, Cashen (16:219) included the following recommendations, most of which are applicable to all types of paraprofessionals:

1. Provide time in the day's program for the assistant and the librarian to work together.
2. Choose a mature person with the ability to handle large groups.
3. Establish the assistant as a faculty member.
4. Do not attempt to give too much training too fast.
5. Have a definite course of study for the assistant to follow.
6. Plan carefully exactly what the assistant's duties are.
7. Inform the assistant very definitely about the extent of her responsibilities.
8. Do not be impatient at an apparent lack of progress or understanding.
9. In all facets of the program, proceed slowly.

Noall and Wilson (56:177) gave similar recommendations, but fitted them specifically to the language arts program. One additional suggestion they gave was that the teacher and assistant must agree on the correction and grading policies.

Perkins and Becker (62:46-48) suggested five steps for the introduction of any program. Besides recommending a training program, adequate space, and an interesting variety of jobs for paraprofessionals, they also encouraged starting on a small scale.

Longer lists of recommendations were presented by the Department of Classroom Teachers (24:24-33) and the Bank Street College of Education (55:14-15). The former group's suggestions were part of a proposed action program. The Bank Street recommendations came as the result of information gained from the 15 demonstration programs. While these lists are too long to be included here, they should be considered worthwhile reading for those about to enter into a paraprofessional program.

CHAPTER TWO

A SURVEY OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS

In order to determine the use of paraprofessionals in secondary school English departments, a survey was made of all of the North Central Association accredited secondary schools in a three-state area, Illinois, Indiana, and Michigan. This survey attempted to identify schools as one of the following:

1. schools that used paraprofessionals in their English departments during the 1968-69 school year;
2. schools that had used paraprofessionals in their English departments at one time but had since discontinued; or
3. schools that had never used paraprofessionals in their English departments.

Of the 1131 questionnaires sent out, 916 or 81 percent were returned. Of the 916 schools that returned questionnaires, 751 or 82 percent had never used paraprofessionals, 44 or 4.8 percent had used paraprofessionals but had since discontinued that use, and 121 schools or 13.2 percent were then using paraprofessionals.

As a result of the information gained from the first questionnaire, a two-pronged attack was decided upon. First, detailed questionnaires were sent to those schools that used paraprofessionals during the 1968-69 school year (see Appendix A). A second questionnaire, considerably shorter than the first, was sent to those schools that had previously used paraprofessionals but had discontinued that use (Appendix B).

Within this monograph, school districts are considered to be of one of three types: metropolitan, suburban, or non-metropolitan; the basis for the SMSA classifications can be found on page 6. Each of the three types of districts is further divided into individual school enrollments: 0-499, 500-999, 1000-1499, 1500-1999, and 2000 or more.

SCHOOLS USING PARAPROFESSIONALS

Of the 121 questionnaires sent out to schools using paraprofessionals, 90 (74 percent) were returned, but only 79 (65 percent) were usable—that is, complete enough to provide adequate statistical input. As is apparent from table 1, of the 79 schools, 23 were metropolitan, 36 were suburban, and 20 were nonmetropolitan.

TABLE 1. SCHOOLS USING PARAPROFESSIONALS

Enrollment	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS BY SMSA CATEGORY			Total
	Metropolitan	Suburban	Nonmetropolitan	
0-499	1 (4%)	1 (3%)	5 (25%)	7 (9%)
500-999		4 (11%)	8 (40%)	12 (15%)
1000-1499	1 (4%)	5 (14%)	3 (15%)	9 (11%)
1500-1999	8 (35%)	9 (25%)	2 (10%)	19 (24%)
2000 or more	13 (57%)	17 (47%)	2 (10%)	32 (41%)
Total	23 (100%)	36 (100%)	20 (100%)	79 (100%)

Enrollments of 1500 or more students were found in 92 percent of the metropolitan schools, 72 percent of the suburban, and 20 percent of the nonmetropolitan. Of the total 79 responding schools, 51, or 65 percent, enrolled 1500 or more students.

When the returns from all 79 schools were in, a follow-up visit was made to 15 of the schools to see if the returned questionnaires accurately reflected the paraprofessional programs in those schools. In Illinois and Indiana, one school was randomly selected from those in each of the five enrollment categories. Since the third state, Michigan, had no schools returning questionnaires that were in the 0 to 499 enrollment category, four schools from that state were randomly selected, one from each of the remaining enrollment categories. The fifth school was selected at random from all the remaining Michigan schools in the study. Of all the schools visited, returned questionnaires

seemed to reflect the current situation in the schools as observed by the writer. The writer therefore assumed the questionnaires from the schools not visited also reflected the current situation in those schools.

As can be noted in Appendix A, the questionnaire was quite long and involved. For the purpose of the study, therefore, the particular items assumed to be of greatest interest to English teachers, department heads, and others responsible for English programs were taken from the questionnaire and processed by the computer; these items are discussed in this chapter.

While many items from the questionnaire relating to the use of paraprofessionals in English departments are referred to in the rest of this chapter, emphasis is placed on the following:

1. teaching load of secondary English teachers (table 2)
2. number of years paraprofessionals had been hired
3. methods of funding paraprofessional use (table 3)
4. number of each type of paraprofessional used (table 4)
5. mean number of hours each type of paraprofessional worked
6. salary ranges for each type of paraprofessional (tables 5 and 6)
7. duties performed by each type of paraprofessional (table 7)
8. personnel participating in the selection of each type of paraprofessional (tables 8 and 9)
9. supervisory practices used for each type of paraprofessional (tables 10 and 11)
10. training programs provided for each type of paraprofessional (tables 12 and 13)
11. training programs for teachers using paraprofessionals (table 14)
12. evaluation practices for each type of paraprofessional (tables 15 and 16)
13. ratings of the paraprofessional programs (table 17)

The 13 items listed above can easily be divided into five general categories: the first 6 items can be considered general information about paraprofessionals; the second category, item 7, presents information on the duties of the various types of paraprofessionals; items 8 and 9 deal with selection and supervision of paraprofessionals; the fourth group, items 10 and 11, covers training programs; and the fifth group, items 12 and 13, discusses ratings of paraprofessional programs.

General information. Table 2 shows the listed teaching loads of secondary English teachers in the responding schools. It might be noted that the average teaching load in metropolitan

TABLE 2. TEACHING LOADS OF ENGLISH TEACHERS IN RESPONDING SCHOOLS

Number of Students per Teacher	Number of Schools, by SMSA Category and Enrollment																		
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
0-99								1				1	2					2	3
100-124	1			3	1	5		1	3	7	12	24	3	5	1	2	1	12	41
125-149			1	4	8	13		2	2	1	5	10		3	2		1	6	29
150-174				1	4	5				1		1							6
175 +																			0
Total	1	0	1	8	13	23	1	4	5	9	17	36	5	8	3	2	2	20	79

schools was considerably higher than that found in suburban or nonmetropolitan schools. For example, in three of the four enrollment categories represented, 50 percent or more of the metropolitan schools had teaching loads for their English teachers that fell in the 125 to 149 range. By comparison, in four of the five enrollment categories, a majority of both suburban and nonmetropolitan schools had teaching loads in English of fewer than 125 students. In fact, in the nonmetropolitan schools having fewer than 500 students, all five schools had English teaching loads of fewer than 125 students.

The absence of schools with extreme teaching loads might also be noted in table 2. For instance, in no schools did the teaching load average 175 students or above; and in only three schools did a teaching load of fewer than 100 students exist. However, both the mean teaching load (124.34) and the mean number of classes assigned to English teachers (4.84) were well above the NCTE recommendations of each English teacher having four classes with an average of 25 students per class.

As was mentioned in chapter 1, a great deal of the information on paraprofessionals has been written since 1966. This should not be construed, however, to mean that most schools had just begun using paraprofessionals at that time. Surprisingly, 26.5 percent of the responding schools in this study had had paraprofessional programs for nine or more years; and virtually half of the schools (46.8 percent) had been using paraprofessionals in their English departments for five or more years. Only 18 schools, or 22.8 percent, were in their first or second year of using paraprofessionals.

One of the grave concerns for any school considering entrance into a paraprofessional program is the matter of funding. In fact, in a day when the defeat of school bonds is becoming the rule rather than the exception, funding is of prime importance. As can be seen in table 3, most schools in this study use local funds for paying their paraprofessionals. In only three metropolitan, three suburban and three nonmetropolitan schools were the paraprofessionals not paid. Title I, ESEA was used in only two metropolitan schools and five suburban schools; in nonmetropolitan schools, however, it was used more than local funding was.

While Title I funding was important in nonmetropolitan schools, for the most part federal funding did not play a major

TABLE 3. FUNDING OF PARAPROFESSIONALS

Source of Funding	NUMBER OF RESPONSES, BY SCHOOL SMSA CATEGORY AND ENROLLMENT																		Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
None (no remuneration)	1			1	1	3			1	2		3	1	2				3	9
Local funds			1	5	11	17		1	3	6	17	27	1	4	1	1	1	8	52
Title I, ESEA				1	1	2	1	2		1	1	5	3	2	2	1	1	9	16
Title III, ESEA				1		1		1		1	1	3							4
OEO				1	2	3			1			1							4
Other																			0
Total	1	0	1	9	15	26	1	4	5	10	19	39	5	8	3	2	2	20	85

Note: In answering the questionnaires, schools may have checked more than one response for each question. The totals given in most of the tables, therefore, represent the total number of responses; the number of schools remained constant.

role in paraprofessional use. In metropolitan schools Title I funds were only used in two schools, Title III in one school, and OEO funds in three schools. One is led to infer from these data that federal monies have either not been made readily available for paying paraprofessionals or have not been considered essential for paraprofessional programs.

What kinds of paraprofessionals seem to be most in demand in English departments? Of course, most English teachers appreciate the availability of assistance in the typing of tests and other papers as well as in the tutoring of individual students; however, English teachers as a whole seem to be most in need of relief from the mountainous piles of themes that are continually expected and most often demanded in a quality English program.

Of the 616 paraprofessionals reported in use in the 79 schools, 396 or 64.4 percent were lay readers. Instructional aides, who are often judged second in importance to lay readers for English teachers, made up only 5 percent of the total number of paraprofessionals in the programs, while the 145 clerical aides represented 23.5 percent of the total number of paraprofessionals hired. Housekeeping aides, while representing a larger percentage of the total than instructional aides (7.1 percent), were found in only 6 schools. Because of this seeming lack of general representation, after table 4 housekeeping aides have been excluded.

Table 4 relates paraprofessionals to the type of school in which they were found. For example, of the metropolitan schools represented by the study, the school with less than 500 students hired only lay readers, while the school that had 1000 to 1499 students hired only clerical aides. In the larger schools a wider variety of paraprofessional use occurred. Of the 36 suburban schools it might be noted that 18 used lay readers—2 of those in the 1000 to 1499 category, 5 in the 1500 to 1999 category, and 11 in the 2000 and more category. Compared to the limited usage of lay readers and other aides according to particular school enrollments, clerical aides were used in 27 of the 36 schools and in every attendance category.

Of the 20 nonmetropolitan schools, 5 used lay readers, 4 (an unusually high proportion) used instructional aides, and 13 used clerical aides as paraprofessionals. However, it should be reemphasized that housekeeping aides generally did not receive

TABLE 4. TYPES OF PARAPROFESSIONALS USED

Type of Paraprofessional	Number of Responses, by School SMSA Category and Enrollment																	Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan					
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
Lay Reader	1			6	11	18			2	5	11	18	1	2	1	1		5	41
Instructional aide				1	2	3		1	1	2	3	7	2	1	1			4	14
Clerical aide			1	4	6	11	1	3	4	6	13	27	2	6	1	2	2	13	51
Housekeeping aide				1	2	3				1	2	3							6
Total	1	0	1	12	21	35	1	4	7	14	29	55	5	9	3	3	2	22	112

wide usage. In fact, housekeeping aides were used in only 3 of the 23 metropolitan schools and in only 3 of the 36 suburban schools. Housekeeping aides were not used in nonmetropolitan schools.

The mean number of hours that each type of paraprofessional worked each week is considered next. Lay readers, for all their value, tended to be used relatively sparingly, only 8.02 hours per week on the average. The mean number of hours instructional aides worked was twice that of lay readers, 16.05 per week, while the mean numbe of hours clerical aides worked was 13.19.

Because of the value of knowing what salary ranges are paid, not only for each particular type of paraprofessional but also by each particular school district, tables 5 and 6 are presented together for this information. As a brief glance at table 5 will show, all types of aides received virtually all types of salaries. And while one might originally think that the smaller schools tended to pay lower salaries, this in fact was not correct. For example, the small school in the 0-499 classification with lay readers paid them over $3.00 per hour, whereas one of the larger schools, with 2000 or more students, paid lay readers from $1.00 to $1.49 per hour. Of the schools using lay readers, 28 paid $2.00 or more per hour, and, of this group, 7 paid over $3.00 per hour.

The wages of the instructional aides seemed to follow a more consistent pattern. Six of the schools hiring instructional aides paid between $1.50 and $1.99 per hour; and three schools that paid instructional aides more than $2.00 per hour found these salaries falling within three different salary ranges. Clerical aides, as might be expected, were generally paid in the low salary ranges. Twenty-five of the schools hiring clerical aides paid these paraprofessionals less than $2.00 per hour, and only two schools paid clerical aides over $3.00 per hour. Mean hourly salaries were $2.48 for lay readers, $1.83 for instructional aides, and $1.91 for clerical aides.

A look at table 6 indicates that the salary ranges varied somewhat according to the SMSA category into which a school fit. For instance, 10 metropolitan schools paid $2.50 per hour and above, whereas only 2 nonmetropolitan schools paid salaries of $2.50 or above. Suburban schools tended to pay relatively high salaries. Only 4 schools paid any type of para-

TABLE 5. SALARIES OF EACH TYPE OF PARAPROFESSIONAL

Salary per Hour	NUMBER OF RESPONSES, BY TYPE OF PARAPROFESSIONAL AND SCHOOL ENROLLMENT																		
	Lay Readers						Instructional Aides						Clerical Aides						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
$1.00 to 1.49				1	1	2	1					1		3	2	4	2	11	14
$1.50 to 1.99		1		2	6	9	1	2	2		1	6	2	5	2	2	3	14	29
$2.00 to 2.49		1	2	2	8	13				1		1			2	2	4	8	22
$2.50 to 2.99				3	5	8					1	1	1		1	2	7	11	20
$3.00 and over	1			4	2	7					1	1					2	2	10
Total	1	2	2	12	22	39	2	2	2	1	3	10	3	8	7	10	18	46	95

TABLE 6. SALARIES OF PARAPROFESSIONALS, BY SCHOOL SMSA CATEGORY

Salary per Hour	Number of Responses, by School SMSA Category and Enrollment																	
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
$1.00 to 1.49			1	3	2	6		2		1	1	4	1	1	1	1		4	14
$1.50 to 1.99			1	8		9	1	2	3	3	1	10	2	6	1		1	10	29
$2.00 to 2.49									3	4	12	19		1	1	1	1	4	23
$2.50 to 2.99			2	5		7			1	3	8	12	1					1	20
$3.00 and over			2	1		3				2	4	6	1					1	10
Total		1	8	16		25	1	4	7	13	26	51	5	8	3	2	2	20	96

professional in the $1.00 to $1.49 range, while 6 schools paid over $3.00 to certain classifications of paraprofessionals. Twelve suburban schools paid paraprofessionals from $2.50 to $2.99 per hour.

Duties. Of real concern to a school is the way it should use its paraprofessionals. Table 7 shows the duties for the three types of paraprofessionals listed. Looking at the lay readers first, one can note that their duties are of two basic types: reading and correcting themes and conferring with students. Seventeen metropolitan schools used lay readers for reading and correcting themes, but only two used them for conferences with students. In the suburban schools the conferences with students were included as a duty in eight schools. Nonmetropolitan schools, like the metropolitan schools, used lay readers primarily for correcting themes.

While instructional aides were used less than lay leaders, their usage was somewhat more varied, consisting of the following: conferring with students, tutoring individual students, tutoring small groups, helping with discipline, and administering tests. It may be noted that instructional aides were limited to the latter two duties in metropolitan districts. Of the suburban schools responding, four used instructional aides for conferences with students, but most frequent usage in these schools was the tutoring of individual students, a duty required by eight of the schools. In five of the suburban schools instructional aides were used for tutoring small groups. In nonmetropolitan schools instructional aides' duties were divided rather equally among all of the duties listed except for helping with discipline–a duty performed in none of these schools.

If the duties for instructional aides were somewhat varied, the duties for clerical aides covered an even wider scale of operations. Only 6 schools used clerical aides for arranging conferences with parents and teachers (2 metropolitan and 4 suburban), and only 9 schools had clerical aides prepare report cards (2 metropolitan and 7 nonmetropolitan). As can be discovered, some of the other duties were more widely accepted. Clerical aides duplicated tests in 45 schools (9 metropolitan, 24 suburban, and 12 nonmetropolitan), and they typed class materials in 43 schools (8 metropolitan, 23 suburban, and 12 nonmetropolitan). Correcting tests was the

TABLE 7. DUTIES OF PARAPROFESSIONALS

Duty	NUMBER OF RESPONSES, BY SCHOOL SMSA CATEGORY AND ENROLLMENT																
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
LAY READERS:																			
Reading & correcting themes	1			5	11	17			2	5	11	18	1	3	1	1		6	41
Conferences with students				1	1	2				2	6	8		1		1		2	12
INSTRUCTIONAL AIDES:																			
Conferences with students									1	2	1	4			1			1	5
Tutoring individual students								1	2	2	3	8	1		1			2	10
Tutoring small groups								1	1	1	2	5	1		1			2	7
Helping with discipline					1	1					2	2							3
Administering tests					2	2		1		1	2	4	1					1	7

TABLE 7. DUTIES OF PARAPROFESSIONALS (Cont.)

Duty	Number of Responses, by School SMSA Category and Enrollment																Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan				
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
CLERICAL AIDES:																			
Preparing report cards				1	1	2							1	4	1	1		7	9
Arranging conferences with parents & teachers					2	2			1		3	4							6
Other correspondence				2	1	3			2	1	2	5	1	3		1		5	13
Ordering A-V equipment					3	3	1	1	1	1	6	10		4		1		5	18
Setting up A-V equipment					1	1	1			2	3	6		2	1	1	1	5	12
Correcting tests		1	1	2	4		2	3	2	4	11	2	4	1	1	2	10	25	
Duplicating tests		1	3	5	9	1	3	4	5	11	24	2	6		2	2	12	45	
Typing class materials		1	3	4	8	1	2	4	5	11	23	1	6	1	2	2	12	43	
Keeping attendance & preparing reports			1	1	2	1			1	3	5	1	3		1		5	12	
Recording data		1	1	2	4	1		1	2	4	8	2	4		1		7	19	

next most standard duty (25 schools) followed by recording data (19 schools) and ordering A-V equipment (18 schools).

When all paraprofessional duties are ranked, the three duties performed in far more schools than any other duties were duplicating tests, 45 schools; typing class materials, 43 schools; and reading and correcting themes, 41 schools.

Selection and supervision. Data involving selection of paraprofessionals are shown in two separate tables, 8 and 9. Selection of paraprofessionals becomes a rather delicate situation, for virtually every school person—from the superintendent to the teacher using paraprofessionals—seems to think that he should be involved in such decisions. As was mentioned in the previous chapter, many authorities thought that the teacher, the principal, and the head of the department in which the paraprofessional would be working should somehow be part of the selection team. If a clerical aide was being selected, however, the inclusion of some central office staff member like the business manager would be totally acceptable.

As shown in table 8, the English department head in 27 of the reporting schools was involved in the selection of lay readers. A central office staff member was the next most involved person (19 schools), while the teacher participated in the selection process in only 7 of the schools. The teacher fared far better in the selection of instructional aides, being involved in as many schools as the department head and in only one less school than the principal. As might be expected, in the hiring of clerical aides the principal was most often involved in the selection (28 schools), followed by the central office staff member (23 schools) and the English department head (21 schools).

When these data are broken down by SMSA category (table 9) rather than by type of paraprofessional, some rather interesting facts can be observed, possibly as a reflection of the type of administrative structure of the schools. In the metropolitan schools the central office staff member was involved in selecting paraprofessionals much more often than any of the other possible selectors; in suburban schools this same status belonged to the English department head, while in nonmetropolitan schools the principal was most often involved in selection.

TABLE 8. PERSONNEL USED TO SELECT EACH TYPE OF PARAPROFESSIONAL

Staff Involved	Number of Responses, by Type of Paraprofessional and School Enrollment																		
	Lay Readers						Instructional Aides						Clerical Aides						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
Superintendent	1	1		1	1	4	1	1	1			3	1	2	2		3	8	15
Other central office staff				6	13	19		1	1		2	4		4	4	5	10	23	46
Principal	2	1	1	2		6	1	2	1	1	1	6	3	5	4	4	12	28	40
English department head	1	2	3	9	12	27			2	2	1	5	1	3	2	8	7	21	53
Teacher		1	2	4		7	2	1		1	1	5		1	1	4		6	18
Other				1	1	2		1			3	4		1		1	4	6	12
Total	4	5	6	23	27	65	4	6	5	4	8	27	5	16	13	22	36	92	184

TABLE 9. PERSONNEL USED TO SELECT PARAPROFESSIONALS, BY SCHOOL SMSA CATEGORY

Staff Involved	Number of Responses, by School SMSA Category and Enrollment																		Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
Superintendent				1	2	3	1		1		1	3	2	4	2		1	9	15
Central office staff			1	6	16	23			3	5	8	16		5	1		1	7	46
Principal	1		1	4	2	8	1	3	2	2	9	17	4	5	3	1	2	15	40
English department head	1		1	6	4	12		2	4	10	15	31	1	3	2	2	1	9	52
Teacher				4		4			3	3	1	7	2	3		2		7	18
Other					4	4		1			4	5		1		2	1	4	13
Total	2	0	3	21	28	54	2	6	13	20	38	79	9	21	8	7	6	51	184

Supervision has always been a problem in schools, whether involving teachers or paraprofessionals. While most teachers and administrators would agree that regular visits are an inherent part of supervision, it is often difficult for administrators or department heads to find time for these visits. Table 10 shows supervisory practices schools used for the different types of paraprofessionals, while table 11 shows the supervisory practices listed according to school SMSA category.

As table 10 indicates, regular visits by either teacher or administrators to supervise paraprofessionals were one of the least-used types of supervisory practices. For lay readers conferences between the teacher and the paraprofessional were used in 34 schools. The next most frequent supervisory practice for lay readers, regular supervision by the department chairman, occurred in only 7 schools. Perhaps because instructional aides tend to work more closely with the teacher, the most common supervisory practice for them was daily supervision by the teacher, which occurred in 8 schools. The next most frequent practice was the conference between the teacher and paraprofessional, occurring in 7 schools.

The type of supervisory practice for clerical aides was somewhat different. Regular supervision by the department chairman was by far the most common practice, occurring twice as frequently as conferences between the administrator and the paraprofessional, the second most frequent method of supervision. This latter practice was followed closely by daily supervision by the teacher and conferences between the teacher and the paraprofessional. Combining all types of paraprofessionals, the conference between teacher and paraprofessional was the most frequently used supervisory practice.
practice.

Table 11 includes a listing of supervisory practices according to school SMSA category. In this table we find far more constant situations than those shown in the previous table. In each of the three SMSA categories, the conference between the teacher and the paraprofessional was the most common supervisory practice; both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan schools used this practice far more often than any other. However, in the suburban schools the importance of the department chairman was seen, for in these schools, regular supervision by the department chairman was almost as im-

TABLE 10. SUPERVISORY PRACTICES FOR EACH TYPE OF PARAPROFESSIONAL

Type of Supervision	Number of Responses, by Type of Paraprofessional and School Enrollment																		
	Lay Readers						Instructional Aides						Clerical Aides						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
Daily supervision by teacher				1		1	2	1		1	4	8		1	2	6	3	12	21
Regular visits by teacher				2	2	4							1					1	5
Regular visits by administrators	1			1		2	1	1				2	1	3	1			5	9
Regular supervision by department chairman				6	1	7		2	1	1	1	5	1	2	2	8	13	26	38
Conference between teacher & paraprofessional	1	2	3	8	20	34	2	1	1	1	2	7	2	3	1	2	4	12	53
Conference between admin. & paraprofessional	1			1	2	4			1	1	1	3	1	3	1	3	5	13	20
Total	3	2	3	19	25	52	5	5	3	4	8	25	6	12	7	19	25	69	146

TABLE 11. SUPERVISORY PRACTICES FOR PARAPROFESSIONALS, BY SCHOOL SMSA CATEGORY

Type of Supervision	NUMBER OF RESPONSES, BY SCHOOL SMSA CATEGORY AND ENROLLMENT																		Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
Daily supervision by teacher				3	4	7			1	4	3	8	2	2	1	1		6	21
Regular visits by teacher				2	2	4							1					1	5
Regular visits by administrators				1		1			1			1	3	4				7	9
Regular supervision by department chairman			1	6	4	11		2	2	7	9	20	1	2		2	2	7	38
Conference between teacher & paraprofessional	1			5	12	18		1	2	4	14	21	4	5	3	2		14	53
Conference between admin. & paraprofessional	1			2	4	7			1	2	4	7	1	3	1	1		6	20
Total	2	0	1	19	26	48	0	3	7	17	30	57	12	16	5	6	2	41	146

portant as the conference between the teacher and the paraprofessional. Of the six listed supervisory practices, regular visits by the teacher were used in the fewest number of schools (five), while regular visits by administrators occurred in only a few more schools (nine).

Training programs. Tables 12 and 13 show the various training programs used–first for each type of paraprofessional and, second, according to school SMSA category. Among the more essential elements of a successful paraprofessional program is a well-prepared training program. The authors cited in chapter 1 varied in their emphasis on the type of training necessary, but they all did agree that the training program could not be overlooked. In most cases this training program would involve preschool institutes, inservice institutes, or a directed study of the curriculum.

The data reported in table 12 revealed that among all three types of paraprofessionals the only training program widely used in the schools (if a training program did exist) was the conference with the immediate supervisors; neither the time nor duration of this conference was indicated, however. One might note that in relation to the 31 schools employing lay readers that had used a conference with the immediate supervisor as their training program, only 2 schools with lay readers used preschool institutes and only 4 used inservice institutes. Training programs for instructional aides were virtually the same as those for lay readers; however, responding schools seemed to treat clerical aides differently, perhaps because of the nature of the clerical aide's duties. For clerical aides the conference was again the most important type of training program, but the second most important was self-instruction using a job description, occurring in 13 of the schools.

Table 13 indicates that there is little difference between training programs in the three SMSA school categories. As was shown in table 12, the conference with the immediate supervisor was again by far the most frequently used training program, occurring in 23 metropolitan schools, 34 suburban schools, and 13 nonmetropolitan schools, or in a total of 70 schools. The next most frequently used training program, self-instruction using a job description, occurred in a total of only 21 schools. When preschool and inservice institutes were

TABLE 12. TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR EACH TYPE OF PARAPROFESSIONAL

Type of Program	Number of Responses, by Type of Paraprofessional and School Enrollment																		
	Lay Readers						Instructional Aides						Clerical Aides						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
None	1	1	1	2	1	6					1	1	1	3	1	5	3	13	20
Conference with immediate supervisors	1	1	2	10	17	31	2	2	2	2	4	12	2	4	5	4	12	27	70
Directed study of curriculum		1		2	3	6					1	1					2	2	9
Preschool institutes				1	1	2	1			1	1	3					1	1	6
Inservice institutes				2	2	4	1				1	2			1	1	3	5	11
Self-instruction, job description		1	1	2	1	5	1	1			1	3	1	3	3	3	3	13	21
Other				1		1		1				1							2
Total	2	4	4	20	25	55	5	4	2	3	9	23	4	10	10	13	24	61	139

TABLE 13. TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR PARAPROFESSIONALS, BY SCHOOL SMSA CATEGORY

Type of Program	NUMBER OF RESPONSES, BY SCHOOL SMSA CATEGORY AND ENROLLMENT																	
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan					
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
None				1	3	4	1	2	1	4	2	10	1	2	1	1	1	6	20
Conference with immediate supervisors	1		1	7	14	23		2	6	8	18	34	4	5	2	1	1	13	70
Directed study of curriculum					5	5				1	1	2		1		1		2	9
Preschool institutes					2	2				1	1	2	1			1		2	6
Inservice institutes				1	2	3				1	4	5	1		1	1		3	11
Self-instruction, job description			1	2	2	5		1	3	1	3	8	2	4		2		8	21
Other				1		1		1				1							2
Total	1	0	2	12	28	43	1	6	10	16	29	62	9	12	4	7	2	34	139

combined for all types of SMSA categories, they totaled only 17 schools; and in 4 cases the same school had both a preschool and an inservice institute.

While the literature strongly emphasized the training of paraprofessionals, training programs for teachers using paraprofessionals were also considered important. Table 14 shows the training programs of schools in the three SMSA categories. Results seen here are similar to those shown in the two previous tables: the conference with the immediate supervisor was again the most accepted type of training program in schools that had such programs. However, the use of handbooks or written instructions for training, a new category, was used in 23 of the responding schools. It might be noted that of the 79 schools in the survey, 34 of these schools had no training program for teachers, and 20, as noted in tables 12 and 13, had no training program for paraprofessionals. While the training programs for schools in all three SMSA categories were similar, there was more consistency between those in nonmetropolitan and suburban schools. Only 5 metropolitan schools of the 23 reporting had no training program for teachers whereas over half of the suburban schools (19 of 36) and half of the nonmetropolitan schools (10 of 20) had no training program for teachers who were using paraprofessionals.

Evaluation and program ratings. Falling closely into the pattern of supervision of paraprofessional programs is the evaluation of these programs. In the questionnaire used, a number of possible evaluation methods were suggested, including observation, evaluation instruments, audio tapes, video tapes, and evaluation conferences. Tables 15 and 16 show the evaluation practices used for paraprofessionals.

As shown in table 15, where an evaluation program did exist, the most frequently used type was observation, as in the evaluation of instructional aides and clerical aides. However, with lay readers, observation was the second most-common method, with conferences being used more frequently. While there has recently been a surge of interest in the use of audio tapes and video tapes for evaluation methods, the schools reported no use of video tapes for evaluation of their paraprofessionals, and audio tapes were reported in only one school for use with lay

TABLE 14. TRAINING PROGRAMS FOR TEACHERS USING PARAPROFESSIONALS

Type of Program	Number of Responses, by School SMSA Category and Enrollment																	Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan					
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
None				2	3	5	1	3	2	6	7	19	3	4	1		2	10	34
Handbooks or written instructions			1	2	8	11			2	2	3	7	2	1	1	1		5	23
Conference with immediate supervisors	1			4	8	13		1	3	1	8	13	1	3	2	1		7	33
Preschool institutes				1	1	2			1	1	2	4							6
Inservice institutes				1	2	3				1	3	4			1			1	8
Other					1	1													1
Total	1	0	1	10	23	35	1	4	8	11	23	47	6	8	5	2	2	23	105

TABLE 15. METHODS OF EVALUATING EACH TYPE OF PARAPROFESSIONAL

Evaluation Method	Number of Responses, by Type of Paraprofessional and School Enrollment																		
	Lay Readers						Instructional Aides						Clerical Aides						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
None		2	2	2	9	15	1			1	2	4	2	4	1	4	6	17	36
Observation	1		1	8	7	17	1	2	2	1	2	8	1	3	5	7	11	27	52
Evaluation instrument				1		1					1	1		1			2	3	5
Audio tapes				1		1										1		1	2
Video tapes																			
Conferences	1		2	7	10	20	1	2	1	1	2	7	1	1	3	5	7	17	44
Other				2	2	4								1		1		2	6
Total	2	2	5	21	28	58	3	4	3	3	7	20	4	10	9	18	26	67	145

readers and one school for clerical aides. It should be noted that in 36 of the 79 reporting schools, no evaluation methods were used.

Table 16 reflects basically the same information indicated in table 15, with the same number of observations and conferences. In all three SMSA categories, observation was the most common type of evaluation, with conferences ranking second. The type of school not using evaluation might be of some interest. Almost a third of the metropolitan schools (7 out of 23) had no evaluation method. However, suburban and nonmetropolitan schools were somewhat different. Twenty-one of the 36 suburban schools, or well over half, and 8 of the 20 nonmetropolitan schools, or 40 percent, had no evaluation methods. One might conclude that while suburban schools generally seemed to lead the way with innovative practices, in the evaluation of paraprofessionals they were lagging behind.

Table 17 represents the rating each school gave its paraprofessional program. Metropolitan schools tended to rate their paraprofessional programs quite highly, with 22 of the 23 schools considering their program as either "successful" or "highly successful." Suburban schools were not quite so laudatory, with 31 of 36 schools responding to the "highly successful" and "successful" categories. One of the suburban schools, in fact, rated its program as "unsuccessful" while two others showed even more dissatisfaction, rating their programs as "highly unsuccessful." Fourteen nonmetropolitan schools, or 70 percent, rated their programs as "highly successful" or "successful," with the remaining schools considering their programs as "slightly successful." As a total group, the paraprofessional programs were rated quite well by their respective schools.

SCHOOLS THAT HAD DISCONTINUED PARAPROFESSIONAL USE

As noted earlier, 44 schools had indicated on the original questionnaire that they had discontinued the use of paraprofessionals. Of these 44 schools, 40 returned usable questionnaires describing their previous use of paraprofessionals as well as their reasons for the discontinuation of that use. As table 18

TABLE 16. METHODS OF EVALUATING PARAPROFESSIONALS, BY SCHOOL SMSA CATEGORY

Evaluation Method	Number of Responses, by School SMSA Category and Enrollment																		Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
None				2	5	7	1	3	2	5	10	21	2	3	1		2	8	36
Observation			1	8	11	20		1	5	5	9	20	3	4	2	3		12	52
Evaluation instrument					2	2				1	1	2		1				1	5
Audio tapes										2		2							2
Video tapes																			0
Conferences	1		1	5	9	16		1	2	5	10	18	2	2	3	3		10	44
Other				2	2	4				1		1		1				1	6
Total	1	0	2	17	29	49	1	5	9	19	30	64	7	11	6	6	2	32	145

TABLE 17. RATINGS OF PARAPROFESSIONAL PROGRAMS

Rating	Number of Schools, by SMSA Category and Enrollment																		
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
Highly successful	1			2	5	8		1	2	3	5	11		2		1	1	4	23
Successful			1	5	8	14	1	2	2	6	9	20	4	3	2	1		10	44
Slightly successful				1		1			1		1	2	1	3	1		1	6	9
Unsuccessful											1	1							1
Highly unsuccessful								1			1	2							2
Total	1	0	1	8	13	23	1	4	5	9	17	36	5	8	3	2	2	20	79

indicates, 12 of the schools were metropolitan, 16 were suburban, and 12 were nonmetropolitan. Fourteen of these 40 schools fell into the enrollment category of 500 to 999, with only three schools in the 1500 to 1999 category. Almost half of these schools enrolled fewer than 1000 students.

TABLE 18. SCHOOLS THAT HAD DISCONTINUED PARAPROFESSIONAL USE

Enrollment	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS BY SMSA CATEGORY			Total
	Metropolitan	Suburban	Nonmetropolitan	
0-499	1 (8.5%)		4 (33%)	5 (12.5%)
500-999	3 (25.5%)	5 (31%)	6 (50%)	14 (35%)
1000-1499	1 (8.5%)	5 (31%)	1 (8.5%)	7 (17.5%)
1500-1999	2 (17%)	1 (7%)		3 (7.5%)
2000 or more	5 (40.5%)	5 (31%)	1 (8.5%)	11 (27.5%)
Total	12 (100%)	16 (100%)	12 (100%)	40 (100%)

Table 19 presents teaching loads for the schools that discontinued the use of paraprofessionals. As can be noted from this table, four of the discontinuing schools had teaching loads of fewer than 100 students. Otherwise, the teaching loads were quite similar to those in schools that still used paraprofessionals.

As table 20 indicates, the use of paraprofessionals in these schools was at least somewhat similar to that in schools that were still using paraprofessionals. Twenty-two of the discontinuing schools had had lay readers; 6 had used instructional aides; and 18 had used clerical aides. None of the schools had employed housekeeping aides. The clerical aides that had been used were equally divided among metropolitan, suburban and nonmetropolitan schools. Lay readers and instructional aides, while not quite so evenly placed, were also found in all three SMSA categories.

TABLE 19. TEACHING LOADS OF ENGLISH TEACHERS IN SCHOOLS DISCONTINUING PARAPROFESSIONAL USE

Number of Students per Teacher	Number of Schools, by SMSA Category and Enrollment																		
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	Total
0-99	1					1			1			1		2				2	4
100-124			1		3	4		3	1			4	3	3			1	7	15
125-149		1		2	2	5		2	2	1	5	10	1	1	1			3	18
150-174		2				2			1			1							3
175 +																			0
Total	1	3	1	2	5	12	0	5	5	1	5	16	4	6	1	0	1	12	40

TABLE 20. TYPES OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN SCHOOLS DISCONTINUING USE

Type of Paraprofessional	Number of responses, by school SMSA category and enrollment																		Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
Lay reader	1	3		1	1	6		3	2	1	4	10	1	4			1	6	22
Instructional aide			1			1		1	1		1	3	1	1				2	6
Clerical aide		1		1	4	6		1	2		3	6	2	2	1		1	6	18
Housekeeping aide																			0
Total	1	4	1	2	5	13	0	5	5	1	8	19	4	7	1	0	2	14	46

Table 21 brings to light more similarities between schools that used paraprofessionals and those that had discontinued that use. In both sets of schools (see table 3) about the same percentage did not pay their paraprofessionals, and a similar percentage of both school groups relied on local funds for their aides. One difference that can be noted is that none of the discontinuing schools had used OEO funds, and a smaller percentage of the discontinuing schools used Title I funds than did schools that still employed paraprofessionals.

One might suspect that a reason for discontinuing a paraprofessional program would be an inability to recruit the necessary personnel. However, this apparently was not the situation. As table 22 illustrates, 26 of the discontinuing schools had no recruiting problems. Where problems did exist, the most common was a lack of qualified personnel, and this problem occurred almost equally in schools in all three SMSA categories. The problem of low wages was found in only two metropolitan schools and two suburban schools. Other problems were even less significant.

The reasons for discontinuing the use of paraprofessionals are provided in table 23. Quite a few different reasons were given, but below are the most frequently listed presented in rank order:

teachers dissatisfied with paraprofessionals (11 schools)

local funds no longer available (10)

teachers, while not dissatisfied, felt they no longer needed paraprofessionals (8)

paraprofessionals not meeting expectations (7)

outside funds no longer available (7)

teaching load reduced to level where paraprofessionals no longer needed (6)

students dissatisfied with paraprofessionals (6)

For metropolitan schools, the unavailability of outside funds was the most frequently cited reason, while this reason was given by only one suburban school and one nonmetropolitan school. In the latter two SMSA categories, the other reasons were fairly equally divided.

TABLE 21. FUNDING OF PARAPROFESSIONALS IN SCHOOLS DISCONTINUING USE

Source of Funding	Number of Responses, by School SMSA Category and Enrollment																	Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan					
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
None (no remuneration)		1				1		1				1	1					1	3
Local funds		2	1	2	1	6		4	5	1	3	13	1	6	1		1	9	28
Title I, ESEA					2	2							2					2	4
Title III, ESEA			1		2	3													3
OEO																			0
Other	1					1					2	2							3
Total	1	3	2	2	5	13	0	5	5	1	5	16	4	6	1	0	1	12	41

TABLE 22. PROBLEMS IN RECRUITING PARAPROFESSIONALS

Type of Problem	NUMBER OF RESPONSES, BY SCHOOL SMSA CATEGORY AND ENROLLMENT																		Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
No problems	1	2	1		4	8		3	2		5	10	4	4				8	26
Lack of qualified personnel		1		1	1	3		2	1			3		2	1		1	4	10
Wages too low				1	1	2			2			2							4
Paraprofessionals unwilling to accept responsibility									1			1					1	1	2
Undesirable working hours										1		1							1
Other				1		1			1			1		1				1	3
Total	1	3	1	3	6	14	0	5	7	1	5	18	4	7	1	0	2	14	46

TABLE 23. REASONS FOR DISCONTINUING PARAPROFESSIONAL USE

Reason	Number of Responses, by School SMSA Category and Enrollment																Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan				
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
Outside funds no longer available			1		4	5					1	1	1				1	1	7
Local funds no longer available			1	1	1	3		1	1	1	1	4		3				3	10
Teaching load reduced to level where paraprofessionals no longer needed	1					1		1	1		1	3			1		1	2	6
Teachers dissatisfied with paraprofessionals	1	1		1	1	4		1	2	1		4	2				1	3	11
Properly educated personnel not available		1		1		2							1					1	3
Paraprofessionals not meeting expectations		1				1			1	1	1	3	1	2				3	7

TABLE 23. REASONS FOR DISCONTINUING PARAPROFESSIONAL USE (Cont.)

Reason	Number of Responses, by School SMSA Category and Enrollment																		Total
	Metropolitan						Suburban						Nonmetropolitan						
	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	0-499	500-999	1000-1499	1500-1999	2000 or more	Total	
Parents dissatisfied with paraprofessionals									2			2							2
Students dissatisfied with paraprofessionals	1			1		2			3			3	1					1	6
New legislation forbade paraprofessional use																			0
Teachers felt they no longer needed paraprofessionals								2			2	4	1	3				4	8
Others		1				1		3	3	1	2	9	1	1				2	12
Total	3	4	2	4	6	19	0	8	13	4	8	33	8	9	1	0	2	20	72

CHAPTER THREE

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

EVALUATIVE SUMMARY

The first section of this chapter is an attempt to bring together much of the data already presented and to interpret these data in relation both to an overall picture of paraprofessional use and to the three SMSA categories.

Data interpreted in relation to an overall picture of paraprofessional use. The paraprofessional program in the states surveyed, while apparently growing, had not reached nearly the proportions it seems likely to reach in the future. Paraprofessionals were generally found in larger schools, with almost two-thirds of the schools that used paraprofessionals having student populations of over 1500 (table 1).

Although the NCTE has long recommended that individual English teachers be assigned no more than four classes per day (with a total pupil contact of 100 students or less), only a few schools had maintained this teacher-pupil ratio. On the average, teachers in responding schools were assigned five classes and met 124 students daily. The reasons for large teaching loads in some metropolitan schools that used paraprofessionals were not specified, but several respondents alluded to rising tax rates and inadequate funding in their school districts.

The number of each type of paraprofessional reported resulted in few surprises. Since the NCTE had specifically recommended clerical aides in each department in relation to the number of teachers, the large number of clerical aides found in English departments had been anticipated. The much larger number of lay readers, although somewhat unexpected, could perhaps be attributed to the preponderance of lay reader articles in the literature.

The use of instructional aides and tutors has a prominent place in contemporary educational literature, perhaps indicating a far greater utilization of these paraprofessionals a few years from now, once educators more readily accept tutors. Thus, the small percentage of instructional aides found in the schools at the time of this survey (5 percent) need not be a cause for disappointment.

Salaries were discussed at some length earlier in chapter 2 (table 5); however, a few questions still remain. For instance, why would lay readers receive only 57 cents per hour more than clerical aides? If negotiations did help clerical aides, should they not also have aided lay readers? Why would these schools pay instructional aides so little in relation to their other paraprofessionals? Unfortunately, reasons for the differences in salary have not been provided or even surmised.

A large number of schools, 85 percent, rated their paraprofessional programs as either successful or highly successful (table 17). These ratings were undoubtedly based on the amount of help teachers or department heads were receiving from paraprofessionals. If these schools had instead been asked to individually rate their training programs, their selection processes, their supervision policies, or their evaluation procedures, their responses would probably have indicated less satisfaction with paraprofessional programs. One of the two schools rating their programs as highly unsuccessful was visited in the follow-up inquiry. In that school, departments were forced to use the services of a clerical aide who was generally deemed incompetent, hence the apparent dissatisfaction. The investigator verified that the clerical aide mentioned was not rehired the following year.

While a number of reasons were given for the discontinuation of paraprofessionals, the relative importance of funds should be noted (table 23). Sixty-seven percent of the metropolitan schools, 31 percent of the suburban schools, and 33 percent of the nonmetropolitan schools checked the unavailability of either local or outside funds as reasons for discontinuing the paraprofessional program. Dissatisfaction with paraprofessionals and no further need for the program were other important reasons given by the suburban and nonmetropolitan schools.

Data interpreted in relation to SMSA categories. Because suburban areas often attract the more affluent portions of the population, many educators and laymen alike have conceded that suburban schools on the whole tend to be leaders in many facets of education. With the general innovative leadership provided by some suburban schools, one might also expect them to maintain this leadership in such areas as the use of paraprofessionals. In light of this, another view of SMSA categories might be revealing.

Suburban schools did pay their paraprofessionals more than metropolitan or nonmetropolitan schools did (table 6). Seventeen percent of the suburban schools paid $3.00 or more per hour to some paraprofessionals as compared to 13 percent of the metropolitan schools and 5 percent of the nonmetropolitan schools. In the next highest pay category, a similar relationship existed.

In other areas suburban schools fared differently. For instance, only 50 percent of suburban schools used lay readers as compared to 78 percent of the metropolitan schools (table 4). The training of both paraprofessionals and teachers using paraprofessionals is also revealing. As shown in table 13, only 17 percent of the metropolitan schools (4 of 23) had no training programs for paraprofessionals, as compared to 28 percent of the suburban schools (10 of 36). Similarly, in table 14, 22 percent of the metropolitan schools (5 of 23) had no training program for teachers using paraprofessionals, yet 53 percent of the suburban schools (19 of 36) had not provided this training.

Evaluation methods are another area of concern. While 30 percent of the metropolitan schools and 40 percent of the nonmetropolitan schools had not evaluated their paraprofessionals, a much larger percentage of the suburban schools (58 percent) had failed to evaluate their aides (table 16).

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Findings from questionnaires sent to schools using paraprofessionals. The schools responding returned 79 usable questionnaires, with 36 of the returns coming from suburban schools and the rest being almost equally divided between metropolitan and nonmetropolitan schools. Within the limits of the study and

with respect to the population of the investigation, the following findings were derived:

1. About two-thirds of the schools using paraprofessionals had a student population of over 1500 students.
2. Teachers in these schools were assigned a mean load of five classes totaling 124 students.
3. A majority of the schools used paraprofessionals 4 years or less, but it was not uncommon to find schools that had used paraprofessionals for over 10 years.
4. Some schools used either ESEA, Title I; ESEA, Title III; or OEO funds; but the majority of schools relied on local funds.
5. The largest group of paraprofessionals hired were lay readers. Only a few instructional aides or housekeeping aides were hired.
6. Paraprofessionals worked an average of 10 hours per week, with lay readers working the fewest hours and instructional aides working the most.
7. For their work paraprofessionals were paid a mean hourly salary of $2.36, with instructional aides receiving the lowest mean hourly salary and lay readers, the highest.
8. The primary duty of lay readers was grading themes; of instructional aides, tutoring students; and of clerical aides, typing and duplicating.
9. English department heads were most frequently involved in selecting paraprofessionals.
10. English department heads and teachers were the most involved in the supervision of paraprofessionals.
11. The main supervisory practices were conferences between teacher and paraprofessional and regular supervision by teacher or department chairman.
12. Preschool or inservice training for paraprofessionals or for teachers using paraprofessionals was provided in few of the schools.
13. Evaluation of paraprofessionals was either not provided or was limited to observations or conferences.
14. Virtually all of the schools rated their programs as being successful.

Findings from questionnaires sent to schools that had discontinued the use of paraprofessionals. Discontinuing schools from each SMSA category were represented in about the same ratio as schools using paraprofessionals: 12 were metropolitan; 16, suburban; and 12, nonmetropolitan. Also noted was a similar pupil-teacher ratio. Other findings are as follows:

1. Paraprofessionals were paid primarily from local funds.
2. Most of the paraprofessionals that had been hired were lay readers.
3. Less than a majority of discontinuing schools encountered problems in recruiting paraprofessionals; the main problem of those that did was a lack of qualified personnel.
4. Primary reasons for discontinuing the use of paraprofessionals were teacher dissatisfaction with paraprofessionals, shortage of funds, and teachers feeling they no longer needed the help of paraprofessionals.

CONCLUSIONS

Generally speaking, the findings pointed to many self-evident conclusions. The conclusions below, however, were drawn from less obvious survey results or from findings brought together from the various sections of the survey:

1. Larger schools (1500 or more students) were not only more likely to use paraprofessionals, but they were less likely to discontinue that use.
2. While schools seemed willing to hire lay readers, they did not seem to be ready to hire instructional aides.
3. Schools seemed to pay paraprofessionals salaries that were at least close to being adequate.
4. Even though English department heads were involved with the selection of paraprofessionals in a majority of the schools, this involvement seemed less than adequate. Principals and other administrative personnel frequently seemed to be involved in hiring paraprofessionals who would not be working directly under them.
5. The degree of preschool and inservice training provided for both paraprofessionals and teachers using paraprofessionals was highly unsatisfactory.
6. The absence of formal evaluation in most schools and the limiting of evaluation to observation in remaining schools all pointed to an inadequate evaluation policy.
7. The ratings of paraprofessional programs as successful or highly successful by approximately 86 percent of the schools could be considered adequate. These ratings probably indicated satisfaction with the tasks paraprofessionals performed rather than satisfaction with all aspects of the program. If not, schools were probably unaware of their problems in supervision, training, and evaluation.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations are often made with respect to further research on the problem studied or research on related problems. In this case, however, the recommendations are made in light of the findings on the use of paraprofessionals.

Based on the evidence provided by this study and on the review of related literature the following recommendations are made:

1. Since the need for paraprofessionals is as great in small schools as it is in large schools and since only a slight percentage of small schools use paraprofessionals, these schools, especially, should consider the utilization of paraprofessionals, particularly instructional aides and clerical aides. All schools should consider increased utilization of instructional aides.
2. More emphasis needs to be placed on lowering the pupil-teacher ratio than on hiring lay readers. Where the ratio is not lowered, however, the use of lay readers should again be emphasized.
3. Paraprofessional programs should be adopted for a minimum of two and preferably three years before any decisions are made on the continuation of the program. This time is necessary for paraprofessionals and teachers to learn to work together effectively.
4. Students should be given consideration for use as instructional aides. However, where used, students should be given careful instructions or procedural training in their tutorial roles.
5. English department heads and teachers should be primarily involved in the selection, assignment, supervision, and evaluation of paraprofessionals.
6. Careful and complete procedures need to be followed in the hiring of all paraprofessionals. In the case of lay readers, both grading and writing of themes should be considered necessary parts of the selection process.
7. A supervision policy consisting of regularly scheduled supervisory visits or conferences among teachers and/or the department chairman and paraprofessional should be established.
8. Extensive preschool and inservice training should be made an integral part of any paraprofessional program.
9. Evaluation of the performance and utilization of paraprofessionals needs to be made at least twice a year as part of a regular schedule. When applicable, the use of video tapes should be considered as part of the evaluation program.

10. Schools ought to establish, where applicable, a policy for assigning paraprofessionals to higher responsibilities or to higher job status after a few years of satisfactory service.

Certainly the future for paraprofessional programs in English holds promise of great expansion into new school systems and into new and more efficient professional usage. However, for this foreseen growth to provide the greatest benefit to the ultimate beneficiary, the student, it must proceed cautiously and logically, encompassing the guidelines provided above that have proven most worthwhile.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE SENT TO SCHOOLS USING PARAPROFESSIONALS DURING THE 1968-69 SCHOOL YEAR

NOTE: All information requested below should refer only to grades 9 through 12 or grades 10 through 12, depending on your school.

Check or Fill in the Appropriate Blanks Below

1. How many pupils are enrolled in your school?
   a. 0-499 . . . . . ____
   b. 500-999 . . . . . ____
   c. 1000-1499 . . . . . ____
   d. 1500-1999 . . . . . ____
   e. 2000 or more . . . . . ____

2. How many equivalent full-time English teachers do you employ? . . . . . ____

3. What grades are served in your school?
   a. 9 through 12 . . . . . ____
   b. 10 through 12 . . . . . ____

4. Do you use ability grouping in English classes? Yes____ No____
   If Yes, how many ability levels are used?
   a. two . . . . . ____
   b. three . . . . . ____
   c. four . . . . . ____
   d. five or more . . . . . ____

5. What is the average number of classes assigned to each English teacher?
   a. fewer than four . . . . . ____
   b. four . . . . . ____
   c. five . . . . . ____
   d. six . . . . . ____
   e. something other than above (please explain) _____

6. What is the average teaching load for English teachers?
   a. fewer than 100 students ..... ___
   b. 100 to 124 students ..... ___
   c. 125 to 149 students ..... ___
   d. 150 to 174 students ..... ___
   e. 175 or more students ..... ___

NOTE: All questions about auxiliary personnel refer only to those used in the English department in grades 9-12 or 10-12.

7. In what school year did you first employ auxiliary personnel in your English department? 19___-19___

8. What are the sources of funding used to pay auxiliary personnel? (Check all that apply.)
   a. auxiliary personnel not paid—no funding ..... ___
   b. local funds ..... ___
   c. ESEA, Title I ..... ___
   d. ESEA, Title III ..... ___
   e. OEO funds ..... ___
   f. private foundation funds (please specify) _____
   _____
   g. other funds (please specify) _____
   _____

9. Have you encountered any problems in recruiting auxiliary personnel? Yes ___ No ___
   (If Yes, check all below that apply.)
   a. lack of qualified personnel ..... ___
   b. wages too low ..... ___
   c. unwillingness of auxiliaries to accept responsibilities assigned to the job ..... ___
   d. working hours undesirable ..... ___
   e. other(s) (please specify) _____
   _____
   f. _____
   _____

10. To how many teachers is each auxiliary personnel assigned?
    a. one ..... ___
    b. two ..... ___
    c. three ..... ___
    d. four or more ..... ___

For the Following Questions, Fill in the Applicable Numbers for Each Type of Auxiliary unless Directed Otherwise	**Lay Readers**	**Instructional Aides**	**Clerical Aides**	**Housekeeping Aides**
11. How many of each type of auxiliary have been hired in your English department for each of the following years?				
a. 1st year auxiliaries were hired	___	___	___	___
b. 2nd year auxiliaries were hired	___	___	___	___
c. 3rd year auxiliaries were hired	___	___	___	___
d. 1968-1969	___	___	___	___
12. On the average, how many students are used as each type of auxiliary during the academic year?				
a. high school students	___	___	___	___
b. college students	___	___	___	___
13. How many auxiliaries of each sex are hired?				
a. male	___	___	___	___
b. female	___	___	___	___
14. How many auxiliaries fit into each of the following marital classifications?				
a. single	___	___	___	___
b. married	___	___	___	___
15. How many auxiliaries fit into each age category below?				
a. below 21	___	___	___	___
b. 21 to 35	___	___	___	___
c. 36 to 50	___	___	___	___
d. 51 to 65	___	___	___	___
e. over 65	___	___	___	___
16. How many auxiliaries have reached the following educational levels?				
a. less than high school diploma	___	___	___	___
b. high school diploma	___	___	___	___
c. two years of college	___	___	___	___
d. bachelor's degree	___	___	___	___
e. master's degree	___	___	___	___

	Lay Readers	Instructional Aides	Clerical Aides	Housekeeping Aides
17. In hours worked per week, how many auxiliaries fit into each of the following categories?				
a. 1 to 8 hours				
b. 9 to 16 hours				
c. 17 to 24 hours				
d. 25 to 32 hours				
e. 33 to 40 hours				
f. over 40 hours				
18. How many auxiliaries are in each salary category?				
a. $1.00 to $1.49 per hour				
b. $1.50 to $1.99 per hour				
c. $2.00 to $2.49 per hour				
d. $2.50 to $2.99 per hour				
e. $3.00 or more per hour				
19. How many auxiliaries are on other than an hourly salary? (Please explain pay scale and, if available, include a copy of this pay scale.)				
20. How many auxiliary personnel do you anticipate using next year? Three years from now? Five years from now?				
a. 1969-1970 school year				
b. 1971-1972 school year				
c. 1973-1974 school year				
21. What educational qualifications are required for auxiliary personnel employment? (Check all that apply.)				
a. no specific requirements				
b. high school graduation				
c. less than 4 years of college				
d. 4 years of college or more				
22. Check the following duties that are performed by each type of auxiliary you employ.				
a. reading and correcting students' themes				

	Lay Readers	Instructional Aides	Clerical Aides	Housekeeping Aides
b. conferences with students	—	—	—	—
c. tutoring individual students	—	—	—	—
d. tutoring small groups of students while the teacher works with another group	—	—	—	—
e. helping with discipline	—	—	—	—
f. administering tests	—	—	—	—
g. preparing report cards	—	—	—	—
h. arranging conferences between parents and teachers	—	—	—	—
i. handling other correspondence with parents	—	—	—	—
j. ordering A-V materials and other supplies	—	—	—	—
k. setting up A-V equipment and other materials	—	—	—	—
l. correcting tests, homework, workbooks, etc.	—	—	—	—
m. duplicating tests and other materials	—	—	—	—
n. typing class materials, tests, etc.	—	—	—	—
o. keeping attendance register and preparing reports	—	—	—	—
p. corridor monitoring	—	—	—	—
q. study hall monitoring	—	—	—	—
r. recording data in student files	—	—	—	—
s. collecting money from pupils	—	—	—	—
t. helping with classroom housekeeping	—	—	—	—
u. other(s) (please specify) _____	—	—	—	—
v. _____	—	—	—	—
23. Do you use auxiliary personnel at all secondary grade levels? (If Yes, check which types of auxiliary personnel are used at all levels.) Yes ____ No____	—	—	—	—

	Lay Readers	Instructional Aides	Clerical Aides	Housekeeping Aides
24. If you checked No above, please check the grade levels served and the type of auxiliary used at each level.				
a. grade 9	___	___	___	___
b. grade 10	___	___	___	___
c. grade 11	___	___	___	___
d. grade 12	___	___	___	___
25. Do you use auxiliary personnel at all ability levels? (If Yes, check which types of auxiliary personnel are used at all ability levels.) Yes___ No___	___	___	___	___
26. If you checked No above, please indicate the type of ability levels served and then check the auxiliaries used at each level.				
a. _____	___	___	___	___
b. _____	___	___	___	___
c. _____	___	___	___	___
27. How many of your auxiliary personnel are certificated?				
a. not certificated	___	___	___	___
b. certificated to teach English	___	___	___	___
c. certificated to teach other subjects .	___	___	___	___
d. certificated as an auxiliary	___	___	___	___
28. How many of your auxiliary personnel have continued formal education since working as auxiliaries?	___	___	___	___
29. How many auxiliary personnel are affiliated with professional organizations?				
a. no affiliations	___	___	___	___
b. state English association	___	___	___	___
c. National Council of Teachers of English	___	___	___	___
d. National Education Association . .	___	___	___	___
e. state education association	___	___	___	___

	Lay Readers	Instructional Aides	Clerical Aides	Housekeeping Aides
f. American Federation of Teachers.	___	___	___	___
g. other union affiliation	___	___	___	___
h. other (please specify) _____	___	___	___	___
30. Which of the following are involved in selection of each type of auxiliary? (Check all that apply.)				
a. superintendent	___	___	___	___
b. other central office staff	___	___	___	___
c. principal	___	___	___	___
d. English department head	___	___	___	___
e. teacher	___	___	___	___
f. other (please specify) _____	___	___	___	___
31. Which of the following are used in selecting each type of auxiliary? (Check all that apply.)				
a. letters of recommendation	___	___	___	___
b. personal interviews	___	___	___	___
c. standardized tests	___	___	___	___
d. subjective exams or themes	___	___	___	___
e. other (please specify) _____	___	___	___	___
32. Who is responsible for assigning auxiliary personnel to the teachers? (Check all that apply.)				
a. superintendent	___	___	___	___
b. director of instruction	___	___	___	___
c. principal	___	___	___	___
d. English department head	___	___	___	___
e. teacher selects own	___	___	___	___
f. other (please specify) _____	___	___	___	___
33. Who are the immediate supervisors of each type of auxiliary? (Check all that apply.)				
a. central office staff member	___	___	___	___
b. principal	___	___	___	___
c. assistant principal	___	___	___	___

	Lay Readers	Instructional Aides	Clerical Aides	Housekeeping Aides
d. English department chairman . . .	—	—	—	—
e. teacher	—	—	—	—
f. other (please specify) _____	—	—	—	—
34. Which of the following supervisory practices are used with auxiliaries? (Check all that apply.)				
a. daily supervision by teacher	—	—	—	—
b. regular visits by teacher	—	—	—	—
c. regular visits by administrators . .	—	—	—	—
d. regular supervision by department chairman	—	—	—	—
e. conferences between teacher and auxiliary	—	—	—	—
f. conferences between administrator and auxiliary	—	—	—	—
35. Approximately how many supervisory visits occur annually (if someone in addition to the teacher supervises)?				
a. no visitation policy	—	—	—	—
b. 1 to 3 visits	—	—	—	—
c. 4 to 6 visits	—	—	—	—
d. 7 to 9 visits	—	—	—	—
e. over 9 visits	—	—	—	—
36. What type of training program is used with each type of auxiliary? (Check all that apply.)				
a. none	—	—	—	—
b. conferences with immediate supervisors	—	—	—	—
c. directed study of curriculum and materials	—	—	—	—
d. preschool institutes	—	—	—	—
e. inservice institutes	—	—	—	—
f. self-instruction using job descriptions	—	—	—	—
g. other (please describe) _____	—	—	—	—

	Lay Readers	Instructional Aides	Clerical Aides	Housekeeping Aides
37. Approximately how many hours annually are devoted to each type of training program checked above? (Place number of hours in blanks to right.)				
a. conferences with immediate supervisors	___	___	___	___
b. directed study of curriculum and materials	___	___	___	___
c. preschool institutes	___	___	___	___
d. inservice institutes	___	___	___	___
e. other (please describe) _____	___	___	___	___
38. Are handbooks, guides, or job descriptions provided for auxiliaries? (If Yes, check all that apply.) Yes ___ No ___	___	___	___	___
39. What type of training program is used for teachers using auxiliaries? (Check all that apply.)				
a. none	___	___	___	___
b. handbooks or written instructions .	___	___	___	___
c. conferences with immediate supervisors	___	___	___	___
d. preschool institutes	___	___	___	___
e. inservice institutes	___	___	___	___
f. other (please describe) _____	___	___	___	___
40. Approximately how many hours annually are devoted to each type of training program checked in # 39? (Place number of hours in blanks to right.)				
a. conferences with immediate supervisors	___	___	___	___
b. preschool institutes	___	___	___	___
c. inservice institutes	___	___	___	___
d. other (please describe) _____	___	___	___	___
41. What methods are used to evaluate job performance of each type of auxiliary? (Check all that apply.)				
a. no systematic evaluation utilized	___	___	___	___

	Lay Readers	Instructional Aides	Clerical Aides	Housekeeping Aides
b. observation	___	___	___	___
c. evaluation instrument	___	___	___	___
d. audio tapes	___	___	___	___
e. video tapes	___	___	___	___
f. conferences	___	___	___	___
g. other (please describe) _____	___	___	___	___

42. How many evaluations are provided for auxiliaries?

a. no formal policy	___	___	___	___
b. one evaluation per year	___	___	___	___
c. two evaluations per year	___	___	___	___
d. three evaluations per year	___	___	___	___
e. more than three evaluations per year	___	___	___	___

43. Has there been any change in teacher-pupil ratio in the English department since auxiliary personnel have been employed? Yes ___ No ___ (If Yes, please indicate and explain the nature of the change.)

44. Would you continue hiring auxiliary personnel if the student-teacher ratio dropped below 100 to 1? Yes ___ No ___

45. Does your school have any policy for deliberately assigning auxiliary personnel to higher responsibilities after a few years of satisfactory service? (e.g., clerical aide promoted to instructional aide) Yes ___ No ___ (If Yes, please explain.)

46. How would you rate the auxiliary program in your English department?
    a. highly successful ___
    b. successful ___
    c. slightly successful ___
    d. unsuccessful ___
    e. highly unsuccessful ___

47. Please describe any changes in the auxiliary personnel program that you anticipate in the next two years.

48. Please use the space below for any comments, evaluation, or other remarks you would like to make with regard to the auxiliary personnel program in your school.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE SENT TO SCHOOLS THAT HAD DISCONTINUED PARAPROFESSIONAL USE

NOTE: All information requested below should refer only to grades 9 through 12 or grades 10 through 12, depending on your school.

Check or Fill in the Appropriate Blanks Below

1. How many pupils are enrolled in your school?
   a. 0-499. . . . . ____
   b. 500-999. . . . . ____
   c. 1000-1499 . . . . . ____
   d. 1500-1999. . . . . ____
   e. 2000 or more . . . . . ____

2. How many equivalent full-time English teachers do you employ? ____

3. What grades are served in your school?
   a. 9 through 12 . . . . . ____
   b. 10 through 12 . . . . . ____

4. What is the average teaching load for English teachers?
   a. fewer than 100 students . . . . . ____
   b. 100 to 124 students . . . . . ____
   c. 125 to 149 students . . . . . ____
   d. 150 to 174 students . . . . . ____
   e. 175 or more students. . . . . ____

5. In what school year did you first employ auxiliaries in your English department? 19____ -19 ____

6. In what school year did you discontinue employing auxiliaries in your English department? 19____ -19 ____

7. During the years auxiliary personnel were employed, what was the average number hired in each of the following categories?
   a. lay readers . . . . . ____
   b. instructional aides . . . . . ____
   c. clerical aides . . . . . ____
   d. housekeeping aides . . . . . ____

8. To how many teachers was each auxiliary assigned?
   a. one . . . . . ____
   b. two . . . . . ____
   c. three . . . . . ____
   d. four or more . . . . . ____

9. What were the sources of funding used to pay auxiliary personnel? (Check all that apply.)
   a. auxiliary personnel not paid–no funding . . . . . ____
   b. local funds . . . . . ____
   c. ESEA, Title I . . . . . ____
   d. ESEA, Title III . . . . . ____
   e. OEO funds . . . . . ____
   f. private foundation funds (please specify) _____ ____
   _____
   f. other funds (please specify) _____ ____
   _____

10. Did you encounter any problems in recruiting auxiliary personnel? Yes ____No ____ (If Yes, check all below that apply.)
   a. lack of qualified personnel . . . . . ____
   b. wages too low . . . . . ____
   c. unwillingness of auxiliaries to accept responsibilities assigned to the job . . . . . ____
   d. undesirable working hours . . . . . ____
   e. other(s) (please specify) _____ ____
   _____
   f. _____ ____
   _____

11. What were the reasons for discontinuing the use of auxiliary personnel? (Check all that apply.)
   a. outside funds no longer available . . . . . ____
   b. local funds no longer available . . . . . ____

c. teaching load reduced to level where auxiliary personnel were no longer needed . . . . . ____
d. teachers were dissatisfied with auxiliary personnel . . . ____
e. properly educated personnel were not available . . . . . ____
f. auxiliary personnel were not meeting the expectations of people hiring them . . . . . ____
g. parents were dissatisfied with auxiliaries . . . . . ____
h. students were dissatisfied with auxiliaries . . . . . ____
i. new state legislation forbade using auxiliaries as they had been used . . . . . ____
j. teachers, while not dissatisfied, felt they no longer needed auxiliary personnel . . . . . ____
k. other(s) (please explain) _____ ____
_____
l. _____ ____
_____

12. Would you use auxiliary personnel in the future if circumstances permitted? Yes ____ No ____

13. Were you generally satisfied with the performance of auxiliary personnel in your school? Yes____ No____

The NCTE/ERIC Clearinghouse on the Teaching of English is an Information Service of the National Council of Teachers of English in Cooperation with the Educational Resources Information Center of the U.S. Office of Education